

# THEORIES OF ADMINISTRATION

**Bhuvanesh Gupta**  
**Prof. (Dr.) Smita Mishra**





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## **Theories of Administration**

*Bhuvanesh Gupta, Prof. (Dr.) Smita Mishra*

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## CHAPTER 1

### CLASSICAL AND MODERN THEORIES OF ADMINISTRATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

The history of public administration has long been intertwined with that of government itself. For the most of the 20th century, public administration was practiced according to the classical model. In actuality, the most crucial theoretical tenet of the conventional model of public administration is Theory of bureaucracy. Due to the traditional public administration's theoretical and practical failures, this model of public management began to shift in the middle of the 1980s to one that is flexible and market-based. All of this resulted in changes to management practices, but it also affected how the government interacted with its citizens and its position in society. A new paradigm in the public sector is emerging as a result of the introduction of modern managerial approaches and the acceptance of new forms of public management. Although not all nations adopted the entire new public management package, the Anglo-American countries were the first to place greater emphasis on the role of private sector forms and techniques in the process of modernizing government. This is where the wave of reforms originated. There is another different reform model that is used by several European nations and calls for the selected and constrained use of its components and tools.

#### KEYWORDS:

Classical Theory, Co-evolution, Dichotomy, Modern Theories, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

Traditional public administration was not equipped to handle new challenges and was resistant to change since it was created to administer a state in a steady and predictable manner in a largely unchanging environment. Today, it must adapt and make accommodations to situations that are changing quickly and, at times, unexpectedly. The goal of the recent global initiatives to carry out significant reforms in the public sector has been to ensure good governance in terms of efficient, moral, responsible, and transparent administration.

The cumulative impact of those developments on public administration even if almost no national government would argue that administration change has now been completed or that the public sector has been put into good working order. The model of public administration is the subject of the article's examination, which focuses on both traditional and contemporary methods for bringing about change in the sector. The old model of administration ultimately failed and was widely seen as a failure, which is the fundamental cause of its demise. Modern management approaches to public administration are seen as more than just a reform of the status quo; they represent a paradigm shift in the field.



In order to improve outcomes from public sector organizations, the analysis aims to determine whether there is a single feasible alternative to the traditional approach to public administration and whether the traditional bureaucracy model could be replaced by some kind of market-based mechanism[1]–[3].

### **Traditional Methods of Public Administration**

Because every reform attempt is compared to and measured against it, it is necessary to understand the traditional model of governance in order to comprehend the changes and reforms in the public administration system. For a very long time, the traditional organizational model for the public sector was considered to be the ideal one. Despite lacking a single, unifying philosophical foundation, the traditional model of public administration has been regarded as the most effective theory of public sector management. Its theoretical underpinnings come from M. Weber in Germany, W. Wilson and Fr. Taylor in the United States, the Northcote-Trevelyan Report in the United Kingdom. It is defined generally as an administration under the formal control of the political leadership, based on a strictly hierarchical model of bureaucracy, staffed by permanent, anonymous, and neutral officials, motivated only by the public interest, serving and governing party equally, and not contributing to policy but merely administering those policies determined by the politicians.

Throughout the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, this paradigm and its definition were generally recognized and employed in Western nations, namely in Continental Europe. This model's defining characteristic is that professional bureaucrats execute the tasks of public administration while isolated from the political mechanisms as well in modern governmental systems. As from the private sphere. The earlier, pre-modern models were based on interpersonal ties in contrast to this model. The main similarity between earlier administrative systems is that they were personal, based on loyalty to a specific person, such as a king, leader, minister, or party, as opposed to being impersonal, based on legality and loyalty to the organization and the state. A government administration based on merit and political neutrality rather than political reliance and clientelism was formed towards the end of the 19th century with the end of patronage or nepotism in Europe and the plunder system in the United States. Despite having differing historical developments, both the European and American public administrations adopted the Weberian approach and emphasized the need for impersonal, officially controlled, and hierarchical systems.

Although it is commonly known that Weber's analysis did not primarily center on administration, his key original contribution to the study of public administration relates to his examination of the social and historical settings in which bureaucracy, in particular, operates. Although Weber did not coin the term bureaucracy, he did identify it as the dominant form in a legal-rational society and outline the characteristics of the bureaucracy's ideal type, which was the most logical form. In addition to outlining the traits and requirements for contemporary bureaucracy, Max Weber also established the conditions of employment in the bureaucratic organization<sup>4</sup>: Officials are appointed, not elected; Officials are personally free; Officials are appointed on the basis of a contract. Officials are chosen based on their professional skills, receive a fixed salary, have pension rights, and are employed solely or primarily in that position.

Woodrow Wilson developed the politics-administration dichotomy, which added a significant component to this traditional concept of public administration. Wilson defines public administration as the meticulous and systematic execution of public law, and he holds that politics and administration should be strictly segregated because administration falls outside of politics' proper purview and administrative issues are not political ones. The division between politics and administration, according to W. Wilson not only remove the corruption and arbitrary behavior in the administration, but also potentially have larger impacts. Though the implementation of the split appears to be quite straightforward in theory, in practice politics and administration have not been completely and clearly separated.

The exchange of efficient management techniques across huge corporate and public companies is what sets America apart from Europe. It became clear that America had a robust business culture, and the incorporation of administrative ideas from the private sector into American public administration took on a distinctive appearance. Scientific Management was the most significant theory that was originally adopted from private enterprises. The essential work *Principles and Methods of Scientific Management* by Frederick W. Taylor was published in 1911. Government officials supported scientific management at the time because they thought that its methods, which were directly related to the issue of efficiency, could be used in the public sector. At the time, there was a search for general administrative techniques in the private sector that could potentially be used to improve the efficiency in the operation of the American government.

Frederick Taylor, who held the one best way of working as his guiding principle, is today without a doubt credited with creating scientific management. According to Hughes, Taylor's theory has two main points: standardizing work, which meant identifying the one optimum style of working, and controlling in such a thorough and intensive manner as to ensure the maintenance of standards. In essence, these three elements—time and motion studies, wage incentive programs, and functional organization—make up Taylor's scientific management, according to Fry. Scientific management was the most influential theory in the public sector up to the 1940s, and Taylor's idea of one best way, the standardization of work, the systematic control, and the hierarchical organization fit public administration. The foundation of scientific management was questioned following World War II, both in theory and in reality. Herbert Simon, the economist who won the Nobel Prize, was one of the most vocal opponents since his work marked a significant break from the traditional method of public administration. According to Dwight Waldo, heterodoxy replaced orthodoxy in the 1940s as a result of a number of challenges to the classical approach to public administration. Weber and Taylor's views have been referred to as the public administrative orthodoxy. In other words, many theoretical perspectives and real-world examples began to have an impact on administrative organizations.

Either the relatively simple feedback of system theory, where inputs supports and demands are converted by the system to outputs authorized decisions, or the incremental approach of Lindblom dominate the idea of dynamics in post-war public administration theory. Although Easton's model was founded on system theory, complexity theory is not directly related to it. Against rational decision-making, which requires the policy maker to consider all options, weigh

them against the available information, and then select the best option, Lindblom's incrementalism proposed a small-step movement away from an undesirable state in a situation of limited knowledge. He was criticized for saying that policymakers could never bring about meaningful reforms. The response Lindblom gave, which was paraphrased a little more forcefully than he did, was that little incremental improvements will eventually lead to substantial changes and that it was preferable to be realistic and modest than to perish in unattainable ambitions [4], [5]. The complexity theories discussed above would, however, provide Lindblom with a different response, namely that the cumulative effects of numerous little moves could, at some time, approach the point where the system would almost lose its stability.

A whole generation of theories that were centered on the connectivity of many players and the idea that their methods influence one another arose in the 1970s. These theories of complex decision-making demonstrate the concepts of complexity, reliance, unpredictability, and connection even though they are unrelated to balanced equilibriums like complexity theory. The garbage can technique, mutual partisan adjustment and model II in Allison's multiple perspective approach are a few of the well-known ones. According to organization theory, strategy and strategy creation are the results of the strategic acts that various players have deployed have underlined the intricate nature of strategic processes, noting that while certain patterns may be deliberate, many occur as a result of responses to unforeseen external events or in response to the strategies of other actors. Emerging strategies are now recognized as products of learning processes rather than as aberrations of effective policymaking and administration. Decisions are frequently portrayed in game theory literature as the results of interactions. In a sequence of games, players' strategies are thus focused on their own considerations, but they can still affect the outcomes of other actors interconnectivity.

## DISCUSSION

### **Modern approaches to management in public administration**

According to Guy Peters, it fought several wars, produced and administered a massive expansion of social programs, instituted large-scale economic management for the public sector, and did a host of other remarkable things, so the traditional administrative system persisted for a very long time and was undoubtedly very successful. There was a significant reassessment of governance in the 1980s and 1990s, which was followed by attempts to remove administration from its foundations. Since then, very few governments have escaped the wave of reforms. The Anglo-American nations are those that are most adversely impacted by these shifts. Therefore, it is not surprising that these countries have experienced the most significant transformations. The new approach to managing the public sector has a number of names before the term new public management was adopted. The same phenomena has been referred to under other names, including managerialism, modern public management, market-based public administration, post-bureaucratic paradigm, and entrepreneurial government. The new strategy for public management is results-driven and concentrates on clients, outputs, and outcomes. It emphasizes management through goals and performance management, the use of market and market-type procedures in place of centralized command and control style regulation, competition and choice,

and devolution with better alignment of authority, responsibility, and accountability[6]. The three 'e's' of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness were systematically implemented in the UK during the Thatcher administration at all levels of British government. The primary goals of the reform were the extensive privatization of state businesses and the elimination of other public sector programs, while transforming the civil service from an administered to a managed bureaucracy. Even Bill Clinton, a candidate for president, demonstrated a strong interest in reforming government by influenced by the book's concepts. The Gore Report cited cutting-edge methods utilized in Britain, Australia, and New Zealand to create the new public administration.

Four key principles<sup>11</sup> formed the foundation of Gore's proposal to reinvent government: cutting red tape, shifting from systems in which people are accountable for following rules to systems in which they are accountable for achieving results, getting back to the fundamentals and producing better government for less, putting the needs of the public first, and empowering employees to produce results. International agencies like the World Bank, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and others have expressed interest in strategies to improve public management in addition to industrialized democracies. Additionally, according to the OECD Report from 1998, enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector as a whole requires a major cultural shift as the old management paradigm, which was largely process and rules driven, is replaced by a new paradigm that attempts to combine modern management practices with the logic of economics, while still retaining the core public service values.

### **Co-evolution: system interconnection and mutual influence**

The idea of connectedness encompasses both the relationships between systems as well as the components of a single system. Co-evolution with other systems is a factor in the development of systems. Co-evolution in biology basically means that organisms are related to one another and that how one organism adapts to its environment affects how all other species function in that ecosystem as a whole. In that sense, all species co-evolve with the environment and one another concurrently and in a sophisticated way. As a result, both the creatures' landscape and their placement within it vary, as does how well they fit in. The traditional biological illustration is a fitness landscape, whose peaks show an organism's higher level of fit [7]–[9]. As a result, particular trajectories emerge as a result of co-evolution with changing settings in addition to adaptation to a changing environment, which has been developed on by a range of managerial and governance theories. The evolution of one domain or entity is partially dependent on the evolution of other related domains or entities or that one domain or entity changes in the context of the otheris how co-evolution is defined. Individuals, groups, or organizations can all be referred to as entities because it is a broad term. The specification of the level at which a system operates and co-evolution in empirical analysis are thus closely intertwined.

Co-evolution in social systems is the result of a mix of agents' and agents' collectives' strategic efforts. According to complexity theory, strategies are adaptive actions that have an impact on both the action's initiator and all other people who are influenced by it, rather than being one-sided reactions to a changing environment or another agent. It's not necessary for co-evolution to take the form of a partnership that develops simultaneously. It can usually be seen in short- or

long-term temporal adaptations. Additionally, it is something that occurs on all levels and in all dimensions. As a result, complex systems can be viewed through the lens of co-evolution as numerous, interconnected interactions and linkages that have both direct and indirect effects on one another. A few years later, in 2005, the OECD published a review of modernization initiatives put forth in the majority of the organization's member states. The review, *Modernizing Government*, highlighted the widely shared goal of improving the responsiveness, transparency, and efficiency of the public sector, despite the fact that there were numerous different policy paths to achieve it<sup>13</sup>. As a result, modernization is context-dependent since governments have varied priorities and features depending on their history, culture, and level of development. Marketization and privatization policies have been the key central government management changes adopted since 1980 in the core new public management states such as the UK, the USA, Australia, and modern Zealand. All of the states in this group believe that the methods and practices used in the private sector will play a significant role in the process of restructuring the public sector. They are nations with an individualistic culture and a pro-business mindset, which is represented in the prevailing ideology of the public interest view. This is a distinctive characteristic of this group[10].

## CONCLUSION

Governments all over the world have largely imitated the classical approach to public administration, which was an amazing success in terms of both theory and practice. The traditional public administration came into being at a certain point in the industrial revolution, but attempts to distance administration from its foundations later led to a broad reexamination of governance. The classic public administration model is the best kind of model. Public and private interests are totally segregated in the ideal bureaucracy, and politics and administration are clearly divided. The fundamental tenet of the classical style to public administration is that there must be direct control at every level, with each civil worker answering only to their superior. The public sector reforms established several governing models based on market principles and the transfer of the private sector's management principles to the public sector, replacing a model based on Weberian ideals of hierarchy, neutrality, and career civil servants. The Anglo-American countries have embraced the pure new public management model of marketization and privatization, whereas continental Europe has, despite its many and significant differences, generally embraced a Weberian approach to modernizing government.

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## CHAPTER 2

### A REVIEW:EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

The module provides an activity and academic discipline description of the study of public administration. Comparatively speaking, the study of public administration is a relatively new discipline. It underwent a number of stages of evolution before arriving in its current form. The politics/administration dichotomy, the principles of administration, criticisms and challenges, identity crisis, and public administration as an independent discipline have all been broadly categorized into five stages. It has been made an effort to comprehend the current state of discipline. It is crucial to critically evaluate these stages and the problems that have arisen as a result of the ongoing evolution because doing so will aid in comprehending the discipline's potential future.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative, Evolution, Identity Crisis, Public Administration, Principles Dichotomy.

#### INTRODUCTION

Public administration generally refers to the services provided by a government organization to the general public. It is the outcome of an evolutionary process that may be seen from two different angles: as a practice and as a topic of research or intellectual pursuit. It is as old as social life as a pastime. The oldest cradles of civilisation, the river civilizations of Egypt, China, India, and Mesopotamia, may be identified as the origins of public administration as a distinct activity. Evidence in this approach includes China's adoption of a system of public service recruitment through competitive examinations and Egypt's development of a centralized bureaucratic administration structure.

Ancient Greece's city states, as well as the republics and kingdoms of India, also had highly sophisticated administrative structures. The anarchic decentralization of government, however, was the primary characteristic of medieval feudal society. The development of national monarchy in France, England, and Russia followed. Their militaristic and expansionist objectives caused establishments to grow in size, which in turn gave rise to ministries and departments. Along with expanding its scope, democracy's rise altered the administrative system's very makeup. The organization and methods of administration also became more complex as a result of the problems that arose after the industrial revolution [1], [2]. Following the upheavals brought on by World Wars I and II, issues with reconstruction and rehabilitation arose, and the administration was forced to find solutions. Additionally, the administration had to take corrective action due to the economic crisis, which included depression and inflation.



The sphere of administrative activity widened as a result of all these advances, which required meddling in every aspect of society. Mentioning that the administration was primarily national in nature prior to World War I would not be out of place here. However, after that conflict, it took on an international character, largely as a result of the development of efficient means of transportation and communication.

### **Growth of Public Administration Studies**

The practice of public administration is as old as civilization itself. However, as an area of study, it is relatively new, having begun in the final decades of the 19th century. The question of whether such a significant effort may continue for a long period without a strong theoretical foundation is pertinent in this context. The answer can be found by carefully examining the facts, which show that it did have a theoretical foundation as a component of related fields of knowledge like politics, ethics, and law in various societies and persisted in doing so for a sizable amount of time. For instance, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, two ancient Hindu epics, discuss both political and administrative concepts.

Samritis also provide an engaging explanation of court administration. Hindu political treatises, such as Kautilya's Arthashastra, focus more on operational issues than on the theoretical underpinnings of the State. One can observe a comparable occurrence not just in Indian communities, but also in other societies. Numerous administrative concepts can be found in the writings of Confucius, a prominent ancient Chinese philosopher. The originator of political science, Aristotle, a Greek academic, also covered some administrative topics in his well-known book *The Politics*. Nothing significant occurred in this area during the medieval ages, which is seen as a dark era in human history.

However, Machiavelli's *The Prince*, which is regarded as a dissertation on the art of governance and administration, first published during the Renaissance. Administrative issues are a major topic in many contemporary research publications on political science and in the memoirs of statesmen. In spite of this, Public Administration has not yet been formally recognized as a separate academic field. In the final years of the 18th century, when Hamilton presented a paper defining the definition and scope of the discipline, even the name Public Administration was first used. However, there isn't much literature on this topic, hence it can't be considered a separate discipline. This was mostly due to the lack of sufficient intricacy and specialization to warrant separate and independent consideration.

However, the industrial revolution has broadened the field of public administration by creating new opportunities, some of which are in extremely specialized fields. Administrative processes grew too complicated as a result to be handled by anything less than professional and competent civil services. This resulted in the emergence of professional civil employees, and the necessity to codify their knowledge and experience into administrative regulations and manuals sparked theoretical and academic debate about public administration as a distinct field of study.



## Public Administration's Evolution

The field of public administration was first taught as a distinct academic discipline in 1887, thanks to Woodrow Wilson. It becomes crucial to examine the discipline's evolution in order to comprehend where it stands today as a field of study. Many academics and researchers focused on this issue from various angles. Some of them have discussed it from the perspective of ideologies like Marxism, liberalism, and absolutism, whereas Golembiewski may have understood it in terms of locus and emphasis. According to him, the field's institutional where is its hub, and its specialized what is its focus? Based on this, he has identified the four stages of development for public administration as follows[3]–[5].

## DISCUSSION

### Phase I: The Dichotomy of Politics and Administration (1887–1926)

The early study of public administration, highlighted the importance of creating the scientific underpinnings of the field. By recognizing that it is getting harder to run a constitution than to frame one, he created the politics/administration dichotomy, the divide between political activity and administrative activity in public organizations. Wilson was well aware that public administration was inherently political, according to certain academics, including Richard J. Stillman II, who dispute this claim.

In reality, Wilson appears to have misread some of the German literature he studied on public administration when developing his politics/administration dichotomy, which left him feeling conflicted about the field. Wilson, in the words of Stillman, failed to amplify what the study of administration actually entails, what the proper relationship between the administrative and political realms should be. But this paradox has made it possible to study the development of public administration. The author expanded on Wilson's theory by arguing that the government had two different functions: politics and administration.

He asserted that administration has to do with carrying out these policies and that politics has to do with the expression of the state will through policies. He continued by saying that the foundation of his differentiation resides in the traditional separation of powers, which recommends that it is preferable to entrust 'in substantial amounts' the formulation or expression of the 'will of the sovereign' to 'a different organ' than is responsible for carrying out that will. Goodnow's fundamental distinction, nevertheless, is not as simple as many people believe. In this sense, Golembiewski correctly pointed out that neither in locus nor focus, Goodnow's differentiation is monolithic.

The two tasks are not carried out at various locations. Public administration began to gain prominence around the start of the 20th century, mostly as a result of intellectuals' intense interest in the public reform movement taking place at American colleges. As a result, the American Political Science Association created a Committee on Practical Training for Public Service in 1912, which made the recommendation that professional institutions be established to train public administrators. This group eventually evolved into the American Society for Public Administration, which was founded in 1939.

The first book wholly devoted to the field was released in 1926 and is known as Leonard D. White's *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*. Politics should not interfere with administration, according to the core message of White's textbook. Public administration is capable of becoming a value-free science in its own right, and the goal of administration is economy and efficiency. White emphasized the idea of a clear politics/administration dichotomy as a result. As a result, everything the Public Administration examined in the executive branch was considered factual and scientific, while the study of public policymaking and related topics was left to political scientists. The groundwork for the eventual discovery of some scientific administration concepts was largely built by the emphasis on science and fact in public administration[6]–[8].

### **Phase II: The Administrative Principles (1927–1937)**

During this time, academics held the view that public administration is a distinct activity with a distinct field and set of guiding principles. Author stated that there are certain fundamental principles of general application in administration that are analogous to those defining any science. If administrators learnt to use these concepts, they could be found and be experts in their field. The application of these concepts would also result in a rise in administrative efficiency. The fact that the principles of administration were just that principles meant that they could be successfully applied in any administrative context.

The general premise of this paper, according to these researchers, is that there are principles that may be deduced inductively from the study of human organization and that these principles should regulate arrangements for human partnerships of any form. They also introduced the POSDCORB concept, which is the culmination of these ideas. As a result, public administration reached its pinnacle; hence, this time period is recognized as a golden one in the development of the field.

This school of thinking is known as Administrative Management by organizational theorists because it placed a strong emphasis on the higher hierarchical levels of organizations. Business schools were actively developing a field of study known as scientific administration that was closely tied to the work which made the most significant contribution to the literature. However, because it concentrated on lower level employees in the business, Scientific Management had less of an impact on public administration during its principles phase. Speaking of locus and focus, Mohit Bhattacharya correctly noted that at this stage, the focus was almost entirely on efficiency and that the public aspect of public administration was virtually dropped.

Within the university community, it became clear that public administration during this time had no locus, if not a sharpened new focus. Despite this, academics who were interested in the study of public administration found it useful to found the American Society for Public Administration, which is now the nation's main organization for academics and professionals in the field as well as the sponsor of *Public Administration Review*, the field's leading journal. It represented the deliberate necessity for public administration to develop into a profession and discipline.

### **Phase III: Challenges and Criticism (1937–1951)**

The Functions of the Executive by Chester I. Barnard was published the very next year (1938), posing a challenge to conventional public administration. The two main challenges were the denial of the politics-administration split and the absence of scientific validity of public administration ideas. It was suggested that due to politics' inherent political nature, administration and politics cannot be separated. Administration also plays a significant part in the formation of political policy decisions in addition to being concerned with their implementation. Nicholas Henry claims that the rejection of the politics/administration divide was a significant philosophical movement that radically altered the field's essence for decades and, in a manner, reduced it as well. The inexistence of principles of administration posed a second problem for the area. It provided the most significant challenge to the principles idea. Simon demonstrated in this work that there is an antithesis to every administrative principle, making the concept of principles obsolete.

He argued for the behavioral approach to public administration in order to turn it into a more academic field of study. He concentrated on making decisions as an alternative to the principles-based approach. No science of public administration is possible unless the role of normative values is made clear, the nature of man in the field of public administration is better understood and his behavior is more predictable and there is a body of comparative studies from which it may be possible to discover principles and generalities that transcend national boundaries and odd historical experiences. The Administrative State, published in 1948, by Dwight Waldo, which attacked the notion of unchanging principles of administration, the inconsistencies of the methodology used to determine them, and the narrowness of the values of economy and efficiency that dominated the field's thinking, reflected the same theme. The final result of Simon's and comparable criticisms arising in the late 1940s was to disprove the idea that administrative principles, whether public or private, could be discovered in the same way that laws of nature and science could. As a result, the politics/administration dichotomy and the administration's guiding principles had been disregarded by the middle of the 20th century.

### **Phase IV: Identity Crisis (1948–1970)**

Due to the abandoning of the politics-administration divide and the ideals of public administration, the discipline was in a bind and was suffering from an identity crisis. As a result, public administration academics responded to this crisis by reinstating the connections between public administration, management, and political science. If we think of Public Administration in terms of Political Science, we can say that the majority of literature on the subject in the 1950s referred to it as a emphasis, an area of interest, or even as a synonym of Political Science. Author made the observation that A theory of public administration means in our time a theory of politics also. Political scientists, on the other hand, disapproved of them and supported them. Two changes happened during this time: the Case Study Method began to be used more frequently, and Comparative and Development Administration had a peak and decline. The development of the case study approach was Public Administration's answer to the behavioral revolution occurring in the social sciences at the time.

Regarding the development of comparative and development administration, it should be noted that prior to the rejection of the principles of administration, it was believed that cultural variables did not affect administrative settings in any way. However, in the future, academics like Robert Dahl and Dwight Waldo noted that cultural factors could make public administration on one part of the globe quite a different on the other part.

The study of Comparative Public Administration began in universities and colleges as a result of this updated understanding. The creation of Comparative Administrative Group, which got generous financing from the Ford Foundation, in 1960 provided the actual push, though. The Development Administration subfield of Comparative Public Administration was created as a result of the Foundation's focus on the Third World. F. W. Riggs' work was the most notable in this area. However, the focus of comparative public administration has always been on the development of theories and the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake.

The Comparative Administrative Group was abolished in 1973 as a result of the primarily academic focus of Comparative Public Administration. Some researchers of public administration started looking for an alternative because they were treated as second-class citizens in the field of political science. They discovered one in management, which is sometimes referred to as administrative science. They claimed that the main objective of public administration should be organization theory.

The choice of management as the model for public administration, with a focus on organization theory, was made as a result of a number of advances. On the premise that there is no difference between corporate and institutional administration and that administration is administration, the prestigious journal *Administrative Science Quarterly* was established in 1956.

### **Phase V: Public Administration as a Separate Field of Study (1970 and Later)**

But even at its lowest point, the field of public administration was planting the seeds for its own revival. A number of complementary elements had a role in this process. The creation of multidisciplinary programs with a focus on policy science was the first. In this regard, three distinct intertheoretical links can be found: the union of politics and administration; the convergence of economics and administration; and the blending of organization theory and administration. The second was the creation of New Public Administration (NPA), which placed more emphasis on values in place of the conventional goals of efficiency and effectiveness and was a result of the inaugural Minnowbrook Conference, which was sponsored by Dwight Waldo and held in 1968 [9], [10].

Additionally, it placed emphasis on change, social equality, and relevancy. The NPA movement's main goals were to make administration more client- and institution-focused, less neutral and more normative, less general and more public, descriptive and more prescriptive, and always scientific. The aforementioned two philosophical currents forced researchers of public administration to cut links with both management and political science in order to conceptualize in terms of academic autonomy.

These, in turn, gave the public administrators cause for pride as they began claiming that their line of work is beneficial to society. All of these changes contributed to the emergence of public administration as a distinct subject.

## CONCLUSION

In this recently developed discipline, normative concerns were also being reevaluated on the theoretical side as a result of the impact of NPA. The establishment of public administration in the public interest was made possible by the neo-liberal concept, which also gave it an ethical component. The theoretical foundation of public administration was improved by both the ecological approach and system theory, which emerged from natural sciences. Fred Riggs' Sala Model has established itself as a significant turning point in this area. Similar to this, Academics and practitioners of public policy are increasingly using the theoretical ideas of political economy to explain political outcomes, such as the success or failure of reform initiatives.

The New Public Management (NPM) thesis emphasized the adoption of organizational principles, style models, and values from the private sector to enhance the public sector's commitment to providing quality services. Instead of treating people as citizens, it treated them like clients or customers. People are seen as economic units rather as democratic participants, according to some detractors, which makes it improper.

Despite this, the concept is still frequently used at all governmental levels. Additionally, study suggested a new public service paradigm known as digital era governance in the late 1990s in response to the dominance of NPM. Reintegrating governmental obligations and investigating the transformative potential of contemporary IT and digital storage were the two main themes.

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## CHAPTER 3

### ROLE OF BUREAUCRACY IN POLICY: PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

Public policies, or the authoritative decisional output of a politico managerial system, are the government's programs, goals, and purposes when taken individually or collectively. These can take a number of different forms, such as laws, legal ordinances, judicial judgments, presidential orders, governmental regulations, and so on. In general, Herbert Simon's description of decision-making and the modus operandi of policy-making are complementary. Both include the thoughtful application of decision-making, judgment, and choosing. The presence of bureaucrats at the stages of policy development and evaluation has grown throughout time as a result of the increased workload associated with policy making and the specialized nature of policy formulation. There are many different models of policy making, including Group Theoretic which involves interaction between various societal groups, Elite Theoretic, Incremental, Institutional, Rational, and Game Theoretic. When creating policies, these models are used in conjunction with the knowledge and expertise of the policy makers. In all phases and components of the policy-making process, including formulation, implementation, evaluation, monitoring, and analysis, this Unit will emphasize the role of bureaucracy.

#### KEYWORDS:

Bureaucracy, Public Administration, Policy Making, Public Policies, Social Justice.

#### INTRODUCTION

Public policy creation and execution are two separate but closely related governmental activities. The legislature or political authorities, who are imbued with the authority to grant policy the necessary legal authority, i.e. legitimacy, set public policy. The executive branch of government, sometimes known as the bureaucracy or the administrative branch, is responsible for implementing policies. The standard Wilsonian politics-administration dichotomy is supported by this distinction. Until the New Public Administration movement, which was started at the Minnowbrook Conference in 1968, public administration, at least in theory, retained this distinction. It was claimed in the 1970s that the distinction between politics and administration was untrue since tight cooperation existed between the legislative and executive branches of government and that the policy-making process was multi-actor centric [1]–[3].

In actuality, these clearly defined functions have always been transgressed and transcended in administrative processes and institutions. The legislature establishes a general course of action, which is typically enacted into the Constitution and other legal documents. The administrative or executive branch of the government participates in policy formation as well in order to give a clear expression to the provisions underlying policies. And the administrative branch of the



government has played a more significant role in policymaking over time. As a result, the administrators now have a significant influence over both the creation and application of policies. The following phases often make up a policy cycle:

1. Setting an agenda or directing public authorities' attention to particular public problems;
2. The creation, initiation, and development of policy recommendations by policy planning organizations, executive, legislative, and interest groups.
3. The adoption and justification of policies through the political acts of the executive branch, special interests, and political parties.
4. Putting policies into practice through bureaucracies, public spending, and executive agency activity.

### **Evaluation and analysis of the effects of policy implementation**

In parliamentary democracies like India, the debate over the role of higher civil servants in policy-making and a persistent concern over their growing influence in this area are gaining traction despite the formal control of the civil service by the political executive Ministers at the Central and state levels as well as Members of Legislative Assembly. On the one hand, it has been stated that their duty is to formulate and carry out the wishes of those who establish policies. On the other hand, it is also acknowledged that they play an active role in shaping policy at both the primary and secondary levels, just like other pressure organizations, political parties, and the like. Typically, a public policy that is approved by the legislature and implemented in the form of law contains these elements. Due to the size and complexity of public operations, legislation is unable to offer all the information necessary to shape a public policy. As a result, appointed public officials are given two discretionary powers to enable them to carry out the law. In actuality, the implementation of public policy depends on the support of public officials. They collaborate with political office holders and could be viewed as allies working toward the same objective. They must consequently have mutual trust in order to function. Politics is a requirement for anyone working in government. Public servants and bureaucrats, particularly those in the higher echelons, have a variety of policy-related responsibilities. They are those who develop policies, innovate with policies, monitor policies, implement policies, advise on policies, do analyses of policies, and evaluate policies. Therefore, the involvement of bureaucracy in the entire policy process is vital [4], [5].

The process of creating policies is frequently non-linear. It happens gradually and is influenced by many different actors. Although it is founded on inputs from policy learning, it might not always result from it. As has been suggested, the legislature's skill is seen in how well it crafts policies on paper. However, in practice, bureaucracy plays a significant role in the formulation and shaping of policies since the process of creating policies involves identifying the issues and priorities that need to be addressed. Public policy, according to Thomas R. Dye, is anything that governments decide to do or not do. We argue that government action and inaction can both have a significant impact on society. Civil workers must adopt a new perspective on the norms that must govern how public affairs are conducted on a daily basis. The development of the policy, not merely its execution, is largely a responsibility of civil workers. Any government's fundamental goals include the provision of economic infrastructure, commodities, and services,



the settlement of disputes, the preservation of natural resources, the stabilization of the economy, the advancement of social justice, and the protection of human welfare. These are transformed into public policies, which are developed, carried out, and assessed by the legislative and executive branches. If a policy violates constitutional standards, the judiciary also has a significant role to play in reviewing it. The bureaucracy plays an analytical, provocative, and illuminating function in policymaking.

### **Middle-level bureaucrats' function**

It is frequently believed that only the top officials—the heads of state agencies and their direct reports, or the two top ranks—are genuinely active in providing advice on policy, developing policy, and evaluating policy. However, in reality, those who hold positions in ranks three and four from the top actively participate in both the creation and implementation of policies. The actual drafting of bills and proposed amendments to existing laws, the compilation of white papers, the informing of supervisors as to whether or not the implementation of existing policies complies with established requirements, and the suggestion of alternate course of action are typically the responsibilities of those in the middle ranks. In actuality, they actively contribute to the creation, monitoring, and counseling of policies. The middle level officials may have a greater or lesser impact on the formulation of public policy, particularly if they have direct access to the minister, depending on the leadership style of the minister, the political sensitivity of the issue at hand, and the level of acceptance of the department heads.

For instance, middle-level bureaucrats become more involved in formulating policy when the minister meets with them personally rather than through the head of the department or requires that they submit reports to him immediately. Normally, this position does not exist because all policy recommendations made by middle-level bureaucrats are carefully examined by top-level bureaucrats, who may accept them as-is or send them back for revisions, adjustments, clarification, or additional information that the minister may use when making a policy decision. It is entirely feasible that the top-level officials, who are supposed to have the ability to establish official policy because of the positions they hold, may end up doing little more than giving the policy suggestions created at the middle levels of the hierarchy legitimacy. Before submitting the proposals to the relevant minister, they would, if necessary, only make minor adjustments to the proposal that was presented to them and, on occasion, choose between the alternative courses of action that were suggested by their subordinates.

### **Top-level bureaucrats' function**

The highest levels of bureaucracy play a big part in how policies are made. The notion that the top-level bureaucrats just act as a type of clearing house between the minister and middle-level bureaucrats shouldn't be promoted. The truth is very different. While it is true that top-level bureaucrats have direct contact with the minister, their role is to challenge the proposals made to them by their subordinates, to add their own knowledge and insight to the proposals, and, most importantly, to ensure that the proposals ultimately made to the minister have taken into account the policy of the current administration [6]–[8]. The political expediency of the proposed policy and the viability of suggestions in terms of economic conditions must both be considered by the

highest levels of bureaucracy. Additionally, they must determine the available resources, the availability of labor, and the administrative viability, i.e., accurately assess the boundaries of what is feasible and acceptable. It's a common misconception that the minister should use discretion while the required competence belongs to a bureaucracy. If the aforementioned responsibilities of the top-level bureaucrats are taken into consideration, he is also expected to use discretion when handling proposals that are to be presented to the minister, though discretion is to be understood within the confines of the policy of the government of the day. Despite the fact that senior and middle level bureaucrats and ministers jointly develop policy, the neutral nature of bureaucrats is designed to limit their influence. They work for the government, not the ruling party. As a result, the political leadership, regardless of party, can rely on the civil officials. However, the bureaucrats or civil officials have their own opinions about what is important for the division and the nation, and realizing that they are unable to act freely, ask for strong ministerial leadership. Politicians with limited clout are unpopular with officials. The power of the bureaucracy is greatly diminished when a minister is firmly committed to a course of action, particularly one that is backed by party doctrine. It would be incorrect, according to Jon Pierre, to assume that bureaucrats and politicians always have a hostile relationship. Instead, officials and decision-makers usually create networks to further shared sectorial interests. Different theories have been developed to explain the interaction between politicians and bureaucracy. From the ideal mode of extremely different duties for politicians and bureaucrats to the model where the roles almost converge, there are various models. 'Pure Hybrid' is the name of this convergence model. Politicians and bureaucrats engage in different ways, and these interactions are influenced by contextual as well as systemic elements. It changes across many policy spheres, across time, and under political regimes with various ideological leanings.

## DISCUSSION

There are many causes for the bureaucracy's expanding influence in the creation of policy. In fact, the emphasis on the importance of bureaucracy's involvement in policy creation led to the development of the ideas of delegated legislation and administrative adjudication. Let's examine the role that bureaucrats play in the formulation of policy and how their status affects this process. There are a number of things that give bureaucrats an advantage when formulating policies, including:

### **Knowledge Base**

The highest levels of bureaucracy in India are required by the Constitution to provide advice on potential courses of action. For instance, the secretaries of the Indian government assist the ministers to make judgments that occur within the parameters of current legislation or policy if they cannot be handled by conventional procedures. Such choices define a policy's parameters and determine how it will be applied in novel and unique circumstances. Additionally, they are heavily involved in creating explanations of how current policies work for ministerial use. Therefore, higher level civil employees, especially the secretary to the Government of India and the state government, take a more active role in the formation of public policy than simply providing advice.

### **Skills and Information**

Higher government servants have a nearly complete monopoly on the knowledge that they have acquired through their formal education and first-hand involvement in the implementation of public programs. Their enormous expertise and knowledge allow them to speak from a position of strength when discussing the administrative and financial challenges of policy ideas, the effects that the impacted groups are expected to face, and a variety of fresh approaches to solving policy issues. They serve as the government's think tanks. The sheer act of gathering data for policy decisions, analyzing the underlying issue, and choosing between policy options has an impact on policy making. In contrast, modernized elites and government officials now have access to a wide range of new social control tools thanks to advancements in industrial and scientific technologies. As a result, as has been noted, bureaucrats and the military quite frequently take authority in the guise of tutelage played by lawmakers and party leaders.

### **Service Maintenance**

The position of the bureaucrats is further enhanced by their consistency within the administrative structure as opposed to the regular rotation of a minister. A minister works with a department on average for far shorter time than a bureaucrat does on average. Very frequently, a minister's tenure in office is not long enough to develop, execute, and evaluate a policy. Typically, bureaucrats are hired for careers in the public sector. They are then in a position to learn a great deal about a particular public domain. They are in a unique position because they have in-depth knowledge of the work done in their departments, of the outcomes and effects of current law, and also because they have the time to completely focus on the management of their departments. This is further supported by the fact that they are well aware of what is and is not achievable as well as the situations in which creativity and innovation could be beneficial. So instead of waiting for things to happen, they might start making changes and stimulating development more successfully than their political superiors or the ministers.

### **Advisory Knowledge**

A public policy must be realistic in order to be implementable, which calls for the public official to give the elected political office bearer accurate information and counsel him on the potential consequences of the particular policy alternatives. They play a crucial role in projecting the future and predicting the effects of policy just by the fact that they offer different policy recommendations to the political office holder. The effectiveness of a bureaucrat's role as a policy advisor depends on how well he understands the demands of society, the opposition parties' positions, and the government's current policies. In order to comprehend the bureaucratic response to policy aims, B. Guy Peter discusses Agency Ideology. According to the soft version of agency ideology, the current program is a good fit for the ideas that the bureaucracy prefers, primarily out of familiarity. Therefore, an organization's continuing program is its ideology. The effectiveness of ministers who hold positions of authority over bureaucratic systems has consistently been hampered by overt or covert resistance from bureaucrats and the emergence of departmental views on policy. According to the hard version, the bureaucracy must be interested in imposing a new set of policy priorities in addition to preserving the agency's current policies.

In addition, bureaucrats do alter their opinions about sound policy over time as a result of their experience, knowledge, attitude developments, and length of service with the organization. Therefore, the bureaucrat should not disregard party politics. The top civil servant shouldn't be apathetic to the goals a government sets out to achieve, as has been mentioned. He shouldn't hold back from pressuring his minister for his own views on general policy. He shouldn't provide possibilities in a chilly, objective manner.

He shouldn't only serve as a database of information[9], [10]. The bureaucrat must therefore offer factual guidance on which policy to adopt. In actuality, this means that the fact finding, analysis and recommendations side of policy making is dominated by bureaucrats. As a result, a minister with a highly competent group of bureaucrats serving as advisers will find that his personal influence on policy making will not be very great, and the ability gap may ultimately determine the balance of power. However, it is true that bureaucrats can only have an impact if the elected political office holders are open to heeding their counsel regarding the superiority of a particular course of action. Thus, they only have a slight influence on their role as policy advisers.

Nevertheless, they could customize their advice to the minister to reflect their views on policy or limit their guidance to topics on which the minister has no explicit stance. In addition to looking at and making adjustments to the process of producing policies, policy analysis also involves assessing the options and results of the policies. A thorough review of the current or prospective policies is necessary to determine a policy's quality and ultimately usefulness. The promotion of rationality in public policy making only advances when the public policy making bodies are given information about the causes, consequences, costs, and implementability of a policy, with emphasis on its usage in policy adaptation.

Unfortunately, no systematic analysis of public policy can offer all solutions to policy flaws due to constraints like the limited availability of information, prohibitive costs associated with gathering information, information overload, political considerations, and the constantly shifting demands and priorities of society. However, information on priorities and certainties is made available to policymakers through public policy analysis, which they can use as the foundation for making decisions. Descriptive, prescriptive, or comparative policy analysis are all possible. Goals, interventions, political viability, attitudes, perceptions, and other factors are some of its characteristics.

Analysts must have a good understanding of the purpose and meaning of any policy under consideration in order to conduct a thorough and methodical analysis of it. Bureaucrats need to understand why certain policy decisions have been taken, what gains and losses have been incurred, how much of a difference money makes, how policies are impacted, and how policies should be evaluated. Thus, the bureaucrats must carefully monitor and assess how various structures and procedures affect the implementation of policies. Again, as we saw in the case of policy monitoring, effective policy making is a prerequisite for systematic policy analysis.

## CONCLUSION

Legislative bodies, bureaucrats, and interest groups or other facets of civil society are three possible sources for the formulation and execution of public policy. Commissions of inquiry, staff units, and public institutions are additional policy-making entities accountable for distributing information about policy. However, the primary and secondary policy makers—ministers and bureaucrats—are the most significant participants. Together with public servants or bureaucrats, political office holders or ministers are accountable for decisions relating to the creation, execution, or adaption of policy. In reality, both high-level and medium-level public officials are actively involved in the policy-making process: the top level includes officials who function as a liaison between their subordinates and the ministers, while the middle level includes officials who are really in charge of crafting bills. They also participate in using their judgment to assess the proposals that are presented to them, which they then present to the ministers. The bureaucrats are involved in the policy process as policy innovators, as advisors to political office holders on the best course of action to take, as drafters of legislation, as policy implementers advising the policy-maker on the outcome of particular policies, as policy implementers comparing the results of policies with the intentions of the policy makers, as policy monitors comparing the results of policies with the intentions of the policy makers, as well as policy analysts and evaluators analyzing policies to gauge their effectiveness.

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## CHAPTER 4

### POLITICAL BONDING : EXPLORING THE LAW AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

In both practice and education, there is a growing gulf between lawyers and public administrators. In this Chapter, we investigate the difference between the public's perspective on organizational procedures and quantifiable results and that of administrative attorneys, who have tended to emphasize the judicial perspective and legal accountability for outcomes. The ability of public bureaucracies to expertly and efficiently transform public resources into services and infrastructure that correspond to publicly established priorities is a key aspect of management effectiveness. Effective public management is characterized by a focus on performance and open processes. Information serves as the currency for all connections between civil society and the government. It enables the general public to assess the efficiency of individuals in authority and their bureaucracies. Information on laws, practices, and outcomes must be readily available for the public to participate and hold those in authority accountable. We contend that because both public policy and law seek to influence human behavior, the failure of both sides to cooperate and communicate could be detrimental to citizens. Subjects like citizen involvement, openness in public decision-making, and the implementation of good governance standards could form the basis for future collaborations and exchanges between academics and public administrators.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative law, Judicial, Lawyers, New Law Management, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

It is possible to argue that political scientists in Continental Europe, the UK, or the USA as well as attorneys in the United States and other nations pioneered the field of public administration during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. It is also widely known that Max Weber, the father of public administration, was both a sociologist and a lawyer. Sociology and organization theory did not change the emphasis on the study of public administration until the second half of the 20th century, particularly after Herbert Simon, with an ever-increasing tendency toward public management rather than public administration. One effect of this development was the emergence of disciplinary conflicts over the application of these two concepts and the primacy of law or public administration/management in the operation of the administration, particularly in American universities. Comparing important agency internal practices and administrative law doctrines reveals the disconnect between administrative law and public administration scholars, as does the need for political accountability in public administration and the pursuit of legal certainty through the general administrative law act as a fundamental legal principle [1]–[3].



Additionally, the judge's point of view has dominated administrative law in law schools across continental Europe. It is far less about how the administration must deal with swift social change, how to develop and implement laws in societally challenging situations, and how to balance competing interests while making judgments. Today, the legal system is viewed as a construction to guarantee legal certainty and the enforcement of both the law and of rights. The terms effectiveness and efficiency have different meanings in legal contexts than they do in contexts where policies are being made. In a legal context, they refer to the regulations, authorities, and powers that are in place to carry out and be perceived to carry out the law's application and enforcement. Even though attorneys acknowledge that the goal of the law is to direct human behavior, they believe that the law operates autonomously.

Policymakers consider instruments to convince or force people to behave in a certain way (nudge is a current concept); how people ultimately behave is more significant from an efficacy and efficiency perspective. According to an instrumental perspective, the relationship between the effort and the result is significant there. Effectiveness is the main concern, not only the letter of the law. Public sector managers prioritize cost savings, externalities, political viability, performance, and increased flexibility in the application of regulations. According to that viewpoint, administrative law imposes restrictions on the ability of the administration to make decisions, which eventually results in slower solutions to social issues. This has caused miscommunication between lawyers and managers, and it has been questioned whether administrative law can incorporate targeted efficiency and effectiveness.

Administrative acts always include a legal component, but contemporary lawyers see these actions from the perspective of the court's decision and their chances of winning or losing a case. These divergent points of view, where attorneys concentrate on legality and the risks of legal accountability while policymakers and managers in public administration concentrate on finding answers to societal problems and political accountability, are the root of the mutual misunderstanding. It seems as though legal analysis in the public sector has been dominated by the opinions of judges and advocates. Their primary concern is determining whether a lawsuit can be won in court, not society's demands. Understanding that most legal standards are also behavioral norms makes the oddity of the absence of interaction between public administrators and attorneys in academics and of the marginalization of lawyers in public administration obvious. They are designed to regulate human behavior, and if it deviates from the law, the government or the populace may apply or invoke sanctions as a form of retribution or as a way to hold offenders accountable for their actions.

Another important issue in public management is controlling human behavior. There, the emphasis is considerably less on law and much more on tools to influence people's behavior in a politically desired, predetermined direction, as well as on developing and maintaining the organizational structure necessary to make the tools effective. Consider slowing down traffic by installing silent policeman ramps in the street; installing dog toilets to teach dog owners not to poop on the sidewalk; combating illegal cannabis plants with specialized police surveillance; preventing terrorism by deploying neighborhood watch volunteers and community policing; and the list goes on and on.

Beyond that, since many administrative decisions are the outcome of social and political negotiation processes, public bodies' tasks are typically to direct the various desires and plans of businesses, citizens, and NGO's in a direction that maintains peace between them and reduces risks to acceptable levels. Even if the administration took no legal wrongdoing, aside from failing to compensate inescapable firms or individuals with damages, administrative activities in a legal state nevertheless carry legal responsibilities[4], [5].

Society's relationships are becoming complicated. As a balancer of interests and a responsible actor, the administration is forced to make decisions that occasionally put the needs of people and businesses at risk. Legal action against the government may occur when not all interests have been taken into account in the political sphere. Consider the effects of a dike giving way to flood pressure on the homes behind it, or the legal claim brought by the families of those killed in the Zaventem bombing against the Belgian government for failing to stop the attack. Judges and courts continue to charge administrative entities, people, and organizations with legal obligations and accountability. Legal accountabilities appear to have evolved into an alien phenomenon with external origins or, at best, a component of risk management from the perspectives of policy development, managerial, and organization development. However, the strength of this trend varies throughout the European nations. Some nations (such as those in Central and Eastern Europe) have rigorous rule-based administrations in place to defend the rule of law, a sphere of civil society that has only lately been recaptured by the state. The inflexibility, procedures, and rights of the law, according to policymakers and managers, prevent the growth of an efficient public administration. In other nations, policymakers have looked for ways to make decision-making processes more flexible and avoid drawn-out processes, such as by introducing legislation to address the negative effects of NIMBY (Not In My Backyard) legal actions against planning and licensing decisions for infrastructure projects (primarily in Western European democracies).

Public responsibilities have become more externalized and contractualized as a result of managerialism in the public sector, yet this reduces the administration's ability to be held legally accountable due to the prevalence of private law. If a state completely outsources everything, the state becomes a hollow shell, with accountability dissolved into murky and ambiguous divisions of responsibilities, leaving the court with no other function but to determine if the results are legal. We concur that judicial proceedings involving the results of political and administrative processes might occasionally be problematic from the standpoint of public administration. However, it may assist keep the administration fresh and, from a legal standpoint, it makes it easier to determine if the administration carried out its tasks in a legal manner or not.

The patterns of working behaviors of lawyers and public administrators are also affected by movements in the overall structure of regulations: precise imperative standards are increasingly replacing the conventional dispositive civil law logic that establishes a framework for proper behaviors. In other words, major state functions, such as market regulation, oversight of healthcare, transportation, education, mining, and so forth, have been organized away from daily politics in semi-autonomous governmental bodies, with the authority to supervise and enforce the law. And that exactly captures the views of the legal and judicial systems.



Risk evaluations of these supervisors support the instrumental approach to public administration, which lessens the balancing and deliberating acts that make up a significant portion of the administration's work. In retrospect, it appears that law as the art of what is equitable and good has given way to a type of mechanical legal engineering that is mostly backed by a large group of administrative lawyers who specialize in monitoring and law enforcement.

Administrative and constitutional lawyers must demonstrate more than just a command of the case law from the judicial and advocates' perspectives in situations where even administrative courts/tribunals are on the verge of becoming superfluous outside enforcement cases and social benefit cases. The implementation of a policy may be hampered by an administrative challenge or legal process, but stopping specific government action is ineffective. Individual, particular interests have no longer any use in public management. For policymakers, equality before the law has lost all significance. As a legal entity with recourse rights, citizenship has diminished in the political sphere. It appears to have moved partly to social media, whose political relevance is in some way rising, and partly to other regional and practical venues.

Additionally, this implies that constitutional checks and balances operate differently from those envisioned in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The concept of freedom as being independent from the state as a whole is eroding in the face of measures taken to combat current security threats; citizens are not only at risk because state institutions are ineffective in upholding citizens' rights, but also because they fail to effectively demand that they fulfill their obligations, such as in providing social benefits. Businesses attack our privacy and attempt to influence our purchasing decisions. From the standpoint of the rule of law, the balancing acts between various perspectives, duties, and governmental activities we have gotten accustomed to have changed or are no longer as effective.

## DISCUSSION

Given that legislative bodies frequently develop laws in large quantities, the amount of regulation raises new issues. Is this the ideal situation? Do large-scale modifications further the goals of regulation? Does the vast amount of law demand novel approaches? Is a New Law Management necessary? In short, there seems to be a conflict in public administration at least between political and administrative rationalities between various languages, views, and goals. What should this new public administration's main goals be? Should we strive for the de-politicization of administrative law, the de-legalization of public administration, or both? Deregulation as a necessary condition for successful public administration has generated a lot of controversy. How does deregulatory pressure impact public management? Do Pennsylvania policies that are created and put into effect always have a legal foundation and purpose? Is the legal system the real cause of the administrative backlog? Or does the overburden result from the growing demands for accountability and all the monitoring and controls required to make it work? The financial crises demonstrate that markets may not always be the best option for solving issues. Some claim that major market participants, such as banks, the pharmaceutical and food industries, cannot be relied upon to behave in the public interest.

What impact does this have on the relationship between private law and public law? Under civil law, there are administrative accountability requirements. They may include substantial sums of money for damage compensation and are focused on the outcomes of the administrative process. In order to improve public administration, a focus on output accountabilities may only be useful if the organization can enhance its operations in order to prevent more harm. So is not at all obvious that they can do so, especially considering that lawyers were excluded from the administrative procedure. Therefore, there is little evidence that external accountabilities under civil law that are output oriented will enhance public administration. Technical legal difficulties also arise in this situation, such as the normative relationship between administrative and civil law and the effects of task outsourcing on internal controls. D. C. Dragos and P.M. Langbroek administration differ from how they relate to private law and administrative law? Are the Bertelsmann Initiative, the EIPA, the EU Better Regulation Initiative, and other efforts actually helpful? Is adding more bureaucracy to the legislative process the best course of action? Finally, how do we gauge our progress? Are the methods being used correct? Is regulatory effect analysis really the last word in improved legislation?

In the effort to create a better regulatory state, market-based regulation and adaptive management are the two approaches that are most frequently discussed. The first supports minimalism, whereas the second supports experimentalism. Although they start from the same foundation, market-based regulation and adaptive management take very distinct paths. With the dynamic organizing force of markets and financial incentives, market-based regulation seeks to replace traditional administrative discretion. The government's only responsibility is to create an environment that allows the market to function freely and to steer market involvement in the appropriate direction[6]–[8]. A multi-step, iterative process for adapting management measures to changing conditions or new knowledge regarding the efficacy of earlier measures or the system being managed is the basis of the structured decision-making method known as adaptive management. It has been implemented as best practice in social welfare initiatives, financial system regulation, drug and medical device warnings, and the management of natural resources. The conflict with administrative law is caused by a number of aspects of administrative law, including judicial review, finality, and public engagement, which are thought to impede truly adaptive administration. However, there are ways to execute the essential principles of administrative law in a way that far more effectively supports adaptive management.

These methods include a dedicated adaptive management track of administrative procedures. The authors of these suggestions go even farther, offering model legislation in draft form that would establish a specific track for each type of agency involved in decision-making. Adaptive management improves administrative controls and makes it possible for citizens to participate in decision-making, whereas deregulation reduces administrative controls. Although the latter does not inevitably result in less regulation, the regulations that do are better since they are based on relevant experience. There is, of course, also a direct connection with good governance depending on how the adaptive management interacts with the people and enterprises that have an interest in the outcomes. It is noteworthy to observe potential conflicts between various methods of fostering transparency used by public managers and legislators, as well as their efficacy, in the context of the public management/public law debate.

The topic is too broad to even be adequately addressed here, thus we just provide one illustration that we believe this conversation. All governments safeguard their agencies' decision-making processes by excluding non-final information and documents from the reach of the law governing access to information. A release of this information should be a component of the right to information because, from the standpoint of pure public law, it would inform the public of the government's dealings well before any harm is done (in the case of acts that affect the rights and interests of parties). However, from the perspective of public management, it is crucial that decision-makers feel confident enough to voice their opinions throughout this process. As a result, the regulations allow for such decision-making process protection, at least until a final decision is taken. The exception to internal decision-making processes, which is common in most jurisdictions can actually be broken down into three distinct parts:

1. Advice provided to decision-making entities or officials.
2. Public authority deliberations.
3. Internal rules and regulations of public authorities regarding their personal functioning.

According to McDonald and Jones, the exclusion reflects a long-standing constitutional practice that advice to government should not be disclosed. The reasoning for this is that making this information public would undermine the collective duty of ministers or other public officials and would prevent them from freely giving their honest opinions or engaging in free deliberations. Three reasons are given for it: first, to promote frank policy discussions between superiors and subordinates; second, to prevent premature disclosure of proposed policies before they are actually adopted; and third to avoid public confusion that might arise from the disclosure of justifications and rationales that were not really the basis for an agency's action. Those debates are dominated by internal administrative interests.

This traditional understanding of transparency departs from a representative democracy that is non-participatory. We do not believe this version will last very long given the significantly greater visibility of administrative planning and decision-making, not to mention numerous internet breaches. It seems unavoidable to open up political and administrative decision-making processes to citizen engagement in various forms and settings. A change in the balance between the obligation to offer individuals a voice in their governance and the inevitable concealment in the public interest is brought about by the electronic media. Sharing information and creating new opportunities for direct citizen participation in administrative decision-making could restructure public administration into a company that respects citizens more than it did during the instrumentalist era by making it more rule of law and process oriented.

Their job is to balance the interests of other people and businesses with the efforts of the citizens while also enabling the citizens' initiatives. Setting boundaries, demanding conditions, lowering risks of harm and damage, maintaining the law, and regulating a wide range of society activities are all part of this function. Comparing judicial review of administrative activities to a civil law court case is very different. Reviewing administrative action resembles secondary appeal in a civil case because the administration serves as a middleman. The administration should gather information, weigh competing interests, make judgments, communicate those decisions, and enforce them since courts can, upon request, evaluate the constitutionality of such activities in

situations involving the administration. How far should judicial control extend? A typical argument is whether the courts should place greater emphasis on substance than on due process, or if they should stick closely to the regulations' words. In any case, the courts ought to have oversight over the administration's discretionary powers within the bounds of the law[9], [10]. Law and public management have distinct perspectives on how conflicts are resolved between citizens and the government.

The typical approach to administrative law is to give administrative courts institutional authority to determine whether or not an administrative competency has been used within the bounds of the law. Administrative courts must render decisions that effectively replace administrative decisions in accordance with the separation of powers doctrine. Therefore, if a decision is quashed, the case is sent back to the administrative body that made the initial decision, unless it involves damages or the issue is crystal obvious. The administrative body must then make a new decision while taking the court's ruling into consideration. This has the benefit of allowing administration to continue, but the drawback is that appellants run the risk of losing their cases after winning them in court, especially in cases involving third party interests contrary to financial judgments. As a result, rather than serving as a forum for conflict resolution, administrative courts serve as much more of a means of legal control. And if the law is extremely complex and where larger organizations can typically hire lawyers who are aware of these hazards, the average person typically cannot afford such lawyers.

## CONCLUSION

Information sharing between the courts and public administration, as well as collaboration between ombudsmen and public administration groups, can help influence the relationship between public law and public administration. Administrative lawyers must understand that administrative law facilitates administrative actions in addition to enforcing the law and exercising judicial control. The methodological gap between law and public administration in academia presents a challenge in this context. Typically weak methodologists, lawyers may communicate with experts from all fields. Academics who specialize in public administration increasingly do qualitative and quantitative empirical research and, like those who specialize in other social sciences, assert that their field of study is more important than law. In academia more than in practice, it will likely be difficult to resolve misunderstandings. In order to bridge the gap between lawyers and public administration specialists, practice is more likely than academia to be the source. If the gap is to be closed, information between public officials, street-level employees, and politicians needs to be continuously exchanged. By defining the role of people with these communicative duties and preventing them from working in the judiciary, the separation of powers can be preserved. One might anticipate that both public administration managers and lawyers will be willing to deal with ambiguous standards that lead to compromised policies. The focus should be on designing engagement procedures that support the results rather than placing legal clarity and risk reduction as a top priority. Again, before, during, and after the formalization of the current administrative process, the significance of good governance standards of impartiality, openness, and accessibility of the decision-making process for citizens must be taken into consideration.

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## CHAPTER 5

### ECONOMICS AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: NATURE OF MARKET AND SOCIETY

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#### ABSTRACT:

This article discusses economics and public administration as twin disciplines that should be studied in tandem for well-rounded understanding and uses a case study methodology based on the evolution of the curricula of technical universities. With the aim of determining the degree to which it recognizes economics in the creation of the graduates to enable them to unravel the development enigma of the country, curriculum development in public administration is critically studied. The article argues that the current public administration curriculum development undervalues economics. It is strongly advised that economics be included as an anchor subject in the curriculum for public administration in order to give graduates the well-rounded knowledge they need to contribute significantly to the nation's development goal.

#### KEYWORDS:

Economics, Economic Strategy, Public Administration, Social Administration, Social Policy.

#### INTRODUCTION

Alan Williams has drawn a crucial difference between a field of study and a way of thinking. An area of study implies a collection of phenomena that need to be examined, topics that need to be researched, difficulties that need to be understood and solved, and problems that are 'out there' that need to be addressed. The concept of a style of thinking refers to the conceptual framework, or theory, that will be applied to phenomena, problems, policies, issues, etc. He uses the phrases topic and discipline as shorthand for these two, and this paper does the same. We shall evaluate each of the nouns in the title in light of these two fundamental ideas.

#### Both as a subject and a discipline, Economics

First and foremost, economics is a topic in the sense that the economy is a collection of phenomena that amounts to a very well defined field of study. Unemployment, inflation, the need for borrowing by the public sector, consumer and business behavior, market efficiency, and other factors all fall under this category, which is distinguished by a cash nexus as its primary characteristic. This nexus can exist in markets but is not limited to them, it can involve price phenomena but need not, and it can also involve profits but need not. On at least one side of a trading relationship, money or commodities and services with a monetary value seem to always be present. When considered as a financial subject, economics' distinguishing qualities are mainly conventional in nature. They don't make sense.



They are also malleable. However, it is believed that the characteristics previously mentioned are consistent with what individuals typically see when discussing the subject, or field of study, known as the economy. As a result, we are effectively associating economics as a subject with the economy[1]–[3]. However, it goes without saying that the discipline of economics is also distinguished by how economists investigate a subject, not by the subject itself. Economics is a way to analyze how scarce resources are allocated in the academic sense. Naturally, it has positive and normative variations.

A discipline is distinguished by its theory or theories. Although there are similarities between economics and other disciplines, the most of us will agree that the analytical distinctions between the disciplines are sufficiently distinct for us to not be in much doubt. For instance, despite the fact that economists and political philosophers both frequently utilize utilitarian theory when they are being openly normative, we do not actually have a lot of trouble differentiating the two fields. Similar to economists and sociologists One Economist's View on Social Medicine by Alan Williams, in *Epidemiology and Community Health*, Marxian theory although again, there is not much separating the two fields.

Similarly, sociologists and tough economists occasionally apply Marxian theory, but there again, we don't have a lot of evidence to support them. Although historically the development of utilitarianism in political philosophy and economics, as well as the development of Marxian analysis in sociologists and economists, has undoubtedly been influenced by the topics they have chosen to focus on, this is not the only reason for their divergent approaches in either case. But regardless of the topical division, it is typically possible for us to distinguish clearly between the ways in which the many disciplines make use of their shared intellectual traditions.

Even when they are discussing the same subject, we are not likely to confuse a Marxist economist with a Marxist sociologist or a utilitarian economist with a utilitarian political philosopher. Nevertheless, some political philosophers have developed into decent economists (and vice versa), and in such instances the two professions occasionally lose their distinct identities. Given that themes are based on convention and disciplines are based on theory, we can move on to an obvious corollary. Of course, the point is that neither the discipline economics nor the topic economics are the only topics to which the discipline can be applied in relation to either.

It's possible that most economists approach the subject of economics using their field of study. Given that the discipline evolved through being primarily applied to that subject, this is hardly surprising. However, this does not imply that neither the discipline of economics as a whole nor the topic of economics as a field cannot be usefully applied to other subjects. The same is true for other social sciences as it is for economics.

### **Topic of social policy**

Later, the concept of fruitfulness is brought up in relation to the use of economics in social policy. Let's now discuss the second noun in the title, social policy. Given the aforementioned, social policy may be considered a subject. The definition of social policy is traditional, similar to the definition of economics.

Most topic-specific norms don't have to be mutually exclusive in fact, they almost never are. For instance, the topics of economic policy and social policy both contain features that they do not share with the other. The treatment of young offenders is a subject in social policy but not economic policy, while the corporate income tax is a topic in both. The financing of health services and inflation, however, are two examples of issues that are common to both social and economic policy.

The conventionality of subject boundaries is shown by the amount of misguided effort that has been put into attempting to conceptually isolate them in a strict and mutually exclusive manner. To attempt feels like a waste of intelligence because the definitions are so commonplace. Additionally, they are prone to expansion and contraction as well as mutation. They may also alter as new institutions are developed by societies. A good example of such a misguided effort is Cahman and Schmitt which, not surprisingly, completely fails in its objective of providing a definition of the concept of social policy. It contains a tangled muddle of topic and discipline, along with a well-meaning naivete about the role of value judgements in analysis. This is an extreme example, no doubt. However, less convoluted efforts at a definition fail for a similar reason that is, failing to distinguish between a topic's conventionality and the disciplines that may be applied to it.

Titmuss's attempt to separate social policy from other types of policy using models of social welfare falls short. For instance, the Residual Welfare models need not only be a model for social policy; they may also be seen to underlie some economists' approach to, say, anti-trust policy. In such a model, social or governmental institutions are only to be used when private markets are thought to have sufficiently broken down. Furthermore, his selection of potential models is not exhaustive. For instance, the social choice model of social policy bases the decision on which social institution will be responsible for allocating and redistributing resources, rights, and entitlements on how well other mechanisms, institutions, and procedures will fulfill the requirements set forth by a predetermined social welfare function. The Gift Relationship, Titmuss' final significant work, was an obvious failure in its attempt to separate the economic from the social in public policies. This does not lessen the significance of this foundational work in any way, but rather highlights the fact that it raises some fundamental difficulties that cut across themes and disciplines rather than seeking for those that fundamentally distinguish our topics and fields. One notion that permeates all or almost all of the social sciences is the assumption of caring.

Social administration, social policy, and economics The phenomenon of caring may be excluded from, say, economics as a topic on entirely conventional grounds, but this is conventional and a convention that has never been entirely agreed upon by all economists and is increasingly being broken. Although Titmuss was generally correct in his assertion. Furthermore, assuming that the concept of caring permeates every aspect of social policy is too radical. Although I assume I am in the minority among economists, I happen to believe that it is impossible to adequately explain the National Health Service or make pertinent policy recommendations about it without accepting the reality of altruism.



However, even if it did not and the National Health Service were only perceived as the most effective means to provide health services to self-centered persons, this would not exempt it from the purview of social policy. On the other hand, there are other policy areas that aren't typically thought of as social policy but where caring may be important: current, private and public investment affects the welfare of yet-to-be born generations about whom we may care; environmental policy has an impact on many people about whom we may care; international relations, trade, and aid have an impact on others about whom we may care; even defense and military policies can be seen to contain elements of caring. The idea of considering others' wellbeing is important if not the most important idea not because it helps us distinguish social topics from other topics or one discipline from another, but rather because it is one of those central concepts that is shared by many disciplines and applicable to many topics, including social policy. Thus, it is an integrating rather than a differentiating term, which is why social science values it for this reason. Lafitte manages to avoid the majority of these issues, but only at the expense of an essentially meaningless tautology: In the main, social policy is an attempt to steer the life of society along channels it would not follow if left to itself. In the preface to the second edition of his renowned book, T. H. Marshall came much closer to the truth when he stated that it is taken to refer to the policy of governments with regard to action having a direct impact on the welfare of the citizens [4], [5].

## DISCUSSION

Although this unduly limits the subject of social policy to those that the government has actually accepted, it also excludes those that may have been adopted but have not, as well as those created by non-governmental organizations like the voluntary social services. Furthermore, his definition suffers from the inclusion of the philosophical concept of welfare in an otherwise descriptive and practical definition, as if other types of policy might not have an impact on welfare. Donnison is an excellent example of a totally pragmatic alternative approach to the formulation of social policy that is perfectly consistent with what is presented here. What Donnison comes up with in the end is a list: a list of subjects that, when combined, make up what he refers to as a social policy research and teaching agenda.

The items on the list are those aspects of UK modern society that he believes should be researched and taught to the public. It is impromptu, modern, and perhaps culture-specific. It is, in a word, conventional. Most people will concur that the subjects he lists together make up what we typically think of as the overall subject of social policy. Describe them. The evolving nature of labor contracts. The wealth and income distribution. Concerning all of these are administrative, legal, economic, and political concerns these terms are used in topical rather than disciplinary contexts. As society tried or tried unsuccessfully to adapt to these varied patterns of change, interactions between them and the social institutions evolved.

### **Social administration as a subject and a group of specialties**

Similar to economics, social administration should be categorized by topic and discipline. The subject is, of course, social policy as it is currently defined as the aforementioned set of issues. Social administration is undoubtedly cross-disciplinary in terms of discipline.

It heavily relies on disciplines rather than issues, including sociology, history, geography, psychology, economics, statistics, ethics, and political philosophy. Depending on the component of social policy being examined, it may also make use of accountancy organization theory, and epidemiology. While the multidisciplinary nature of social administration is a requirement for teaching departments in universities, this does not imply that individual social administrators must also be multidisciplinary practitioners. Each individual must be able to collaborate with experts from several disciplines and must have a keen awareness of and interest in the complementing elements of disciplines other than their own.

There might even be a few individuals who possess the breadth and depth of thought necessary to develop into effective polymaths, or at the very least bimaths. But this is not necessary, and attempting to learn many disciplinary skills may even be undesirable if doing so results in the ordinary individual gaining little to no mastery in any one of the abilities. Therefore, it is not surprising nor necessarily regrettable that the majority of social administrators as individuals have a primary field of expertise. The discipline that fills this primary role the most frequently among those mentioned is sociology. At the same time, social administration has given rise to true multi-disciplinarians: scholars who have a firm grasp of a number of academic fields to be able to use them but who are also aware of their own technical limitations to know when to work in conjunction with sociologists, econometricians, or other experts as the situation demands. It should be obvious that there should be space for both individuals with extensive and those with intensive talents as they pertain to the fields of social administration[6]–[8].

### **Economic strategy**

But there are undoubtedly elements in economics as a discipline that may have led to its Cinderella position in social administration departments. It is sometimes claimed that the type of mind that is typically drawn to social administration is alien to the tightness of economic reasoning, especially when expressed mathematically. Therefore, it's possible that social administration had the same pre-positivist syndrome as occurred in economics. If true, it is asserted, not only does it deny social administrators a source of philosophical pleasure highly valued by economists and others using a rigorous deductive method, but it also suggests that the intellectual virtues of logical rigor are not valued in the disciplines of social administration. This results from showing that conclusions can be drawn from premises that appear to have no bearing on them at all. For instance, it can be shown that an apparently patterned and consciously designed social system of exchange is the logical result of an unpatterned and unconscious series of individual acts, or that the fact that more good quality wine is consumed in England than France is strictly an implausible statement. Nobody should be able to deny the beauty and great intellectual satisfaction that can be obtained from such studies.

Although it is easy to comprehend, there is actually no proof that social administrators place a low value on intellectual rigor of this kind. Some people are impatient with these slower, more introspective, and more removed from policy parts of intellectual activity, such as those driven by the professional components of social work, for example. It should be underlined that positivism is unlikely to be able to reconcile any of the tensions that may now exist within social administration. Some of the typical assumptions made in the field of economics about how people

behave may have been more discouraging to social managers than its rigor. There is a perception that economic analysis, and by extension, the science of economics, is based on a particularly vile reductionist image of the 'economic' man, namely, that he is egotistical, cunning, and utterly predictable in a machine-like manner. Recent attempts have been made to convince individuals that this is not the reality. In fact, if such were the case, this author would have had to stop thinking of himself as an economist.

Social administration, social policy, and economics Since uncertainty is a difficult topic best left until the third year of undergraduate studies by which time students have forgotten that they used to worry about the monsters they were assuming in their models, of economists themselves, particularly those who write elementary textbooks, frequently assume selfishness, calculation, and predictability. A further characteristic of economics may have contributed to its Cinderella status in social administration. In his fascinating examination of the welfare state, Pinker observes that socialist than neoclassical economic theory has had a stronger influence on what he terms the collectivist bias of social administration. The conclusion seems to be accurate. The idea that non-Marxian economics, particularly microeconomics, is intrinsically hostile to socialist political thought or is naturally inclined toward laissez-faire liberalism, however, is the root of the situation. Apart from the injustice done to those wielders of neoclassical microeconomic weapons who consider themselves socialists, social administrators do themselves a great disservice by downplaying the value of a well-developed set of analytical tools, if such a belief is widespread.

Furthermore, while there is a well-known methodological disagreement between macro-neoclassicists and Marxian economists, this is considerably less evident at the micro level. Of course, there are some collectivist viewpoints that would fundamentally limit the use of microeconomics, particularly welfare economics. For instance, the idea that social welfare is wholly unrelated to the welfare of the people who comprise society. However, few, if any, believe that such a viewpoint is fundamental to social administration, and it is unquestionably not a part of either its Fabian or Christian-socialist traditions[9], [10]. The erroneous belief may be found to have its roots in a previous conflating of the subject with the field of economics. It is generally true that market analysis has been the primary focus of economics discourse in western civilization. But it's also true that just as many economists who adopted the neoclassical worldview have been quite skeptical of market institutions as have been very supportive of them. This is possible because economics does not have an inherent bias toward socialism or liberalism other than what naturally results from treating each individual as the fundamental unit of concern; however, this only excludes certain forms of socialism.

## CONCLUSION

In my attempt to make the case that social administration is both a topic and a set of disciplines, economics as a discipline has a significant part to play in the investigation of the topic, and economics as a discipline merits greater prominence among the disciplines making up the set used in social administration. In conclusion, I have attempted to demonstrate that there are significant issues in social administration that economics as a discipline is uniquely suited to address, that there are additional issues in which economics has a significant complementary role

to play, and that economics has a significant role to play at the purely intellectual level at which the disciplines of social administration interact. There is enough of work available for everyone to complete in the interim. The subjects and concepts that social administration is most likely to concentrate on are those where the various disciplines are most usually complementary. This is due to two factors. One is that those subjects are of utmost practical and philosophical relevance. The second, however, is that academic departments of social administration are one of the few instances of institutionalized commitment to trans disciplinary research and teaching. One might be very hopeful about the future of social administration as long as it can hang onto existing advantages and avoid developing any new ones. In this future of social administration, the field of economics has a contribution whose potential for success has been demonstrated.

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## CHAPTER 6

### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICAL SCIENCE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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#### ABSTRACT:

The historical circumstances surrounding the emergence of Public Administration (PA) and Political Science (PS), their respective disciplinary self-understandings, their intellectual exchange, and the question of whether PS and PA are at the same level of disciplinary when viewed from a philosophy of science perspective are all examined. The Chapter comes to the conclusion that PA and PS have a close, competitive, and labor-based relationship, even though their actual interactions are very dependent on particular subjects and scholarly fads. The objectives of PA and PS also differ significantly; while the former is an interdisciplinary project with an emphasis on applied research, the latter seeks to expand our theoretical understanding in terms of basic research. In light of these warnings, the Chapter will focus on four different facets of the connection between PA and PS in this article. The historical paths by which disciplines in general and PA in particular evolved first, as well as the connections between the rise of PA and the development of PS, are discussed. Second, there are the corresponding disciplinary self-understandings of PA and PS, or the views held by specific academics within each area regarding their unique discipline and how it relates to the other. The Chapter comes to the conclusion that there are disparities in goals between PA and PS, which are dependent on particular issues and popular trends. The primary goal of PA, a multidisciplinary undertaking, is to research government in order to generate insights to enhance government practice. PS, in contrast, examines government in a much larger sense, and its main goal is to create theoretical justifications and knowledge that can be applied generally.

#### KEYWORDS:

Dichotomy, Intellectual, Dialogue, Public Administration, Political Science, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

The discovery of new problems and the technologies to address them, the entrepreneurial spirit of some charismatic individuals, and the willingness of societies to devote resources to institutionalization are frequently linked to the emergence of academic disciplines. University disciplines, however, are highly persistent and have a tendency to duplicate themselves once they have emerged. Furthermore, new and divergent paradigms within a discipline tend to be accepted and accommodated up to a point, at least. The typical method by which disciplines are created is by the secession of a new discipline from a mother discipline. The connections between secessionist and maternal disciplines typically endure and are a source of ongoing conflict at least

temporarily. Both secession and competition are prominent themes in the history of PA in general and its connection to PS in particular. Think about how PA has been treated in the majority of western European nations. 'Staatswissenschaft', or a science of the state, which included a range of expertise now distributed among public law, the national economy, management, and budgeting, among others, used to be the primary repository of knowledge about the state and how it should conduct its affairs. The consequence of this heritage is that questions of public administration have long been dominated by the legal perspective, particularly in nations that are similar to the German model. Since PA with a social science foundation emerged later, it had to establish itself as an academic force in an intellectual and institutional setting that was already rather strict and dominated by law. It is impossible to go into great depth about the various national European trajectories of PA's development and maturation here.

However, a key explanatory factor may be observed in how our country traditionally handles hiring for public positions. Where the legal profession dominates hiring, this dominance is typically reflected in the way that PA is organized nationally as a discipline or field of study. The key takeaway from this is that how PA and PS relate to one another relies a lot on the national context in which each area developed and is organized. Let's focus on a few specific cases. PA was a post-war import from the United States to Germany. However, it encountered a preexisting affirmative tradition of Staatswissenschaften in Germany that was dominated by public defenders.

Nearly at the same time as PA, political science was developed, but it did so more successfully, first as a science of democracy and democratization, then as an empirical social science that concentrated on public institutions and group decision-making. The development of PA, in comparison, was less successful; the area continued to be normatively controlled by public law and had to compete experimentally with a growing PS and other associated social sciences. Therefore, PA never truly developed in Germany as a stand-alone academic activity and still occupies a niche. Another country where PA evolved before the Second World War is Holland.

Similar to how pacified Germany aided Dutch PA to flourish into a full-fledged university field. In many Eastern European countries, four decades after the fall of the Berlin Wall in the 1990s, a different PA trend is still discernible. There, PA is viewed as more of a management and economics department concern provides a good summary of the state of the art. Although he focuses experimentally on teaching programs, it is reasonable to suppose that the prevailing patterns he identifies also broadly describe national PA traditions[1]–[3]. Based on the percentile distributions of the fields in their respective nations, non-metrical multidimensional scaling (MDS).

MDS is a tool for displaying the degree of (dis-)similarity between specific dataset examples. A PA program with equal amounts of legal, policy, and business components is shown in the graph's center. Turning to the US instance, we see that things have developed very differently there. In contrast to Europe, the US does not have a legal system that is as closely tied to the government. When it became clear that the central state bureaucracy needed to be professionalized, political science was the first to develop and did so only after overcoming a fundamental antigovernment authority response.



The separation of PA from PS was prompted by the need for a science to transform public administration into a contemporary, effective, and efficient state instrument. What can we infer about the connection between PA and PS from these examples? First, the circumstances present at the moment PA first appears in a national setting have an impact on how PA and PS interact. Prior to the institutionalization of a PA specialty, it is critical to identify which academic field dominates the wider intellectual landscape. The second point is that PA, as a multidisciplinary enterprise, has a close but competitive relationship with its peer disciplines, particularly PS, from which it broke away.

The outcome of this competition, i.e., whether and to what extent PA can develop into a stand-alone and significant university subject in a specific setting depends on the national development of these peer fields. Third, the configuration of competition, independence, and relative importance that PA as a discipline enjoys or suffers in a particular country is determined by how the state conducts the recruitment of its personnel.

### **Self-perceptions in the discipline**

In a sociological sense, historical processes that have influenced disciplinary realities are one thing. The ensuing disciplinary self-understanding, which both mirrors and reproduces attitudes of individual scholars toward their profession and determines their interaction with 'other' disciplinary territories, is another significant and related component. Thus, investigating how PA and PS see themselves as academic disciplines can aid us in understanding how the two domains interact. What public administration science actually is and why it should exist are still hotly contested topics in PA.

Similar self-critical comments can be found in PS, however they are fewer and perhaps have a less dramatic tone. PA students need self-assurance more than PS students do. Consider this passage from Gerald Caiden's PA introductory material as an illustration. No other discipline appears to struggle as much to defend itself to both the community at large and to itself. It hasn't yet established a strong theoretical base.

It suffers from ambiguity, indeterminacy, looseness, and imprecision. Its proponents and theorists hardly ever communicate with one another. There are significant differences in opinion regarding meaning, techniques, study methods, identity, and boundary restrictions; universal agreement is uncommon. Its pupils frequently find it boring, the books unreliable, the arguments and disagreements senseless, the theories unworkable, and the practical training useless. In other words, it has lost its intellectual focus.

Although this quotation is meant to be provocative, it nonetheless emphasizes PA's lack of a shared paradigm or a compelling uniting agenda. Since it has not yet been able to integrate into the direction of interdisciplinarity, let alone transdisciplinarity, PA now resembles more of a pluri-discipline, incorporating many disciplinary perspectives on its subject-matter. Rosenbloom, Kravchuk, and Cerkin propose defining PA as an endeavor based on legal, management, and political science approaches to understanding the state, its organization, and its actions in order to deal pragmatically with disciplinary fragmentation and incoherence. By integrating the three most crucial PA strategies in a triangle.



The triangle also illustrates how challenging it would be to develop PA paradigms or research questions that successfully integrate all three PA 'corners'. For instance, the legal and political science perspectives both share an interest in institutions, although the management perspective does not. Political science and management can be compared in terms of how they approach the role of the individual, but the instrumental aspect of PA is more a matter of legal structure and economic considerations, making it more in line with the perspectives of law and management than political science.

Even though the triangle is a simplification, it nonetheless highlights the field's intrinsic variability, its causes, and how challenging it is to overcome. Probably, one could integrate two poles via one axis, but probably not all three poles by all three axes. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) is based on the percentile distributions of the fields in the respective countries. MDS is a tool for showing how similar or dissimilar particular dataset examples are to one another.

The middle of the graph depicts a PA program with equal parts of legal, policy, and commercial components. Consult Schneider (2004) to learn more. When we look at the US situation, we can see that things have evolved extremely differently. The US legal system is less entwined with the government than its counterpart in Europe. Political science was the first to emerge when it became evident that the central state bureaucracy needed to be professionalized, but it did so only after overcoming a fundamental antigovernment authority response. The necessity for a science to transform public administration into a modern, effective, and efficient state instrument led to the split of PA from PS [4], [5].

### **What can we conclude from these examples on the relationship between PA and PS?**

Initially, PA and PS's interactions are influenced by the conditions that exist when PA initially appears in a national context. Before a PA specialty is institutionalized, it is important to determine which academic discipline rules the larger intellectual landscape. Second, as a multidisciplinary enterprise, PA has a close but competitive relationship with its peer disciplines, particularly PS, from which it separated. The outcome of this competition specifically, whether and to what degree PA may become a stand-alone and important university subject in a particular setting depends on the national development of these peer subjects. Third, how the state manages the hiring of its workforce affects the configuration of competition, independence, and relative importance that PA as a discipline enjoys or suffers in a particular country.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **A discipline's self-perceptions**

Historical events that have shaped disciplinary realities are one thing in a sociological sense. Another important and related element is the resulting disciplinary self-understanding, which reproduces and mimics individual scholars' attitudes regarding their field of study and governs how they interact with 'other' disciplinary domains. We may therefore better understand how the two domains interact by looking into how PA and PS define themselves as academic disciplines.

The definition of public administration science and the justification for its existence continue to be contentious issues in PA. Similar self-criticism can be found in PS, but it is rarer, and possibly the tone is less intense. More than PS students, PA students require confidence, according to Benz. No other discipline seems to strive as hard to defend itself, both to the larger community and to the discipline itself. It still lacks a solid theoretical foundation. It has problems with vagueness, imprecision, indeterminacy, and ambiguity.

Rarely do its supporters and thinkers interact with one another. There are substantial disagreements in opinion regarding boundaries, identity, and study methodologies as well as meaning and tactics. The texts are frequently unreliable, the arguments and disagreements are pointless, the theories are impracticable, and the practical training is meaningless in the eyes of its students. In other words, its intellectual concentration has shifted. Despite the fact that this quotation is supposed to be controversial, it nonetheless highlights PA's lack of a unifying ideology or compelling agenda.

It displays the discipline priorities and existing affinities. The triangle also demonstrates how difficult it would be to create research topics or paradigms for PA that successfully combine all three PA 'corners'. For instance, institutions are of interest to both the legal and political science viewpoints, but not to the management perspective. When it comes to how they treat the role of the individual, political science and management can be compared, but PA's instrumental component is more a question of legal framework and economic concerns, aligning it more with the perspectives of law and management than political science. The triangle illustrates the field's inherent variability, its causes, and how difficult it is to overcome even though it is a simplification. Two poles could probably be integrated using one axis, but most likely not all three poles using all three axes[6]–[8].

### **Intellectual dialogue across disciplines**

As was shown in the preceding section, various disciplinary self-understandings of PS and PA are related to specific areas and issues of intellectual interchange. What can be inferred experimentally from the intellectual dialogue between PA and PS and from the possibility of inspiration between disciplines? First, it should be noted that conferences and workshops held by national or international PS or PA associations are generally accessible to both communities. In fact, at meetings held within the frameworks of de facto exchange between PS and PA in a variety of topics and matters occurs.

Some national political science organisations, such as the British PSA, host specialized groups of PA academics; on the other hand, EGPA has a number of ongoing study groups that are attended by both political scientists and PA scholars, such as those on public policy or multilevel governance. In other words, the way scientific language is structured in PS and PA definitely allows for cross-disciplinary communication and exchange. Second, among the best PA (journals listed are publications like Policy Sciences, Policy Studies Journal, Environmental Planning, Journal of European Social Policy, Governance, Regulatory Governance, Journal of Public Policy, and Journal of European Public Policy and Governance.

In other words, almost one-third of the top 20 PA journals serve as venues for both the PS and PA communities rather than having a distinct PA concentration. Notably, this does not apply the other way around; that is, among ranking PS journals, only *Governance* is expressly PA-related and does not rank in the top twenty. As a result, researchers in PA and PS attend the same conferences and frequently publish in the same publications. Sadly, this does not necessarily indicate that they are speaking frequently to one another. According to Bradley E. Wright's cross-citation analysis of the top fifteen journals in public administration, public policy, public management, and law, the rate at which public administration research incorporates the work of these fields is very low. However, although PA pays scant attention to the state of the art in allied subjects, political science, management studies, and legal publications give PA research even less consideration.

It is illuminating that the frequency of citations of PA research in PS journals is not just low, but has actually decreased with time, as indicated, for instance, by *Public Administration Review's* citations in the top journals of the other disciplines. As a result, according to Wright, the visibility of the research published in public administration journals seems to have declined over the same time period. Wright concludes that although top law, management, and political science journals only occasionally cite public administration research, these journals cite public administration research far less frequently.

As was mentioned in the previous section, the top-ranked journals are typically associated with mainstream research that is increasingly dominated by sophisticated methodological approaches and large-n designs, i.e., with research strategies that are more up-to-date in the fields of political science and management than in the field of PA. It may be argued that practical research in PA is less theory-driven and less likely to be published in prestigious publications, where it would eventually gain the attention of other fields.

However, Wright's findings unequivocally demonstrate a disturbing intellectual isolation of PA research in both absolute and relative aspects [9], [10]. Two inferences can thus be tentatively reached regarding the specific relationship between PS and PA in light of disciplinary communication. First off, there is dangerously little mutual focus. Second, when it comes to receiving attention, PA mostly evaluates PS-produced results rather than the other way around. In other words, PA and PS have a one-sided trade connection. Although there is considerable conceptual transfer from PS to PA, PA outcomes and methodologies do not appeal to a larger PS audience.

### **What exactly defines a scientific discipline?**

If PA and PS truly count as mature disciplines has yet to be determined. Indeed in the absence of the empirical findings discussed in the previous section namely, that PA intellectually builds on PS but not the other way around the more pertinent question is whether PA is indeed a sufficiently autonomous discipline. The opinions of academics who have written about the topic differ. In this regard, most researchers are practical. One has learned to live with a rather fragmented university discipline, internally characterized by multiple paradigms, given that PA does indeed exist as a discipline in the majority of European countries as well as the US, despite

the fact that PA tends to develop increasingly into policy schools and public management courses. Other PA voices work to systematize clarifications and advance the discussion of whether and how much PA is or might be a discipline in general. For instance, Eberhard Bohne has attempted to use theoretical and sociological justifications to support the possibility of a stand-alone PA as an intellectual and academic subject, with an eye toward the German scenario where PA is seldom institutionalized evaluates the development and shortcomings of PA favorably while reflecting on Dahl's critique from 1947. Volker Schneider arrives at a more pessimistic conclusion about PA's disciplinary autonomy by using criteria from the philosophy of science established by the theorist Mario Bunge. PA should probably be viewed as an interdisciplinary field rather than as a distinct scientific discipline because it lacks its own paradigms, coherent epistemological principles, appropriate formal or logical theories, or distinct boundaries of scientific discourse.

## CONCLUSION

It is similar not only because the focus of the research questions is on the function of state institutions and the results of state interventions, but also because the scholarly communities in each field interact within permeable structures and frequently use the same venues for the presentation and publication of their work. In terms of developing and presenting university programs, demonstrating relevance to society, luring exceptional students, and vying for funding from private actors and public authorities, the relationship is competitive. However, a division of work also forms the basis of the partnership. The authority and ability of the state are still seen from a normative and empirical perspective by PA, which concentrates on intra-organizational and procedural issues. On the other hand, adopts a wider perspective where a variety of societal inputs and policy outcomes are given considerably greater attention; it also places a great deal more stress on the generalizability of information and on theoretical advancement. The relative greater fragmentation, the lack of a methodological consensus, and the absence of an overarching paradigm are all indicators of PA's relative epistemological inferiority if one accepts certain criteria for evaluating the coherence and consistency of scientific disciplines. Recognizing this state of the art does not mean that PS is without flaws or problems in comparison to the aspirations of pure ideology.

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## CHAPTER 7

### GOVERNANCE AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT: A BRIEF DESCRIPTION

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#### ABSTRACT:

The minimalist state, corporate governance, the new public management, good governance, international interdependence, socio-cybernetics, and networks are the seven instances of the term governance in public administration that are highlighted in this Chapter. Through two stories that depict what governance looks like from the top and bottom, it demonstrates governance in action. These narratives are used to highlight and analyze five governance-related issues facing public administration: fragmentation and coordination, steering, accountability, marketization of ethics, and indirect management. It highlights six major issues that need to be resolved in terms of governance. Governance: Is it new? Has the center been emptied? How do we account for the expansion of governance? How are networks managed at the center? What effects does government have on representative democracy? Is a breakdown of governance inevitable? Finally, this Chapter gives a general evaluation of the governance approach's potential and limitations.

#### KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Corporate Governance, Governance, Power-Dependence, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

Public administration research has seen various trends come and go throughout the years. This Chapter focuses on the currently popular idea of governance, which is frequently amusing, occasionally informative, and rarely lasting. Although it has replaced the trite term government, it is commonly used. Does it have a specific meaning? What does it reveal about the difficulties that Public Administration, generally, and the British government, specifically, face? With its love of markets, the New Right foretold hard times for public administration. Long focused on the design of public institutions, particularly the development of effective bureaucracy under democratic control, it discovered that its recommendations for marketization and the development of private sector management capabilities were roundly rejected. As self-serving producers, bureaucrats worked to maximize the agency budget. A myth exists about the general interest. Public administration students were marginalized and forced to remark on innovations started by others [1]–[3].

A component of the defense is good governance. It provides an explanation of the unexpected consequences of marketization and corporate management. Therefore, it is a reaction to the alleged shortcomings of marketization. Marketization also caused service delivery systems to become disjointed, attracting participants and organizations from the public, commercial, and nonprofit sectors.

The networks that are so important to the analysis of governance are a response to this plurality of policy making, and governance is a case for combining markets, hierarchies, and networks as governing structures. The governance literature also addresses how the various public sector reforms of the 1980s and 1990s changed the state's position in society. In the UK, where there isn't a state tradition like the continental legacy of governance looks at how networks' informal authority operates in conjunction with and in place of formal government power. The governance literature investigates the boundaries of the state and works to provide a more varied understanding of state power and how it is used.

### **State of little governance**

This use is a general word that redefines the scope and nature of public intervention as well as the application of markets and quasi-markets to the provision of 'public' services. Using the excellent term from the study, governance is the acceptable face of spending cuts. Any change's magnitude is up for debate. Unquestionably, the size of the British government was lowered by privatization and downsizing to the civil service. The administration's stated ideological inclination for smaller government is more important than the statistical argument concerning the size of the cuts. Governance encapsulates that inclination but, as a piece of political language, conveys little else.

### **Corporate governance as governance**

According to the Cadbury Report from this specialized use alludes to the system by which organizations are directed and controlled. Therefore, the governance role is not primarily concerned with managing the company's operations, but rather with providing overall guidance to the organization, monitoring and policing management's executive decisions, and meeting legitimate demands for accountability and regulation by interests outside of the corporate walls.

All businesses require both governing and managing this application was modified for the public sector by the Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy. In contrast to the traditional public service ethos, which is characterized by values of disinterested service and openness, developments like mandatory competitive tendering, the establishment of distinct business units within internal markets, and the introduction of a more commercial style of management are creating a new culture and climate. The fact that public services are currently experiencing major change intensifies the requirement for extra caution and vigilance to ensure that solid corporate governance structures are established and function as intended. In its research, it identifies three key concepts that hold true for both public and private sector companies.

They advocate for transparency, or the sharing of information, honesty, or straightforward dealing, and completeness. They also advocate for accountability, or holding people accountable for their activities through a clear division of duties and clearly defined positions. Discussions of accountability in the new public management and good governance, despite being a limited use of the term, echo the issues with corporate governance. Additionally, this utilization serves to remind us that the public sector is significantly influenced by private sector management practices[4], [5].



### **The new public management model: governance**

The terms corporate management and marketization were used to describe the new public management (NPM) at first. Corporate management is the application of management practices from the corporate sector to the public sector. It emphasizes practical professional management, clear performance goals and metrics, managing by results, value for money, and, more lately, customer proximity. Marketization is the process of infusing incentive structures, including market competition, into the delivery of public services. It places a strong emphasis on separating bureaucracy, increasing competition through contracting-out and quasi-markets, and giving consumers more options. Corporate management predominated in Britain before to 1988. Marketization gained traction after 1988. Because steering is essential to the analysis of public management and because steering is a synonym for governance, NPM is pertinent to this discussion of governance. Osborne and Gaebler, for instance, argue that bureaucracy is a useless instrument for rowing and make a distinction between policy decisions and service delivery.

They suggest an entrepreneurial government in its stead, emphasizing competition, markets, customers, and monitoring results. Less government and more governance are involved in this change of the public sector, according to Osborne and Gaebler. Government, according to Peters, is defined as institutions designed to exercise collective control and influence; this definition is so inclusive that it encompasses all types of government. Author focuses on public sector reform, whereas Peters also uses steering as a synonym for governance.

Peters effectively utilizes governance to explain current public sector reforms, much like Osborne and Gaebler, but he makes no specific reform arguments, in contrast to Osborne and Gaebler. He describes the various variations, including the market, participatory, transitory, and regulatory states, as well as their implications. Both the significance of these changes and their concern for the new public administration are indicated by governance (see also OECD 1995).

### **'Good governance' in government**

Government reform is a global trend, and the World Bank is currently focusing on good governance when determining how much money to grant to developing nations. A nation's affairs are managed through the exercise of political authority, according to the World Bank (1992), and good governance entails.

### **International interdependence and governance**

In the domains of international relations and international political economy, there is a growing body of literature on governance. But the two themes of hollowing-out and multi-level governance in this literature are especially pertinent to the study of public administration. According to the hollowing out theory, a state's power is being undermined by global interdependence. In order to distinguish between government and governance, study proposes that the former refers to activities that are backed by formal authority while the latter refers to activities backed by shared goals. Because it includes informal, non-governmental mechanisms in addition to governmental entities, governance is a more encompassing phenomenon.

Therefore, when there are regulatory mechanisms in a sphere of activity which function effectively even though they are not endowed with formal authority, governance without government results. The growth of global governance results in the dispersion and replacement of national state authority with a dispersed and diffused form of authority. Thus, Held proposes that four processes—internationalization of financial and production transactions, international organizations, international law, and hegemonic powers and power blocs—are restricting the autonomy of nation states. The nation state has therefore seen a decline in its ability to rule, but it remains a pivotal institution. It is crucial to 'suturing' authority upward to the global level and downward to sub-national organizations [6]–[8].

## DISCUSSION

### Governing through networks

The analytical center of governance is networks. Despite the vast amount of literature on them, I only concentrate on studies that are specifically focused on governance. Depending on whether they use power-dependency or rational choice to describe network behavior, the literature can be divided into two major schools. I use the work of the Erasmus University, Rotterdam governance club, the British Local Governance and Whitehall research programs, and the Max-Planck-Institut für Gesellschaftsforschung to demonstrate the two methods.

### Power-Dependence

Research in Britain was fueled by the UK Economic and Social Research Council Research Programs on Local Governance and Whitehall. Rhodes suggested that from the beginning of the Local Governance Program, the system of government outside of Westminster and Whitehall shifted from a system of local government into a system of local governance involving complex sets of organizations drawn from the public and private sectors. According to this definition, the term governance encompasses more than just government and refers to any combination of the public, commercial, and nonprofit sectors that deliver services. Inter-organizational links are a defining aspect of service delivery because of the complexity caused by the state's functional segmentation. If the various agencies are to efficiently provide services, they must interchange resources. All organizations must exchange resources with other organizations in order to accomplish their objectives, using methods that adhere to the established game rules. These ideas persisted throughout the entire program. As a result, according to Stoker governance is a collection of institutions and actors that are both within and outside of the government, where the lines between their roles in addressing social and economic issues are blurred, multiple institutions are power-dependent, and the networks that are created are autonomous and self-governing.

One of his patients asks a nearby doctor's office for home assistance. Mrs. T is rheumatic and 80 years old. She has a bungalow to herself. She walks with a frame. She is no longer able to cook for herself or handle kitchenware. She managed until she collapsed and broke her wrist. She sought care at casualty. After her treatment, the hospital discharged her. A friend has been assisting, but she is elderly and finds it difficult to provide Mrs. T with the ongoing care she requires.

The home care manager sees Mrs. T. and evaluates her. Because of her slowness and her wrist fracture in addition to the arthritis in her hands, she finds it difficult to grip the frame. She finds it difficult to wash, dress, use the restroom, bathe, prepare food, cook, and go shopping. The friend who calls offers cooking, shopping, and personal care assistance. As soon as she gets her own pension, she will still go shopping occasionally and visit her buddy once a week. All three of Mrs. T's children are employed, have families of their own, and reside outside of their hometowns. The oldest will retire in the upcoming 20–21 years. The family has agreed to alternate Sunday visits and to maintain the garden and home in good condition.

In order to evaluate Mrs. T.'s need for equipment for daily living, the Home Care Manager requests an immediate visit from the Occupational Therapy Services. A home helper will visit throughout mealtimes while you wait for this assessment and will assist with getting dressed in the morning. Around 7:00 p.m., the friend will call to assist her in changing. An occupational therapy assistant (OTA) calls two days later to determine Mrs. T's equipment requirements for daily life. With special cutlery and a plate guard, Mrs. T is able to eat. If a kettle tipper is set out for her, she can make a cup of tea. If everything is set out in advance, she can eat toast or cereal for morning. With bread, butter, cheese, or cold cuts, tea is manageable. With the aid of new dials, Mrs. T. can operate her gas cooker. The kitchen is neatly set up. She can eat her meals while seated at the work counter adjacent to the cooker using a perching stool. She can use equipment to wash and dress herself, but assistance is required to button, zip, and lace up clothing, as well as to put on stockings. Putting on properly chosen attire from the closet Mrs. T. won't require much assistance getting dressed or undressed. She requires a bathroom with a raised toilet seat and frame, a bath board over the tub, and a grab bar on the wall. Later that day, everything save the grab rail arrived. The council's housing services will set up an emergency warden call system by the end of the week. Within 48 hours, the Gas Board will call to replace the cooker's dials. The home help is rearranged by the home care manager. She makes an early-morning call using her own services. Monday through Friday, while Saturday is handled by a private agency. The housekeeper will assist with buttons, collect groceries and pension, and perform some little cleaning. They'll do the ironing and laundry. One morning per week, the home caregiver assists Mrs. T in using her bath board to take a bath. She sets out the morning's tea and breakfast while also filling the kettle. On weekdays between 7 and 9 o'clock p.m., a twilight service number, 21-22, will call to assist with undressing. These services are purchased and arranged by the home care manager. Meals on Wheels are delivered by the WRVS on Mondays and Fridays. An area elementary school prepares frozen meals, which are then delivered by the home help. Mrs. T. will treat herself to a meal prepared and delivered by a nearby hotel every Saturday. Mrs. T hardly ever leaves the house, and as her infirmity worsens, she no longer thinks she can even consider leaving. She is alone. The council or a nonprofit organization like Age Concern conduct senior activities in a number of local centers. A post-hospital discharge support service is run by Age Concern. Mrs. T is wary of interacting with others since she has become accustomed to being alone. She does not want to be a bother and is appreciative of all the assistance she receives. She dislikes requesting more information and assistance. She is likewise struggling, living only off of her pension. The home care manager is busy and will only stop by briefly to check in every six months now that everything is set up.

### **Coordination and Fragmentation**

The instance of Mrs. T. demonstrates how turf protection and fragmentation work against the user. Does Mrs. T's quality of life increase as a result of the variety of services the Home Care Manager and OTA offer? If Mrs. T is evaluated by a social worker who could have access to additional services, her quality of life might be enhanced. Could someone transport her to the nearest daycare or lunch club? She might enjoy playing whist or bingo. What about a trip with her friend or a stay at a nursing facility? Does Mrs. T have a right to more money? What about Council Tax Benefit, Attendance Allowance, and Income Support? If Mrs. T. had more money, would she be able to choose the services she wanted better? Would some of the services be more expensive for her to pay for? The user is unaware of the options. The bureaucrat on the ground level tries to maintain control while not having access to all services. The social worker was purposefully left out since no one person can manage a care package. The reason for these problems is fragmented service delivery; Mrs. T. received services from six different organizations.

### **Steering**

Yorkshire RHA demonstrates that the central NHS leadership was unable to steer due to an interorganizational control deficit. Government policy mandates open competition for contracts. All significant public sector contracts must be available to member states, according to EU legislation. Yorkshire appears to be an exception, though. Please pardon my repeat. There was no open bidding process for a garbage incineration contract worth £2 million annually in revenue and £7.2 million in capital. For fifteen years, it lasted. The NHS Executive did not approve the Authority 23 & 24. Pulling the central policy lever does not cause anything to happen at the bottom; the center contains rubber levers. A seemingly forgotten old lesson[9], [10]. The British government is inherently contradictory. It has a strong ability to pass laws, but several agencies must cooperate for those laws to be effective. When used against other agencies, the authority that supports the hyperactivity of the legislative branch goes bad. If networks' informal authority structures respond at all, they do so in response to negotiation rather than instructions.

### **Accountability**

Because institutional complexity by itself makes it difficult to determine who is responsible for what, fragmentation undermines accountability. In place of elected local councils and central departments, special purpose, nominated bodies have multiplied to provide various services. The Yorkshire RHA eloquently demonstrates the absence of accountability. The catalog is appealing even if there are no spectacular Authority misdeeds. The Public Accounts Committee depicts an Authority that embraced the ethos of the time, disregarded its traditional stewardship function, and for years got away with murder. Later, a great deal later, control was exercised. No one was held accountable for the significant misuse of public funds. The cash was not found. Furthermore, Yorkshire RHA cannot be written off as a singular, abnormal group. The NHS Executive wanted it to adopt the attitude of the time. Many examples of the same kind and scope of unlawful behavior were found in the Wessex and West Midlands RHAs, or three of the fourteen RHAs, according to the Committee of Public Accounts. Its reports demonstrate the operation of corporate governance and a lack of network accountability.

## CONCLUSION

There are two benefits to using governance as a story about British government. By highlighting significant changes in British governance, such as the failures of marketization and the unintended effects of differentiation, it first exposes significant factual flaws in conventional accounts. Second, it raises novel, different problems about British government, such as those pertaining to the restructuring of the state and the diversification of policymaking. In light of this, it serves as a vital corrective to the conventional. The governance model provides a unique story, but it also raises several crucial issues that remain unanswered. Despite its claim that there has been a loss of central capability, the hollow crown is offset by tendencies that can be summed up by the term more control over less. We know very little or nothing about the many interpretations of governance and how national governmental traditions impact these interpretations, despite the fact that there are comparable patterns in other modern industrial democracies.

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## CHAPTER 8

### FINANCIAL AFFILIATIONS OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES: A CRITICAL REVIEW

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#### ABSTRACT:

This study's goal is to examine the institutional and organizational framework of Italian public service providers. After examining the various Public Administration reforms, research on the crisis and insolvency of publicly owned companies has been prioritized, as the legislator has just recently and for the first time organically regulated the repercussions of the same, affirming their general submission to bankruptcy and insolvency proceedings. However, the standard also described how preventive plans should be adopted in order to avoid bankruptcy in situations of severe financial difficulty and to resolve the crisis of the invested enterprises. Aspects of the subject's legal framework will be discussed after the problem of the historical development and territorial dispersion of the phenomena of public companies in Italy has been covered. The content of the reform for publicly traded firms is examined in the following part, which also reviews key developments in the industry's coverage of business losses. The study's conclusions will address this issue because the new discipline has significant effects on public spending and, consequently, on the community.

#### KEYWORDS:

Accounting Methods, Organizational Framework, Public Administration, Public Enterprises, Public Finance.

#### INTRODUCTION

The theoretical framework of the analysis will be addressed once the notion of the public sector and the study's subject have been examined. This will be done from a historical-temporal viewpoint with an interpretation of a company nature on observation phenomena. In this regard, we examined the many research strands that characterized the major reforms of the public administration, keeping in mind what is documented in national and international literature. While enabling the identification and analysis of the development of the various systems of planning and control of public administration, research areas have altered the objectives of the studies toward conditions of better efficiency and value of public performance. Research has concentrated on the crisis and insolvency of publicly owned companies as a result of the pathological phenomena that have occurred with increasing frequency in recent years. This is because, most recently, the legislator has organically regulated the consequences of these companies' insolvency, affirming their general submission to bankruptcy and insolvency proceedings. However, the standard also described how preventive plans should be adopted in order to avoid insolvency in times of severe financial hardship and to resolve the crisis of the



invested enterprises. Aspects of the subject's legal framework will be discussed after the problem of the historical development and territorial dispersion of the phenomena of public companies in Italy has been covered. The theory surrounding this final topic is extremely contentious; in reality, defining the legal status of such organizations has important practical ramifications on the level of discipline, so it is far from being a purely academic exercise. The content of the reform for publicly traded firms is examined in the following part, which also reviews key developments in the industry's coverage of business losses. The study's conclusions will address this issue because the new discipline has significant effects on public spending, and hence on the community[1]–[3].

### **Italian public corporations' historical development**

The necessity to rationalize and simplify an astounding number of public firms in Italy is what led to the most recent reform of publicly traded corporations. It is necessary to define a public entity for the purposes of the analysis of the rules set forth in Legislative Decree establishing the Consolidated Law on the Subject of Companies Owned by the Public Administration, and it is necessary to start from the models of public bodies that have become well-known over time. The state, the provinces, and the municipalities made up the few territorial entities that made up the liberal state's administrative structure, which was straightforward. There were also incredibly few other government-owned companies run by local authorities, most of them were identifiable by an *attiva* that was associated with a particular structure. This state primarily focused on maintaining internal public order and protecting the region from outside threats, allowing the market to operate freely in search of equilibrium.

The relative expansion of the ministries and agencies that started to manage public services at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries strengthened the state. With the establishment of autonomous companies at the state level entities included in the ministerial area with management autonomy and different financial, accounting, and controls and municipalized companies at the local level as branches of the territorial bodies that performed the same functions at the levels closest to the citizen, this historical moment marks the beginning of the process of expanding the original organizational structures of the state. In this manner, we move from a State controller to a interventionist. Due to the subsequent economic difficulties of these historical events, there was a significant state intervention in the economy after the crisis of 1929 and during the post-war period. In instance, the state began assessing struggling private businesses to prevent bankruptcy such as the purchase of stock by IRI, an institute for industrial reconstruction. The region, a public body with legislative and statutory authority over some of the issues listed in Article 117 of the Constitution, has been added to the landscape of public bodies with the implementation of the Constitution, and with the reform of Title V, administrative functions have been redistributed with an eye toward subsidiarity, differentiation, and sufficiency. The law on parastatals which continued the process of transformation through an unchecked expansion of required public bodies that are classified as parastatals, did so from the same perspective of how the group of public subjects has evolved. Giving a single definition of public administration has become challenging because of this framework; instead, we speak of the diversity of public administrations or of public administrations with varied geometries.



### **Public enterprises' disciplinary practices and legal profiles**

Problems with the formal classification of the field have emerged as a result of privatization; in fact, public companies can, in practice, be surrounded by highly varied individuals inside the syntagma. Because of this, it cannot be further supported by a static notion of a public body; rather, it must be noted that the Stato Council recently is focused on a functional and iridescent notion of public body: the same subject may have the nature of public body for certain purposes and with respect to certain institutions and may, however, not have it for other purposes, preserving, respect to other institutions. The public qualification of an institution has important practical repercussions on the disciplinary level and is not only a matter of classification. A first restriction can be seen in the many types of controls on the deeds, on the management bodies, internal or external, accounting that all public entities use to evaluate the legitimacy of their operations and conformity with the public interest. In addition, the lack of perfect and total negotiating freedom, which is characterized by a number of restrictions, rules, and publicistic limitations, which are intended to transparently proceduralize a contractual choice with regard to an, the content of the contract and the choice of the negotiating partner, is a significant limitation.

### **Financial Affiliations between Public Enterprises and Public Administration**

Consequently, a function that is never free and is always functional, that is, a constraint that is subject to control and syndication at the jurisdictional seat. The argument over whether or not public finalization of the corporate body and modification of the typical corporate model can confirm the attraction of the so-called investee companies to the public sphere has become polarized in the discussion of the conformability of public bodies to a corporate structure.

Given that frequently the private module represents an evasive means of provisions that are unquestionably binding on the participating bodies but not also for the private entities that are formed or participated by them, this assimilation took place primarily for reasons of public finance protection. It should be mentioned that public institutions and bodies that are part of the consolidated account of the public administration have a propensity to be distinguished in modern society.

The employment of the corporate instrument in the past to get around the restrictions of public finance has led to an increase in interest in the system of public investments at the federal and territorial levels. In accordance with the new regulations on budget balances, the legislator has established a cogent system of actions with the common goal of restoring efficiency to businesses in public participation. This includes strengthening corporate governance and taking into account the public administration group (GAP) as a whole, with special attention to the effects of the investee organizations' performance on institutions.

The phenomenon of outsourcing resulted in the financial statements' lack of homogeneity, which included an incomplete and unrepresentative depiction of the GAP's financial, economic, and equity situation as well as the overall functions carried out by the entity through its organizational structures, instrumental entities, and investee companies[4], [5].

Legislative Decree June 23, 2011, No. 118 establishes the consolidation of the accounts between the institutions and their participating bodies in order to increase the transparency and accountability of the various levels of government. It does this by harmonizing the accounting systems and financial statements of the regions, provinces, and local authorities.

Since it enables attaining the goal of neutrality of the budget with respect to the phenomenon of outsourcing and is approved by 30 September of the year following the reference year accounting principle applied consolidated financial statements, the centrality of the consolidated financial statements is functional to compliance with public finance constraints. Even in the absence of participation, the scope of consolidation includes situations when the dominating influence is exercised as a result of certain contractual limits. All institutions with a population of more than 5000 people must comply with the long-delayed consolidation obligation as of September 30, 2017. The financial statements that are currently in effect, for each of the three metrics total assets, net assets, and total revenues, are less than 3% compared to the economic and financial status of the parent firm.

The appraisal of irrelevance must be made with reference to both the individual business or company and the group of entities and companies that are thought to be hardly significant, as taking into account less significant circumstances may be relevant for consolidation purposes. It must be avoided that the group budget is reduced by considerable information due to the elimination of so many independently unimportant realities. Consider the extreme situation of a corporate organization made up of numerous institutions and businesses that are all of a size that would permit exclusion when taken individually.

## DISCUSSION

### **The accounting methods used by public firms to offset losses:**

The recourse to adequate allocations to specific provisions for risks and charges in the past frequently hidden among the residual liabilities meant to protect the present and future balance of the financial statements is one of the fundamental principles that characterize the accounting harmonization reform. In light of this, in addition to the tied multiyear fund and the dubious loan fund, a provision for investee loss is anticipated. First envisaged by Art. 1, and, currently, governed by Art. 21, Legislative Decree no. 175/2016, the obligation is foreseen for local public administrations to set up a fixed fund to cover the losses of participated bodies not immediately cleared up.

The creation of the captive fund to cover investee organizations' losses will make it easier for local authorities to account for the effects of losses suffered by these businesses but not immediately repaid in their financial statements. As stressed by the Court, the fund: Prevents any potential negative effects on future budget balances from not accounting for any losses recorded by the body in the predicted budget.

## Public Finance and Economics

Through a strict correlation between the economic-financial dynamics of the investee organizations and those of the entrusted members. All local public administrations on the ISTAT list mentioned in Article 1, Paragraph 3 of Law 196/09 are subject to the requirement to establish the fixed fund for losses of the participating organizations. In light of this, the provision also raises concerns about mountain communities, municipal unions, consortia between local authorities, chambers of commerce, and local health authorities in addition to regions, provinces, and municipalities. Special firms, institutions, and investee companies are the participatory bodies that the Art.1 takes into consideration while assessing the provision to the fund. The financial intermediaries, corporations that issue financial instruments listed on regulated markets, and their subsidiaries are all included in Art. 106 of Legislative Decree 385/93 (Consolidated Law on Banking and Credit Law). The provision is provided if the investee organizations present a financial result or a negative financial balance in the most recent financial year that is not promptly compensated by the participating business (Article 1, paragraph 551)[6]–[8].

Legislative Decree 175/2016, as amended by Legislative Decree 100/2017, establishes in Article 21 d that in the event that companies in which local public administrations have a controlling interest have a negative operating result, the participating local public administrations that use financial accounting shall set aside the following year in a suitable restricted fund an amount equal to the negative result, in proportion to the controlling interest. It should be noted that Legislative Decree 175/2016's Art. 21 also addresses standardizing situations in which the entities owning the loss-making interest use a civil accounting system rather than financial accounting. When this occurs, they alter the investment's value over the course of the following year to reflect the portion of the investee company's equity that corresponds to the bad result that is not immediately resolved and results in a long-term loss in value.

The operating result for businesses that prepare consolidated financial statements is the one that relates to their financial statements. The amount set aside becomes available to the public administration budget in the following circumstances, always in proportion to the participation fee: The participant body stores the loss or retires the participation; the participant is placed in liquidation; the investee companies pay all or a portion of the losses incurred in prior years with their own resources. Aside from these instances, the budgetary provision is listed in the statement of the share of the administrative result and is thus basically inaccessible for spending purposes other than those for which it was established. In the first application, the legislator has given a transitional period for the years 2015, 2016, and 2017 in which the provision is gradually increasing, with an important distinction between participation in bodies that, despite having reported a loss in the most recent budget, the accounts worsened and those that improved them in comparison to the average of the previous three years.

The first scenario covers the theories of the organizations that recorded a loss following prior financial statements that showed profits or that reported a poor performance above the average of the previous three years. In these situations, the portion that must be assigned in the participating entity's 2015 financial statements is equivalent to 25% of the body's negative result from the prior year.

According to the losses recorded by the investee in the prior year, the provisions will be set at 50% for 2016 and 75% for 2017. On the other hand, if the loss in the most recent balance sheet is less than the average of the previous three years indicating an improvement in the accounts, the 2015 estimated budget must include a provision equal to the difference between the result achieved in the previous year and the average result from 2011 to 2013 improved by 25% for 2014. The sum should be computed as a slide for the ensuing fiscal years, with the average result needing to be increased by 50% in 2015 and by 75% in 2016[9], [10].

The Autonomy Section of the Court of Auditors emphasizes that provisions to the fund must be coordinated with the provisions of the Italian Civil Code on the automatic dissolution of the company whose capital has fallen below the legal limit. These provisions grant the entity the right to decide whether to provide for the reintegration of the share capital based on a prognostic judgment on the future profitability of the company. With the exception of listed companies and banks that have reported losses in three consecutive financial statements for the year or that have used reserves available for the settlement of losses also during the year, the Art. 14 d. Decree 175/2016 specifically forbids public authorities from carrying out capital increases, extraordinary transfers, credit facilities, or issuing guarantees in favor of subsidiaries.

### CONCLUSION

Since the start of the 1990s of the previous century, local administrations have consolidated their usage of businesses. The belief that joint-stock companies, as an organism governed by the civil code, were exempt from the application of accounting rules and public finance of public bodies, as well as the phenomenon of public intervention in the nation's economy, had spread since the beginning of the twentieth century as the corporate phenomenon developed in public administrations.

In order to avoid corporate crises and restructuring, the public investee businesses are required, according to the deductive phase's findings, to develop new techniques for directing and controlling their operations. From an economic-business perspective, it is clear that insolvency can primarily be determined ex-post, including from the outside and through accounting and/or final data.

However, the crisis which has not yet crystallized, giving rise to insolvency, presupposes a vision that is no longer historical but prospective, aimed at identifying the inability in the future to fulfill both the obligations already assumed and those foreseeable in the normal course of business. Given that the accounting indicators examined individually are not very significant for this purpose that is, without adequate spatial comparison, time, and a joint analysis with ratios, and operating results in the multiple economic-financial-equity aspects of the investee company this suggests considering the possibility of using accounting and/or historical data, but with a view to their ability to signal future imbalances.

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## CHAPTER 9

### GLOBALIZATION'S EFFECTS ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: UNDERSTANDING THE MARKET DYNAMICS

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#### ABSTRACT:

Globalization, the current buzzword, refers to the spread of products, services, technologies, ideas, and processes across borders. Momentous changes in the makeup of the States, governments, and society it affects are some of its significant attendant characteristics. Market forces are challenging how the State has traditionally operated, particularly in terms of its emphasis on welfare. As States de facto become more economically, financially, and culturally integrated, the public administrative system, which serves as a country's primary regulatory mechanism, has been forced to interact with a network of supranational organizations and let go of its traditional insularity in order to guide the State as one of the many participants in a highly interactive group. In this unit, we'll attempt to define the term globalization and look at how it affects public administration generally and emerging nations in particular. Global structural changes are creating new difficulties for public management in a number of ways. In the Unit, these will be highlighted. Changes in perspectives on globalization and growing anxiety over how to modify it are apparent in the current environment. Some of these topics will be covered in this unit, with particular emphasis on the subject of global justice and accountability in a setting where the majority of the weaker States do not face an equal playing field.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative System, Developing Nations, Globalization, Privatization, Public.

#### INTRODUCTION

Globalization is bringing about profound changes in the world's political, economic, social, and cultural sectors. The term globalization describes the numerous connections and interrelationships between the States and societies that make up the current global order. It explains the process by which actions, choices, and events in one region of the world come to have major effects on people and communities in geographically remote regions. Two separate phenomenoscope and intensity can be used to explain globalization. On the one hand, it describes a collection of processes that cover most of the planet or function globally while implying a geographical relationship. However, it also suggests an increase in the levels of connection, interdependence, or closeness between the States and societies that make up the global community. As a result, global processes are intensifying along with the stretching. Some believe that technology advancements and market-driven economic development have given globalization a boost.

Nation States are becoming more interdependent as a result of globalization. A free environment for administrative, political, socioeconomic, cultural, and technical developments is supposedly created by it[1]–[3]. Economic, political, technological, military, legal, cultural, and environmental spheres of activity and interaction are all part of globalization. From an economic standpoint, it suggests the relaxation of trade restrictions and the widespread admission of multinational corporations that participate in foreign direct investment. According to sociologists, it is a multifaceted phenomenon that includes a variety of processes in the fields of politics, culture, technology, economy, and so forth.

The massive increase in financial and foreign exchange operations is the primary cause of globalization, which he describes as new and revolutionary. Significant advancements in communication technology, particularly electronic exchange made possible by personal computers, have made this possible. Globalization, according to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), is the transition from a world of different national economies to a global economy in which production is internationalized and financial capital moves freely and instantaneously across nations.

The opinions on how globalization is affecting various nations are divided. The increase of commerce, production, markets, investment, and technology, among other effects of globalization, are seen by proponents as boosting economies. According to this, there will be more prospects for employment, higher living standards and prosperity, cooperative relationships, networking, and other outcomes. The opponents list the consequences as high poverty, job losses, unemployment for unskilled labor, rising economic inequality, subsidy reductions, and environmental issues, particularly in developing nations.

As a result, there is strong opposition to globalization in many social forums all across the world. According to data on income from the US and the UN Development Programme, the 400 richest Americans collectively earn more than the combined national income of 20 African countries, which together have a population of over 3 million, and more than the 146 million people of Pakistan. Without a question, there is a big problem with the growing inequities in the world.

New cultural expectations, shifting value systems, and changes to state and governing structures are all results of globalization. Public administration is under pressure to adapt to the drastically shifting shifts as a result. It is having a significant impact on how the State is changing. The administration of business is evolving as a result of the information technology revolution. The substantial role being given to the corporate sector as a result of the reduction of trade barriers is widely acknowledged.

Governmental operations that are more managerial in nature, a shift in the State's function from direct supplier to regulator, and the creation of favorable conditions for the private sector are all gaining relevance[4], [5]. In a changing globalizing-international and transnational environment, the State has been not only a catalyst for its own transformation, but also a major source of development of globalization itself. Neo-liberalism favors privatization, economic incentives, a reduction in spending on public goods, etc., which has accelerated the process of globalization, as we have covered in Units 1, 3, and 5 of this course.



Public administration has been impacted by globalization as a result of constraints placed on it by international organizations, information technology, and growing concerns about productivity and efficiency. There are a lot of demands coming from international entities. These are the demands made by formal institutions with international jurisdiction who have control and responsibility over certain countries. The aid conditions imposed have wider effects since they enhance the developing country's reliance on the West politically, militarily, and economically. The Bank-approved consultants often rewrite a country's trade policy, fiscal policy, civil service requirements, labor laws, health care arrangements, environmental regulations, energy policy, resettlement requirements, procurement rules, and budgetary policies. People, in particular, lack the option to choose their own goals and policy preferences in many developing nations. Many developing nations' structural adjustment and stabilization policies have been viewed as a denial of local democracy.

### DISCUSSION

Between the State and the markets, civil society serves as a mediating connection by offering a unique civic identity that is shared by many different groups of citizens. The Renewal of Social Democracy, Anthony Giddens also argues for the expansion of democracy, with the government working in tandem with organizations in civil society to fend off civic decline. Experiments in direct democracy can supplement long-standing practices of community planning and development. As has been noted, the State has a significant responsibility to develop civil society while supporting bottom-up politics of neighborhood renewal. This suggests a bigger role for non-profit organizations in the provision of services, more regionalized routes of distribution, and a governmental sector that strives to strengthen local communities' capacities. The State and the Market are viewed as distant decision-makers who may not have a significant impact on community life. The advent of the Communitarian movement, which is a recent development but is gaining traction, offers a wider view of society as encompassing new types of community (local, voluntary, professional, etc.) operating in the spirit of mutual care and cooperation. The idea has gained currency that the State is encouraging democratic decentralization by ceding more of its responsibilities to partially or semi-autonomous local agencies, communities, and cooperatives.

The goal of market strategies like privatization, customer orientation, entrepreneurism, and performance orientation is without a doubt to increase the effectiveness of public administration. The issue is sparked by the conflict between private interests and values held by the public sector. Above all, as has been noted, there is something known as public interest that is at the core of government operations and cannot be replaced by any form of free market thinking. Peter Drucker has criticized privatization, which is being sought as a fundamental tool of globalization, saying, We are learning very fast that the belief that free market is all it takes to have a functioning society or even a functioning economy - is pure delusion. In the last two decades, the shift from a centrally planned to a market economy, particularly in developing nations, has raised several questions about the effectiveness and relevance of the State, the significance of market forces, and ways to strike a balance between the State, market forces, and the people.

Even Western liberal ideas, which in the past downplayed the importance of the State, have begun to acknowledge the need to take into account the positive aspects of governance, including the provision of efficient and transparent legal, judicial, and regulatory mechanisms, the development of market-friendly forms of State intervention, and the mobilization of social capital in support of public policies and programs [6]–[8].

The ultimate goal of development, regardless of whether it is pursued by the government or the free market, is to increase human capacity and choice, to produce a safe and secure environment where people can live with equality and dignity. According to some, globalization has an impact on communities' engagement in running their own affairs. The largest challenge to administration is to look at the governed, include them as partners in the development process, and build their capacities and empowerment rather than only focusing on improving the institutions and processes of government. With an emphasis on the importance of social capital to development, there is a significant trend towards a societal approach to development. In his analysis of East Asian economies, Author gave the theory of Embedded Autonomy a fresh perspective. He stressed that the existence of a specific set of social ties connecting these States to their neighboring societies is a significant factor contributing to their economic growth. The connection between the State and society, which makes it easier to determine how the society will react to State-formulated policies, is crucial. He emphasizes the necessity of connecting the State machinery with its sociocultural constituency as a result.

A review of the structural adjustment programs that the donor organizations impose on the developing nations reveals that the aid conditions have exacerbated societal problems such as rising disparities, unemployment, insecurity, and more. Therefore, efforts are being made to boost local economies through community reconstruction in order to minimize these consequences globally. For instance, almost 1.5 million individuals participate in community economic action in Britain, which includes a huge variety of organizations. It takes the shape of neighborhood recycling programs, community businesses run by locals, credit unions, and development trusts that aim to revitalize an area's economy, environment, and social fabric. By creating bottom-up participatory processes, the community will be able to manage its own demands and resources. According to the World Development Report 2000/2001, better communication with local government has been made possible in Brazil as a result of beneficiaries' participation in the distribution of development money. Eighty percent of the members of municipal councils come from user communities. They can submit an application for funding directly from the State government if they believe that Municipal Councils are treating them unfairly.

Microfinance has helped many families in the Indian state of Andhra Pradesh get beyond the poverty line. Small Self-help Groups (SHGs) are formed by women who then apply for loans with no or low interest rates to start businesses and accumulate savings. When it comes to the livelihood issue, where poverty is the determining factor, this kind of microfinance is regarded as a workable option. The State government is already a leader in the microlending industry. Programs for afforestation, multi-crop farming, the establishment of seed banks, the development of nurseries, and other initiatives are being carried out. On a number of fronts, the effects of globalization on public administration in emerging nations are posing significant difficulties.

Unfavorable effects are being caused by how market pressures are affecting public services. Public firms are being privatized, and in particular, the loss-making units are being sold at low rates because no appropriate purchasers can be found. The same problem exists in India, where there is significant opposition to privatization. The practice of contracting out is also vulnerable to fraud and poor management. As the requirement for ongoing monitoring and supervision increases the workload and expense of the public authorities, who are already burdened with a hefty workload, the process becomes extremely complicated and challenging to manage.

Even though the cost of providing services could be decreased, some of the countries still have inferior service standards. Some of the financial benefits of marketization for more managerial tasks have been outweighed by these issues[9], [10].The introduction of user fees violates the concepts of equity and financial capability. This strategy could result in increased prices for basic services in developing nations, which may be beyond the means of a bigger proportion of the people living in poverty.

The result could be a worsening of the imbalances already present as well as increased discontent and unrest among the populace. The World Bank is putting pressure on several developing nations, including India, to raise their rates and eliminate subsidies in a variety of sectors. Huque draws attention to a number of issues that arise as a result of the marketization of the public sector in emerging nations. First off, the highly publicized gains in efficiency and decrease in public spending are frequently outpaced by extremely high indirect costs and artificially enhanced productivity.

Small savings in terms of money and manpower are attained at the expense of some of the core values of public service, and the public loses faith in the government and its agencies' competence. Second, governments' authority, reputation, and legitimacy are all declining. The resourceful, organized, and highly skilled service providers in the private sector, as well as the powerful international agencies and multinational corporations, have little leverage over weak governments in developing nations. Thirdly, a lack of effective government protection and the prevalence of policies that favor service providers have left users of public services in emerging nations in a precarious situation. As a result, after the advent of marketization in public administration, consumers become the weakest party.

The developing nations have not yet reached a point in their development where it is safe to turn over the delivery of public services to private companies without running the danger of serious disruption or jeopardizing consumer interests. Citizens won't support privatization unless the costs and benefits are clearly estimated and shown to benefit them. On the urging of donor organizations, the marketization of public administration has resulted in a variety of undesirable results. Marketization of public administration in developing countries has weakened the power of consumers and governments instead of increasing their economy and efficiency and raising the awareness and power of consumers, strengthening the position of the private sector and international organizations. The development of knowledge-based societies and a certain level of information technology sophistication promote globalization and the changes that go along with it, but the majority of emerging nations discuss the fundamental requirements for carrying out public administration tasks.

The results in the developing world are seldom adequate despite pledges and pushes towards marketization, corporatization, privatization, customer-orientation, and development of the third sector. However, there are still no concrete plans or mechanisms in place to develop a transparent, accountable, and democratic system of government. It should not be assumed, however, that market-oriented reforms cannot be used to enhance public services in underdeveloped nations. In order to bring out the best in public service providers, there is actually a need to start implementing reforms in the fundamental social, political, and economic activities. This will lay the groundwork for reforms that will reduce the role of the State, recover costs from users, and open up public service providers to market forces.

According to former British Prime Minister Tony Blair, globalization is here to stay and is both inevitable and irreversible. Currently, it can be seen that new managerial approaches created and spread by corporations, such as reinventing, reengineering, structural modifying, etc., are gaining popularity on a global scale. At the same time, citizens who want involvement, openness, effectiveness, social fairness, and democratization are creating counter pressure. It is believed that only a select few have benefited from globalization, while the majority particularly in developing nations continues to suffer in poverty that is only becoming worse. This is mostly caused by the growing influence that multinational financial institutions have over these nations' economic and social policies. As a result, anti-globalization demonstrations have repeatedly taken place around the globe to express concern for the dwindling standards of democracy.

Globalization will not only succeed in promoting development, but will also create poverty and instability if it is conducted in the same manner as it has in the past and if we continue to fail to learn from our mistakes. A three-day Congress of international political figures adopted a Declaration calling for Reshaping globalization, which favors rich countries and corporations to the detriment of the planet's poor. The declaration denounced efforts to weaken all forms of global governance in order to: minimize the United Nations' role; undermine multilateral institutions; promote unilateralism and the consecration of the market; and impose the desire of the powerful to determine the course of human history. The developed world is mostly of the opinion that for the sake of shared interests, globalization must be a proactive, organized, and cooperative process. It is widely believed that the idea of development needs to evolve through the implementation of adjustments to institutions and policies. The World Bank, IMF, and WTO have resumed their emphasis on reducing poverty, equity, participation, human rights, and collaboration to supplement the Neo-liberal approach, which accorded primacy to market forces. The Pragmatic Neo-liberal Development Model is the name of this new style.

## CONCLUSION

Although the process of globalization is truly irreversible, we must battle the false belief that there is no other way to live. There is no question that globalization has aided in the creation of multinational corporations, foreign exchange flows, export growth, and technological breakthroughs. Around the world, efforts have been made to develop a unified strategy for promoting service principles and delivery methods. In both affluent and emerging nations, the distinctiveness of culture and environment is likely to yield a range of outcomes. Especially in poorer nations, this has negative effects.

However, reversing the imbalances, isolation, and injustice it has brought about and improving the environment are the most crucial things we need to consider. Through social cohesion and cooperation, which neither the State nor the market can offer alone, globalization's instability and insecurity can be reversed. This opens the door for hybrid organizations, which are neither markets nor governments. The State versus Market argument is therefore no longer relevant. Development cannot be guaranteed by either a liberal state or an interventionist state. The traditional public administration has changed as a result of the inclusion of three crucial elements in governance: the State, Market, and Civil Society. The necessity of the three working together has been emphasized repeatedly since the late 1990s. The importance of all three sectors in the management of public affairs has been noted with a demand for balance in contacts between the government and the market, legitimacy in interactions with the public, and partnerships between the government and civil society organisations.

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## CHAPTER 10

### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION RESEARCH IN INDIA: ISSUES AND PROSPECTS

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#### ABSTRACT:

The traditional Weberian style of public administration, which was based on western philosophies, has undergone a drastic transformation into the neo-liberal model, which is based on the universal theory supported by the World Bank. The discipline, which is specifically context-driven and dependent on the society in which it is applied, is not adequately represented by any of these models. Before India's independence, this field of study was briefly launched in a few universities as a subset of political science in India. But after Independence, Appleby was the one who formalized it as a separate discipline at a number of universities. When it was added as a required subject to the curriculum of the Indian Civil Service Examination administered by the Union Public Service Commission, the discipline received a significant boost. But because of the narrow area of research and overemphasis on its technical element, it was unable to draw in the brightest minds. This discipline's intrinsic weakness as a goal-driven endeavor without identifying its socio-economic and political perspective is highlighted by a research survey on the subject. In order to eradicate administrative corruption and promote the spirit of ethics in administration, the recommendations of the Administrative Reforms Commissions resulted in the creation of many bodies and the passing of specific legislation. Therefore, in order for public administration to continue to exist as a practical discipline in the face of the constantly shifting global environment, it is fundamentally necessary to protect its methodological diversity, context-specific approach, and public character.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative Reforms, Empirical Study, Local Self-Government, Public Administration Research, Union Public Service Commission.

#### INTRODUCTION

Public administration (PA) is a specialized field of study that cannot be applicable to all societies. Our reliance on Western forms of governance is one of the key causes of the dearth of independent research in this area. This has made it more difficult for us to understand about the unique societal administration structures seen in non-Western nations. Many Indian universities' public administration curricula express attention in this area. A group of academics has taken up the context of the development and character of this subject in post-independent India and is attempting to re-conceptualize the subject by adding the peculiarities of without totally rejecting the Western philosophical traditions, our civilization. The basic idea is that this area of study does not lend itself to generalization.



The World Bank's recent adoption of the concept of governance has recently overtaken Woodrow Wilson's 1887 push for the public side of administration. It is important to realize that this subject pertains to helping the people through public governance rather than only being goal-driven and theoretical. The World Bank standards' theoretical restriction on the study thus appears to be a key source of concern for current research. Universities take into consideration the ongoing argument between the conventional publicness of the subject and the governance discourse when constructing their course curricula [1]–[3].

### **Justifications for the study**

The main defense of PA is that it depends on the particular situation and that its goal cannot be understood by neglecting the public aspect of administration. The supporting thesis is that, with the advent and construction of a globally networked society, scientific study is lacking in this area because PA is an applied science that incorporates the role of politics. Since academicians are more engaged in other fields of the social sciences, PA is an isolated subject in India. The particular nature of public governance in India, with its pervasive institutional, political, economic, and social environment, as well as the colonial influence, is the main cause of the lack of interest in the topic.

### **Research techniques**

The subject has some methodological issues that make it challenging to understand. The most significant factor is the Indian context's uncritical copying of Western thought, which tends to intellectually constrain it and causes people to neglect the concerns influencing administration. However, from the 1970s, when a number of academics challenged the Western method of derived knowledge and placed an emphasis on developing models based on the prevailing socio-economic conditions, we start to detect some shifts. This had a tremendous impact on how we approached the topic as a natural truth based on actual evidence.

The search to rethink some of the analytical tools used to study the subject has already started. This led to the realization that PA is a crucial component of governance and that the researcher must necessarily have a background in more than one field because it involves such intricate social, economic, and political processes. The analysts conducted empirical research based on the interdependence of the areas of concern, according to a study of the 1970s' literature. They realized that it required rigorous discipline rather than just concentrating on bureaucracy. The greater societal context that influences bureaucracy's actual existence in practice must be understood.

The continuous effort revealed the subject's shortcomings and compelled us to reconsider how it is taught at universities. The notions drawn from Western sources and the predicted limitations of descriptive investigations combined to produce a warped version of PA that lacked the empirical basis of real-world application. The first Minnowbrook Conference (1968), which shed light on the issue, had the following results: He and the new set of academicians were in favor of incorporating techniques and elements from several social scientific disciplines to comprehend PA, which was continually changing names for obvious reasons.



The PA started out in silence because there weren't many academic fraternity members interested in it and it was viewed as an integral part of political science. The desire to comprehend the administrative issue and offer a potential resolution conflicts with the official intervention. The two groups have a startling communication gap and don't appear to understand the importance of exchanging ideas, theories, methodologies, and case studies. Government data continue to be a crucial source for developing concepts and secondary data to support research [4], [5].

### **The start of the trip**

Up until 1937, Indian universities did not acknowledge PA as a distinct field of study, but in that same year, the University of Madras introduced a diploma program in PA. Allahabad University (AU) then introduced a course on self-government in 1938. In less than four years, the universities of Lucknow (LU), Patna (PU), Osmania (OU), and Aligarh Muslim (AMU) began to provide a diploma in PA. In 1949, Nagpur University (NU) established a full-fledged department of PA, breaking the deadlock once and for all. Paul Appleby established the Indian Institute of Public Administration in Delhi in 1954, which is presently in charge of educating IAS officers of various seniorities. In 1956, Paul Appleby established separate PA departments at the universities in Chandigarh and Jaipur. The subject gained popularity in universities across the nation after it was made mandatory in 1987 as part of the curriculum for the All India Civil Service Examination administered by the UPSC.

Paul Appleby was a proponent of the Weberian model who thought that government action is necessary for socioeconomic reconstruction and that the bureaucracy is solely accountable for achieving goals. This, however, has the effect of ignoring the broader social science perspectives to address the administrative problems. The PA has changed as a result, as evidenced by the hiring of individuals from general streams to improve administration effectiveness. This has a tendency to change the topic to suit the needs of the consumer while ignoring the larger societal context in which the administration is rooted. This is self-defeating because it will divert our focus away from the larger socio-economic and political paradigm, make the topic more technical and constrained, and may ultimately deprive it of its core. Numerous colleges offer the course to help students get ready for job-competitive exams, which is counterproductive in and of itself because it has been reduced to little more than a drill and will undoubtedly lose its uniqueness as a distinct entity.

## **DISCUSSION**

The research of this topic has a number of murky areas. The lack of a focused area of study and the fact that it never developed into a useful tool to assess India's administrative situation after independence have both contributed to the subject's continued intellectual crippling. As a tool for analysis, it was ineffective because it was unable to adequately account for the state's actual conduct, the administrative context in which it actually operates, the constitutional framework and the nature of government, the political system, and the social structure. Because of this, it was unable to understand the nature of PA in post-independent India and failed to become natural and grounded in character.

It prevents examination of the connections between theory and context, robbing the subject of its vitality and variety. In spite of these drawbacks, PA research is still popular in India. According to a study carried out in India in 2005–2006, the subject failed to overcome its intrinsic disadvantage of being unable to convincingly fix its flaws. First off, as long as it persists, it will never be able to overcome the cultural bias of American and European models and become the preeminent explanatory field of study.

Second, the discipline's dynamism has been stripped away by attempts to turn the subject into an instrumental and goal-oriented exercise, which has reduced it to developing particular skills to address identified problems without giving any weight to their socio-economic or political underpinnings. Finally, the aforementioned factors have contributed to the emergence of a highly compromised subject that is unable to independently address the current administrative shortcomings nor does it have the power to do so. As a result, there is a lack of clarity in the subject's development and personality, making it difficult for it to emerge as a separate object of social science investigation.

The survey also highlights the fact that this subject has struggled to draw the greatest minds in the nation since it is less desirable as a topic of study because of the aforementioned factors. However, academics from a variety of different professions, including historians, sociologists, political scientists, and even administrators, have been drawn to this field. These researchers have made important contributions to understanding the complex and varied structure of India's public administration [6]–[8]. These publications are incredibly helpful for research on the dynamic nature of India's bureaucratic model and areas like rural and urban local self-government.

### **Attempts to bring the discipline back**

In certain Indian colleges, efforts have been made to rethink the field ever since the 1980s. It was believed that only having a theoretical understanding of the subject was insufficient and that, in order to be successful, one must also be aware of the current socioeconomic environment. It may be emphasized once more that this discipline is a process-driven effort for comprehending and substantively addressing those societal issues whose roots are intertwined with administrative functioning. The PA as a subject comprises novel concepts that have been tested in various settings and contexts by academics and researchers.

Due to this discipline's practical focus, several colleges have made field excursions for students to government buildings and other administrative locations a requirement for instruction in this subject. In this sense, it's crucial to note that governance is not just about ruling; rather, it encompasses the entire range of actions aimed at implementing the neo-liberal paradigm of governance worldwide. As a result, the discipline is constantly evolving from its inward nature to meet the demands of focusing on the ongoing process of globalization and its effects on national governance. The goal is to change a complicated, solitary, and powerful bureaucracy into one that is pro-people and conscious of the demands of the clients.

### **Enhancements to the governance**

Two Administrative Reforms Commissions were appointed by the Indian Government in 1966 and 2005, respectively, and their proposals had a significant influence on the administration. Contrary to the Weberian Model, which envisions a rigidly hierarchical and essentially status quo setup, it stressed the role of civil society organizations and recognized the need for reciprocal cooperation between the bureaucracy and those organizations. These initiatives widened the scope of Indian bureaucracy by attempting to include non-State actors in its operation. The World Bank has recommended reducing government regulation, fostering a market economy, and empowering civil society to play a more active role in society. This is a source of worry for developing countries that are already dealing with delicate concerns including ethical issues in governance and social and political obstacles. The Indian Government implemented a number of measures to eliminate administrative corruption in response to the Santhanam Committee's recommendations in 1964, and several new institutions, including the Central Bureau of Investigation, Comptroller and Auditor General of India, and the Central Vigilance Commission, were established. By granting public access to government information, the Right to Information Act of 2005 also aims to develop ethics in governance (2nd ARC Report, 2007). The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Acts were ground-breaking legislation for rural and urban local self-government since the former established a one-third seat reservation for women in Panchayati Raj Institutions.

### **Difficulties the field is facing**

The publications on PA in India as a distinct field pinpoint the sources of both the benefits and risks for the researchers engaged in the pedagogical activity, particularly in the Indian institutions. There is zero support for ongoing research in this area of study to advance the profession, and even the University Grants Commission (UGC) is less helpful in this regard than its Bangladeshi counterpart. Some of the top Indian universities, like Calcutta University (CU), American University (AU), Delhi University (DU), and Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), do not have a full-fledged department of PA and nonetheless teach it as part of the Political Science curriculum. This is a significant disadvantage for this discipline and inhibits its development as a distinct entity. However, it is promising that the Government of India has made a sustained effort to comprehend this field and is always developing new approaches to take into account the diverse conditions and improve administration.

In comparison to the private services that consumers purchase on the open market, public services are distinctive in many ways. Market competition guarantees that private services are delivered effectively. Private Service providers and service recipients have an easy-to-understand relationship, and there are typically just two parties involved. The customer receives the service, evaluates its value, and determines if the fee was appropriately charged. The client has the option to cancel the transaction if the same is not acceptable. Public services cannot provide such easy enforcement and direct responsibility when the service level does not satisfy the client's expectations. Additionally, clients do not directly pay for services related to all free public goods or pay at a significantly reduced rate such as PDS, tuition at government colleges, receiving other subsidized goods from the public sector.

The government may not pay for the services being offered, despite the fact that they are often more expensive to produce and provide. There is a general trend toward using private partnerships to cut costs associated with service delivery. Since customers do not directly pay for services, they are unable to assess whether the price the government is paying for the service is reasonable.

In the case of a private service, breaking up a connection results in the service provider losing revenue and income, thus he is motivated to please the client by maintaining the quality of services. In the public sector, compensation or the desire for financial gain is unrelated to the degree of customer pleasure. Instead, there's a chance that looking for a place to rent could result in more revenue without reducing monthly pay. Client complaints may often be addressed by a thorough process of accountability. The processes required knowing what services were expected to be provided, what was actually provided, the causes of failure, and taking fast action at every level of the accountability chain, which necessitated fulfilling numerous other requirements, making the accountability mechanism complex and mostly useless.

The various types of services that are provided have different characteristics that affect how well the accountability system works and how well the quality of those services is ensured[9], [10]. Some of the services may primarily involve the delivery of commodities that may be readily standardized, allowing the customer to make decisions and voice complaints with ease such as food grains brought to a ration shop or the delivery of school uniforms, among other things. However, such an endeavor is useless in the absence of an effective grievance redress procedure.

## CONCLUSION

It is difficult to address PA's fundamental flaw as a topic. However, its strategic implementation in daily governance offers solutions that rely on particular activities being taken in response to a specific situation and simple to put into action. Methodological jargon must be discarded, and the discipline must value inter-disciplinary theories, in order to make the subject more appealing. The advent of liberalization, privatization, and globalization as well as the dissolution of the communist regimes in the former USSR have forced administration to undergo necessary changes that are context-specific but not always conventional.

Because of the consequent methodological diversity, altered administrative realities, and rise of global governance, the field has become stronger. The neo-liberalist tendency to prescribe a universal design harms the discipline's public element and is one of its many potential pitfalls. To sum up, the main task is to rediscover the discipline by highlighting its people-centric face, and it is the responsibility of academicians and researchers to develop various teaching methods in order to disseminate knowledge about this discipline in various learning centers, which will determine the discipline's future.

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## CHAPTER 11

### REVERSAL OF PUBLIC COMPLAINTS: UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE OF DEMOCRACY

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#### ABSTRACT:

In a democracy, the people elect their representatives and hold them responsible. The bureaucracy that runs the government values following the law more than assisting the populace. Additionally, departments like those in charge of the delivery of electricity and water, the railroads, and telephones, among others, tend to exert their own authority. Numerous complaints are made by citizens about government operations. If citizens' complaints about the government apparatus are not heard and addressed, they will likely start to lose faith in it. As a result, democracy establishes the necessary mechanisms for resolving public complaints. In today's society, the state is crucial to the growth of the socioeconomic system. The effectiveness of the government apparatus has a bigger impact on democracy and development success. However, there is always a chance for mistakes while using administrative authority. As a result, the administration is the target of public complaints. A grievance is a ground of complaint, a condition felt to be oppressive or wrongful, according to Chambers dictionary. People should have the chance to air their complaints and a means of remedy in a democracy. The nature of public grievances and the institutional frameworks for their redress will be covered in this Chapter.

#### KEYWORDS:

Corruption, Ombudsman, Public Complaints, Redressal, Right To Information.

#### INTRODUCTION

In a developing nation like ours, the government must carry out a variety of duties. The services offered by various government entities are relied upon by the populace. A citizen needs a government-issued ration card to purchase rice, wheat, and sugar from a ration shop. Although getting a ration card is not very challenging, the level of service is far from good. Citizens depend on the services and resources offered by governmental organizations for the majority of things in life. It is a typical occurrence for citizens to have issues when working with government organizations. There are too many laws and regulations, which causes needless delay. Buses and trains might not arrive on schedule. The police, hospitals, and banks frequently don't cooperate. Government departments and agencies' delays, harassment, and unhelpful demeanor damage the public's perception of the government. At the same time, it must be acknowledged that government must carry out a variety of tasks for the benefit of the general populace. People are unhappy and dissatisfied because of the challenges they encounter when trying to access services. The impoverished suffer the most.



They are the ones that frequently face harassment and rejection even though they desperately need government assistance and services. Clearly, this is detrimental to a functioning democracy. The average person expects governmental administration that is understanding, respectful, and helpful. Corrective action must be made to address public complaints when there are too many against government agencies[1]–[3]. The Indian government established the Administrative Reforms Commission in 1966. The panel stated the following regarding the Problems of Redress of Citizens' Grievances: When the Citizen can show the Genuineness of His Case, It Is Plainly The Duty Of The State To Set Right The Wrong Done To Him. In a democratic form of governance, a grievance resolution mechanism must be available. It must be a body in which the common man will have faith and confidence and through which he can obtain prompt and affordable justice.

### **Method for Redressal of Grievances**

Rules and processes have been suggested to be simplified in order to combat administrative corruption and address citizens' complaints. In addition to these, brand-new institutions have been proposed and established in other nations. The Ombudsman institution, which was developed to address public complaints, is usually Scandinavian. Sweden and Finland both have ombudsman offices, with the latter having one since 1919. The technique was first used in Denmark in 1955. In 1962, it was adopted by Norway and New Zealand, and in 1967, the United Kingdom appointed the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration. Since then, the Ombudsman-like institution has been implemented by several nations worldwide.

The Swedish word ombudsman refers to a representative chosen by the legislature to handle grievances on administrative and judicial actions. The ombudsman conducts investigations as an unbiased investigator, gathers the information impartially, and provides the legislature with a report. The ombudsman must only receive a written appeal from the complaint against an administrative decision. The ombudsman system has gained popularity due to how easy and quick it is to utilize. The process of handling appeals against administrative rulings is inexpensive. The 1986 Consumer Protection Act provides protection for those who discover that goods and services are subpar. Our country's Parliament has passed the Right to Information Act (RTI), which enables citizens to find out what has transpired in relation to their complaints.

The government established mechanisms for redress of public grievances in every Ministry/Department by setting time for public grievance disposal in order to increase the efficiency of public service delivery. Additionally implemented is a computerized online public grievance redress and monitoring system (PGRAMS). One of the key tools in the process of responding to public complaints is an impartial body to oversee the activities of redress of public grievances. Everyone who interacts with government is affected by corruption's pervasiveness. Administration is impacted negatively by corruption in several ways. It is one of the main causes of administration delays and inefficiency. This has an adverse effect on the impartiality standards in the workplace. The impoverished man suffers the most as a result of the administration's lack of credibility[4], [5].



### **Resolution of Public Complaints**

Administrative and political corruption are no longer surprising; they are a common occurrence in India. Notes. The term corruption often refers to the abuse of public power or position for one's own benefit. Our Ancient statecraft text Kautilya's Arthashastra wrote on corruption that corruption can exist only if there is someone willing to corrupt and capable of corrupting. It was difficult to spot corruption, just as it was impossible to tell whether a fish flowing through water was drinking it or not. Similarly, it was difficult to determine whether the government employee in charge of handling public business was embezzling money. Because he believed that person to be a victim of corruption, he did not suggest any punishment for the bribe giver. Instead, he prescribed exceptionally harsh penalties for corrupt authorities. He promoted making up for the lost bribe with compensation. Public utilities, infrastructure, tax and customs administration, as well as the police, are some of the areas most impacted by corruption. Various assessments have named the latter as one of the most corrupt institutions. The Central Vigilance Commission, the Office of the Comptroller and Auditor General, and other organizations have been put in place by the government within a sound legal and institutional framework. In recent years, the Supreme Court in particular has made several significant judgements and taken a strong stand against corruption. The passage of the Right to Information (RTI) Act in 2005, which provides citizens with access to government information and a means to regulate public spending, is another victory in the war against corruption. Despite advancements, however, law enforcement is still underdeveloped, and improvements still need to be made.

### **Instrumentation from India**

Numerous committees and commissions in India have noted that specialized machinery should be established to handle public complaints against the government. There are numerous institutions available to address public complaints. For instance, a citizen may petition the court to seek redress for any wrongdoing committed against him by a public employee or by a public agency while performing official duties. This is known as judicial remedy. A variety of administrative tribunals have been established to offer the plaintiff affordable and prompt justice. These institutions include the Labor Tribunals, the Income Tax Appellate Tribunal, etc.

1. Government departments and agencies' inefficiency, hostility, and unhelpful demeanor damage the public's perception of the government.
2. Sweden and Finland each have ombudsman offices, which have existed since 1919.
3. Corruption has a lot of detrimental repercussions on governance.
4. The Central Vigilance Commissioner, who is selected by the President of India for a seven-year term, is in charge of the CVC.
5. In India, Citizen's Charters were first adopted in 1990.

### **India's public administration and policy**

The legislative process gives elected officials the chance to ask questions about their constituents in front of the legislature. The Committee on Petitions is a Parliamentary Committee as well. A citizen has the right to file petitions to seek justice for an injustice. Therefore, even though they are far away, Parliament or a State Legislature can support a citizen who feels wronged. Thirdly,

departmental as well as public agencies may initiate proceedings against a public servant for his wrongdoing under the terms of the Public Servants (Enquiries) Act. This Act covers more serious cases of administrative misconduct rather than routine business[6]–[8]. Fourthly, various levels of complaint forums have been established to address public issues. There are complaint boxes, for instance, in a bus or a train station where the general public can lodge complaints. Consumer forums are now open to handle grievances against any provider of goods and services, including telephone services.

There are complaint cells to handle public concerns within significant public organizations like Railways and Telecommunications, etc. The Department of Administrative Reforms and Public Grievances was also established by the government. This organization serves as the government's focal point for both administrative reform and the settlement of public grievances. The Administrative Tribunal Act, which was passed in 1985, began a new era in the administration of justice for wronged government employees and, in some circumstances, ordinary citizens.

### **Central vigilance Commission**

Following independence, a number of initiatives were launched to combat corruption in the public sector. Under the leadership of Shri K. Santhanam, the Central Government established a Committee on Prevention of Corruption in 1962 with the mission of reviewing the systems in place for combating corruption and making recommendations for improving their efficacy. The creation of a Central Vigilance Commission led by a Central Vigilance Commissioner was advised by the Santhanam Committee in 1964. The Committee's recommendations led to the creation of the Central Vigilance Commission in 1964. The Central Vigilance Commissioner, who is appointed by the Indian President for a term of six years or until he turns 65, whichever comes first, is in charge of the CVC.

The Ministry of Home Affairs, which has an autonomous status, is where the Commission's office is located. There is a Secretary, an Officer on Special Duty, a Chief Technical Commissioner, three Commissioners for departmental inquiries, two Under Secretaries, and six Technical Commissioners in addition to the Commissioner. All central government personnel as well as those working for public agencies, corporations, and other organizations that deal with issues related to the central government's executive functions are subject to its jurisdiction. It cannot, however, look into allegations of corruption against ministers and lawmakers. The Commission's function is advisory in nature. The Ministry of Personnel is in charge of overseeing it. Its authority and jurisdiction encompass all issues that are under the ambit of the Central government's executive authorities.

## **DISCUSSION**

In India, the Ombudsman appointed at the state level is known as a Lokayukta. Several state governments have set up the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta offices. Maharashtra (1971), Bihar (1973), Uttar Pradesh (1975), Madhya Pradesh (1981), Andhra Pradesh (1985), Himachal Pradesh (1985), Karnataka (1985), Assam (1986), Gujarat (1986), Punjab (1995), Delhi (1996), and Haryana (1996) are among the states that have established the Lokayukta office.

This office is now being established in Kerala as well. The first state to enact ombudsman law in 1970 was Orissa, which was also the first to abolish the office in 1993. The Governor, who serves as the state's executive head, appoints the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta. According to the Lokayukta Acts, the Chief Justice of the state's High Court and the head of the opposition in the legislative assembly must be consulted before the Governor appoints a Lokayukta/Up-Lokayukta.

### **Requirements for Employment**

The Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta have a fixed five-year term. The Assam Act, however, sets a 68-year-old maximum age restriction. The Lokayukta is given the same standing as the Chief Justice of a High Court, a judge of the Supreme Court of India, the Up-Lokayukta, a judge of a High Court, and in any other circumstance, an additional secretary to the Government of India. The Lokayukta/Up-Lokayukta are forbidden from maintaining any ties to political parties and are restricted from serving as members of parliament or state legislatures in order to safeguard their independence and impartiality. They are no longer permitted to hold other state government positions after resigning from their current ones. All laws specifically forbid the Lokayuktas' reappointment. The Governor has the authority to dismiss the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta from their positions due to misconduct or incapacity. The process outlined for the removal of the Lokayukta is nearly identical to that outlined in the Indian Constitution for judges of the High Court or Supreme Court.

### **Authority**

The Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta are empowered to look into any action that is taken by, or with the general or particular permission of, a minister, a secretary, or any other public employee. The Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta therefore review all administrative decisions from the level of ministers to the lowest levels. The chairman of Zila Parishad and other local bodies have been added to the list of officials who fall under the Lokayukta's jurisdiction.

### **Investigational Process**

He sends a copy of the complaint to the officer and the relevant competent authority after conducting a preliminary investigation in the area where the Lokayukta or Up-Lokayukta intends to undertake an investigation. Any hearing before the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta must be held in private, and at no point throughout the investigation is the identity of the complainant or the subject of the complaint to be made public.

### **Right to Information**

The Freedom of Information Act of 2002 has been replaced by the Right to Information (RTI) Act, a law passed by the Indian Parliament that lays out the practical framework for citizens' access to information. A public authority (a body of government or instrumentality of state) is required by the Act to respond promptly or within thirty days to any information request made by a citizen of India. The Act also mandates that all public authorities computerize their records for widespread distribution and proactively collect specific kinds of information so that individuals have the fewest options when making official requests for information.

RTI is a potent tool that boosts citizen participation in the process, which fosters democracy and encourages good governance. The Right to Information Act's main goals are to empower citizens, encourage accountability and openness in government operations, and truly make democracy work for the people. It aids in increasing citizen accountability for the government. Any Indian citizen may take part in governance by using the RTI Act to access information regarding operations of the federal and state governments. In a nation like India, where government representatives are slow to react to inquiries, it is undoubtedly helpful. Information seekers are frequently sent from table to table at work until they connect with the right individual. Receiving a written, genuine response to a requester is made simpler and more effective through RTI within a predetermined time frame[9], [10]. Citizens now have the legal right to access information stored by their government and learn about how it operates thanks to RTI. RTI gives the right to know the justification for any decision made by the government. The RTI has been widely used over the past six years by regular persons to request information from the government. RTI is a weapon for the anti-corruption movement. RTI gives the Indian people the ability to fight administrative corruption, indifference, and anomalies. In order to ensure that choices are made in the public interest, every Indian citizen has the right to inquire about, evaluate, audit, rate, and examine actions conducted by the government. Even so, it is possible to uncover the corruption and make those authorities who aren't performing their obligations accountable. The RTI has been viewed as a component in the fight against corruption, especially in India. People can inquire about projects and plans and check for any misappropriation.

The administrative structure in India is being devoured by corruption, which is causing a number of social, political, and economic ills. It is a reality that corruption is a crime that is committed with the cover of government and administration. However, this Act inadvertently acted as a barrier to such a dishonest barter system. Transparency and accountability, the two most crucial instruments for fighting the evil that impedes good governance, are combined by the RTI Act. The Act envisions balancing the right to information with the public interest. The public interest does, however, sometimes call for a degree of secrecy. According to the precise provisions envisioned by the RTI Act, several areas of governance that were believed to need to be kept out of the scope of the Act were exempted. As a result, a peaceful balance between the two has been tried. RTI has evolved into a tool for advancing democratic governance, encouraging participatory development, and improving the efficient provision of socioeconomic services. In the knowledge society in which we currently reside, the gathering of information and the application of new knowledge have a profound and pervasive influence on the processes of making informed decisions, leading to increases in overall productivity. Therefore, the Act's main goal is to encourage accountability, openness, and transparency in government.

### CONCLUSION

There are a few basic guidelines that might need to be followed. These include providing connection and digital identification to everyone, making services available to the public in a faceless, paperless, and cashless manner, directing benefits through Aadhaar-enabled Direct Benefits Transfer, streamlining forms and procedures, and offering e-platforms. In its report on good governance, the Group of Secretaries noted the need for service delivery officers' capacity

building, knowledge upkeep, process streamlining, proper monitoring, and a shift in government employees' attitudes toward more transparent and accountable governance. The general public must be made aware of their rights under the Right to Service Act. ICT use has advanced significantly across the board in government. Over 30 billion transactions encompassing more than 3500 services were carried out under eTaal, a web platform that disseminates electronic transactions of e-governance projects, in the year 2017. Initiatives like Jaago Grahak Jaago must become staples in order to achieve the goal of broad dissemination and public citizens' understanding of their rights and opportunities for redress. Additionally, all consumer data should be automated and networked under the plan to facilitate online information dissemination and ensure quicker case resolution.

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## CHAPTER 12

### IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL WELFARE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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#### ABSTRACT:

The process of promoting the creation of appropriate social policies, their transformation into objectives and targets, and the facilitation of administrative structures toward the implementation of action plans with built-in mechanisms for evaluation and assessment of the intervention on significant public to support policy revision is known as social welfare administration. The amount of welfare services offered by an ever-increasing number of organizations makes administration extremely crucial in the context of today's social concerns. The complexity of social welfare services, plans, projects, and programs is rising. A sound administration is essential since it is no longer believed that any normally educated individual with decent intentions can manage the welfare job. It is becoming increasingly clear that in order for social welfare programs to work effectively, social welfare personnel must be qualified and trained. Therefore, it is suggested that professionalization is vital for providing efficient public service since it can improve social welfare workers' capacity to address the most serious social issues facing our society.

#### KEYWORDS:

Community Security, Public Administration, Social Service, Social Welfare, Social Work.

#### INTRODUCTION

The government develops social policies and programs, implements social legislation in accordance therewith, allots financial aid, and offers organizational and administrative connections in the form of ministries and departments to further the goals and objectives of social welfare. Additionally, it looks to non-governmental organizations for cooperation in putting various social welfare programs into action. All of these activities that are managed within the context of social services and social welfare are regarded as falling under the purview of social welfare administration.

In the words of Richard M. Titmus, Social administration may broadly be defined as the study of social services whose object is the improvement of individual conditions of life in the context of family and group relations, social administration was first mentioned in 1948. Social administration is described by D.V. Donnison in 1961 as the study of development, structure, and practices of social services. Social administration is concerned with study of the welfare system, and particularly the government sponsored social services, claims Forder. As a result, social administration is focused with researching the welfare system and social programs supported by the government[1]–[3].



## Management of Social welfare

The twin notions of social welfare and administration are ingrained in social welfare administration. Therefore, it necessitates knowledge of welfare, its history, and administration as a means of achieving welfare. Social policy is translated into social services through the social welfare administration process. It entails managing both governmental and private organizations. The meaning of social welfare administration is further explained in the following definitions. Social Welfare Administration is the process of transferring the social policy into social services and the use of experience in evaluating and modifying policy, claims John C. Kidneigh. Social Welfare Administration is, in the words of H. Trecker, a process of working with people in ways that release and relate their energies so that they use all available resources to accomplish the purpose of providing needed community services and programs. Administration, according to Arthur Dunham in 1962, is the process of supporting or facilitating activities which are necessary and incidental to the giving of direct service by a social agency. The definition of function, policies, and executive leadership are among the administrative duties, as are routine tasks like maintaining records and accounts and providing maintenance services. The administration of social agencies translates the provisions of social legislation of social agencies and the goals of private philanthropy and religious charities into the dynamics of services and benefits for humanity.

In the modern world, welfare is a planned and organized activity, and the state and government have a bigger role to play in this area. Social Welfare Administration is the term we use to describe the planning, organizing, and carrying out of welfare activities. According to John C. Kidneigh, the process of implementing social policy into services and use experience to assess and change policy is known as social welfare administration. The administration of social welfare is a continuous process with distinct stages. The first step is to plan. At this stage, the specific objectives that serve as the foundation for the formulation of broad policies as well as the methods by which they will be accomplished, are specified. Following the planning phase, the personnel is Public Policy and Administration in India organized by giving them tasks and responsibilities. These plans come to life in notes. The right personnel must be chosen, trained, and appreciated for their job. They also need to be appropriately led in order to complete the task at hand. Administration of social welfare is a team effort.

Since no single person can complete this process alone, coordination is required between the activities of all parties involved at various stages. Since finances seem to be the key to achieving these goals, the entire activity needs to be budgeted. Finally, a report on the entire procedure is required. Reports provide feedback, aid in gauging its level of success, and point out any restrictions, allowing for the required adjustments to be made to the programs and regulations. Organization of welfare services in the public and private sectors is included in social welfare administration [4], [5]. Identification of their root causes, implementation of social legislation that works, and prevention and treatment strategies. Social services improve the effectiveness of other public services such as housing, education, and health care for the benefit of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged members of society. To develop and administer a social insurance and support program that is effective.



Through social insurance and social assistance, it seeks to make up for lost income due to unemployment, disability, or death brought on by accidents or old age. To create social policies that are effective in promoting the welfare of socially disadvantaged groups and advancing welfare state objectives through volunteerism. Improving social functioning while assisting people in resolving their individual, familial, and societal issues.

### **Social Assistance**

Social services are those that are provided to the general public and aim to address their basic needs, such as housing, health care, and education. Their goal is to improve the nation's human resources. Serving the less fortunate is social service. It is service provided to anyone out of a desire to help and the satisfaction that comes from doing so. Thus, the word social service refers to assistance provided by a volunteer to an individual or group in need or to improve the welfare of an individual or the community through individual or group efforts.

Social work training or professional method proficiency are not prerequisites for providing social services. Social services are those that are offered on a large scale to the underprivileged population in India in order to address their fundamental requirements. These services include things like housing, health care, and education. Some instances of social work include giving out drinking water in the summer, assisting the blind in crossing the street, saving individuals from a burning house, donating blood, etc.

### **Services for Social Welfare**

Social welfare services are created for the most vulnerable members of society or for a specific population. Social welfare services are also enabling services that are given to the less powerful members of the community to assist them in integrating into society.

### **Community Security**

The International Labor Organization (ILO) defines social security as the protection society offers its members against certain dangers through suitable organizations. These dangers are essentially emergencies that a person with limited resources is unable to adequately protect themselves from on their own, even while working together privately.

1. In August 1955, the Indian government established a novel administrative framework that included a self-governing board called the CSWB.
2. The primary requirement of every scientific investigation is the critical evaluation and study of the facts.
3. To achieve the goals of the agency, processes and programs must be continuously evaluated.
4. As of April 1, 1980, the State Government has taken over management of the Family and Child Welfare Project.
5. Staffing is a crucial administrative task that is largely concerned with directions, criticism, and clarification.

Social security is the protection that society offers its members against the infringement of certain rights by offering the necessary services. These risks are essentially unforeseen occurrences in life that people with limited resources cannot properly prepare for on their own, even with assistance from other people. These unforeseen circumstances are characterized by the threat they pose to the working man's ability to provide for himself and his dependents in a healthy and decent manner. Social security's mission is accomplished by programs including social insurance, social assistance, health care, and social welfare, among others. Social welfare as a whole encompasses social security[6]–[8].

Therefore, social security is an effort on the part of the state, the employer, or any other related agency to provide a person with the maximum amount of assistance during times of physical distress, illness, or injury, as well as at times of economic distress brought on by a reduction or loss of earning due to sickness, disablement, maternity, unemployment, old age, or the death of the employee. To help those impacted by unforeseen events including industrial accidents, maternity, and illness, the Indian State has passed a number of laws. Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923, Maternity Benefits Act of 1961, Employee's State Insurance Act of 1948, Employee's Provident Fund and Miscellaneous Provision Act of 1952, Employee's Family Pension Scheme of 1971, Payment of Gratuity Act of 1972, and others are a few of these laws.

### **Social Service**

In order to aid individuals, groups, and communities in improving their social functioning so that it grows in accordance with their knowledge, capacities, and capabilities, social work is a method or process based on scientific knowledge and skill. Social work has therefore been utilized as a method to provide social welfare while social welfare has been used as an objective in itself.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **India's Social Welfare Administration's History**

Every community has practiced mutual aid. Since the beginning of time, there has been a desire to help one's fellow human beings, but the ways that support is provided varies from society to society depending on social, economic, and political circumstances. Based on *daya*, *dada*, *dakshina*, *bhiksha*, *samya-bhava*, *swadharma*, and *tyaga*, which are fundamentally self-control, self-sacrifice, and care for others, the ancient Indian view of social welfare. The upholding of these principles by individuals and groups within the community is essential for everyone's wellbeing. Every religion urged its followers to set aside a percentage of their earnings to be used for charitable causes, saying that doing so would bring them happiness in this life and salvation in the next. During crises like floods, earthquakes, fires, droughts, and other natural calamities, etc., the rulers of that era provided assistance to the affected segment of the populace.

From an administrative perspective, the eras of Ashoka, Harsh a, Chandra Gupta Maurya, Akbar, Sher Shah Suri, and Feroze Tughlak in India are remembered for their administrations that attended to the wants of the populace on a social level. The British government also built a system of administration with the primary goal of preserving law and order. By passing Acts in 1829 and 1856, respectively, that forbade Sati and permitted widow remarriage, certain social

reform efforts were undertaken. Following independence, the previous administrative structure was largely maintained while undergoing the required adjustments to fit the new social, political, and economic structure. In August 1953, as part of the First Five Year Plan, the Indian government established unique administrative apparatus in the form of the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB), an independent board. State-level Social Welfare Advisory Boards were created in a similar manner. The Board's (CSWB) primary goal has been to offer financial and technical support to nonprofit organizations engaged in the field of social welfare.

According to the history of administrative structure, various ministries, including those in charge of education, the home, industries, health, and labor, administered social welfare programs prior to 1964. In its 1960 report, the Renuka Ray Committee Public Policy and Administration in India Notes advocated the creation of the Department of Social Security. On June 14, 1964, a Social Security Department was founded and placed in the Ministry of Law during Lal Bahadur Shastri's tenure as prime minister. The Department of Social Security was given responsibility for the following areas: social security, social welfare, disadvantaged groups, khadi, and handicrafts. It was renamed the Social Welfare Department in 1966. It was housed in the Ministry of Social Welfare and Education, which was founded in 1971. In the year 1979, it was upgraded to a ministry. The Ministry of Social and Women Welfare was added to the name in 1984. It was reorganized and given the name Ministry of Welfare in 1985 after the Ministry of Human Resource Development established a separate Department of Women and Child Development. Later, it was given the name Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. As a result, the central government established a full-fledged ministry and organizations under its administrative control, including the National Commission for Scheduled Castes/Tribes, Minorities Commission, National Institute of Social Defense, National Institute for the Handicapped, Department of Women and Child Development, Central Social Welfare Board, and National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development.

Along with carrying out social welfare initiatives, schemes, and programs supported and partially or fully funded by the federal government, state governments and union territory administrations also develop and carry out independent welfare service programs in their respective regions. The Department of Social Welfare and nonprofit organizations are primarily responsible for carrying out the welfare commitments and programs of the state government and union territories administrations. Social welfare is now either a full-time position or one of a secretary's primary responsibilities in the majority of the states. As a result, social welfare programs continue to be distributed over multiple departments and directorates. Some of the programs, such as the supplemental nutrition programs, widow pensions, and old age pensions, have different implementation patterns from state to state. Despite the fact that district social welfare officers are already present in the majority of states, there is no equivalent position at the block level.

### **Development of Indian Social Welfare Administration**

Since ancient times, India had engaged in welfare efforts. Prior welfare policies were a result of the actions of particular monarchs, reformers, and religious organizations. The state played a very small part. Such a loose-knit, unpaid endeavor could afford to be without organization and administrative structure. Since gaining independence, the Indian government has developed a

particular interest in the area. Social welfare was transformed from an informal and voluntary procedure to a formal official system when the government became convinced of the necessity to strengthen administration and infrastructure in the implementation of welfare programs. This transition marked the beginning of welfare administration in the nation. Indian Council of Social Work must be the first topic of discussion when discussing the evolution of welfare administration in India. The development of welfare administration has been greatly aided by ICSW, which was also the first organization to advocate for the establishment of a Ministry of Social Welfare. Indian Conference of Social Work was the previous name for ICSW. Graduates of the Dr. Kumarappa-led Tata Institute of Social Sciences had started to feel that there was no organized All-India Forum of Social Welfare where professionals and volunteers could get together and formulate a single strategy after independence. An All India Organization was established in Bombay after a group of Madras-based nonprofit organizations led by the Guild of Service voiced a similar sentiment. A sizable team headed by Lady Nye traveled to Bombay where the first meeting was organized by Tata School of Social Sciences graduates. The topic of social welfare was discussed at the conference for the first time, in all its elements. It was an incredibly thrilling session from which the Indian Conference of Social Work was born[9], [10].

The first state branch of the Indian Conference of Social Work was established in Madras after the organization's historic founding. Later, a number of sessions were held in several states, and ICSW branches were also founded. As the ICSW's efforts gained traction, they were able to create and ensure the acceptance of an institutional framework for social welfare. For the first time, the ICSW addressed a brief to Mr. Nehru, the prime minister at the time, in 1953, pleading for the establishment of a Ministry of Social Welfare and a comparable structure at the state level. Numerous statutes have been created as a result of the ICSW's involvement on the legislative and legal fronts. They took a risky initiative on the program side as well. On the global stage, promising connections quickly developed. The inaugural International Conference on Social Work took place in Madras in 1952.

The ICSW kept broadening the range of its operations. ICSW can claim a portion of the credit for the accomplishment now that Ministries and Departments of Social Welfare have proliferated at the federal level and in the majority of states. A pivotal year in the development of India's Social Welfare Administration was 1964. In 1964, the Center established the Department of Social Welfare, which was later promoted to an autonomous Ministry of Welfare under the Central Government. Today's welfare in the nation is within the jurisdiction of this ministry. The Ministry of Education and Social Welfare included the Social Welfare Department when it was first established. This department was responsible for the welfare of children, women, families, handicapped people, displaced people, scheduled and backward classes, etc. It also provided social defense. The Ministries of Education, Health, and Home Affairs previously handled some of these duties. In the year 1979, the Department of Social Welfare was upgraded to a full-fledged ministry. The ministry's operations were managed by three Bureaus, each of which was led by a joint secretary. These included the Women's Development and Social Defense Bureau, the Social Security and Handicapped Welfare Bureau, and the Nutrition and Child Development Bureau. The Planning, Research, Evaluation, and Monitoring Division supported the ministry's efforts technically.

After the general election in December 1984, a new government was formed, and the Ministry of Social Welfare was renamed to the Ministry of Social and Women's Welfare. The former Ministry of Social and Women's Welfare was reorganized into the Ministry of Welfare and The Department of Women and Child Development in September 1986, along with numerous other ministries. The Ministry of Welfare was charged with overseeing the welfare of the scheduled castes and tribes, minorities, and other underprivileged groups, as well as the welfare of the disabled and social defense initiatives. Three divisions and two cells worked together to carry out the ministry's tasks. The Ministry of Human Resource Development, which reports to a Cabinet Minister, currently includes the Department of Women's Welfare. In 1990, this division was placed under the Ministry of Welfare; however, in 1991, it was once more moved to the Ministry of Human Resource Development. The Ministry of Welfare's name was changed to the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment following the establishment of a new government in 1998. The ministry is still known by this name today and strives to address the requirements of the populace in terms of social welfare in a comprehensive way while maintaining a forward-looking vision and making the best use of the nation's resources.

### CONCLUSION

Social policy is translated into social services through the social welfare administration process. It entails managing both governmental and private organizations. The meaning of social welfare administration is further explained in the following definitions. Organization of welfare services in the public and private sectors is covered by social welfare administration. In order to ensure responsible management, the social welfare administration, like any other administration needs to have clear objectives and policies, an effective organizational structure with precise staff organization, sound methods of selection, recruitment, and promotion of personnel, decent working conditions, and fiscal accounting and control.

However, there are significant distinctions between the administration of social services and other areas of government. The administration of social welfare encompasses a wide range of activities. A fresh approach must be developed to address the new, wholly distinct types of social problems that have emerged. A welfare state is a form of government in which the state actively safeguards and advances the economic and social well-being of its people. It is founded on the ideas of equal opportunity, equitable economic distribution, and public accountability for those unable to access even the most basic necessities for a good life.

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## CHAPTER 13

### BUDGET IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: MANAGING PUBLIC FINANCE

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#### ABSTRACT:

The purpose of public spending is to advance welfare, whereas taxes burden the people who pay them. It is impossible to examine a single public expense or source of public money in isolation. It is necessary to strike a balance between the costs and benefits, utility and inutility, of government financial operations. The requests for spending must be weighed against the resources at hand. Therefore, a budget is a financial plan for allocating limited resources among diverse spending demands. Budgets, however, have increased in complexity and importance over the past few decades. Gladstone stated that they are no longer arithmetic affairs but in a thousand ways go to the root of individual prosperity, the relations of classes, and the strength of kingdoms. Therefore, producing a balance between expenditures and revenues is only one of the budget makers' issues; they also have economic, political, social, and administrative responsibilities.

#### KEYWORDS:

Budget, Capital Receipts, Management Control, Public Administration, Tax Revenue.

#### INTRODUCTION

The English term Budget, which derives from the French word Bougette, is the source of the word budget. The name Bougette is derived from Bouge, which denotes a leather bag. Budget refers to the planning process for estimating revenue and expenditure. Budgets are simply estimates of revenue and expenses for a specific time period. In economics, a budget is an organized list of revenues and expenses, or a plan for the country's public administration and policy. A budget is a projection of income and expenses for a specific time period; in India's instance, that time span is one year. It is the executive's precise implementation plan for the State's fiscal policy, laid out in concrete facts and numbers, together with the actions to be taken to carry it out and implement it for the socioeconomic growth of a nation. It is described as a set of objectives with associated costs.

A budget is a statement that forecasts income and expenses for a specific time period, typically a year. It is a thorough action plan created to accomplish the government's policy goals for the upcoming year. A budget is a plan, and a budget paper reflects future expectations of the government. Any plan need not have a budget, but a budget must always have a plan. The planned taxation or other measures are shown, together with a comprehensive distribution of resources. The following information is included in a budget: Actual receipts and expenditure for the previous year; Economic, statistical, and accounting data regarding the financial and physical



performance of the various agencies and organs of the government. Plans, programmes, projects, schemes, and activities—current as well as new proposals for the coming year. Resource position and income from different sources, including tax and non-tax revenues[1]–[3]. The creation of budgets serves crucial purposes for the country's economy. They serve as a tool for achieving a number of the public organization's goals. Budgets play a number of crucial roles in the national economy, including: Prioritizing the distribution of public resources achieving policy objectives through careful financial planning Creating responsibility for the use of tax payers' money. Financial controls also boost efficiency and ensure rule compliance. However, a budget simply relates to the data described above and is not a balance sheet (which shows the government's total assets and liabilities as of a specific date). It is a financial action plan, making it very beneficial to citizens, legislators, and government agencies. The government's budget is its most essential informational document. A portion of the government budget is comparable to an annual report for a business. The overall picture of the government's financial performance is presented in this section. The government's financial plans for the time frame leading up to its next budget are presented in the budget's second section. According to Article 112 of the Indian Constitution, the government of India must present a statement of estimated receipts and expenditures to parliament for each fiscal year, which runs from April 1 to March 31. The budget of the central government is the name given to this annual financial statement. The government's annual budget-making serves two crucial purposes:

1. The government calculates the anticipated costs for development projects in many economic sectors, such as industry, manufacturing, education, health, and transportation.
2. To cover the expenses for the upcoming fiscal year, the government looks for new revenue streams by enacting new taxes, raising or lowering the previous tax rates, or by removing or enacting subsidies on any item.

In other words, the Governments decide which Notes commodities will receive the majority of the spending and how the funds will be allocated for these expenditures. 'Budget' refers to the specifics of such income and expense statements. Every budget is created for a specific time period. With itemized ceilings and penalties, spending control is strongly emphasized. The Indian budgetary system is likewise established in a context of strict financial management for administrative and historical reasons. However, this feature has been diminished since independence thanks to different decentralization and power-delegation plans. A further trait is the propensity for instrumentalism. The majority of ongoing activities are unaffected. From one year to the next, raising and allocating resources is only slightly altered. Despite numerous innovations in budgeting, all budgetary methods are essentially incremental in design. There is typically little attempt to link expenditure to performance and benefits or inputs to outputs. Any such endeavor, if it is done at all, is restricted to the economic function, and the majority of government activities as a whole are predominantly expenditure-oriented[4], [5]. Budgets are typically created for a one-year period. Some of the budgetary systems represent application of commercial principles to budget, including allocation of depreciation allowances and in some systems, accrual based accounting. Since budgeting presupposes planning, it must, therefore, adopt a longer time frame.

## Budget Functions

A government's budget is a potent tool in its arsenal. It has a variety of goals. Following are a few of these:

**1. Accountability:** In the beginning, the government budget's main purposes were legislative control and accountability. This resulted from the legislature's intention to regulate (impose, alter, and approve) budgetary and tax plans. The legislature held the administration to account for spending that occurred within their predetermined parameters, under their specific approved headings, and only for authorized objectives. Each subordinate authority to the one directly above in the chain of delegation was to be held to the same standard of accountability within the executive. Due to its value in executing plans and budgets, accountability is an essential component of the government budget even now.

**2. Management:** Budgeting is a managerial or executive task. Budgeting involves planning, coordination, control, evaluation, reporting, and review as a useful management tool. A lot of the budgetary improvements, like functional categorization, performance evaluation through norms and standards, and accounting classification that corresponds to functional classification

The use of quantitative approaches, performance auditing, and costing have all emerged as crucial management tools. Particularly management-oriented budgetary strategies include zero base budgeting and performance budgeting.

**3. Management Control:** fundamentally denotes a hierarchy of accountability for the money gathered and spent within the parameters of total legislative accountability, encompassing the whole spectrum of executive agencies. Control takes on new meanings in a democracy and gives rise to extremely challenging issues. The primary goal of a truly representative government is to modify the financial system's structure and functioning in a way that ensures executive accountability to the legislature, which is the body responsible for enacting laws, determining taxes, and allocating funds. If the legislature had legislative control, it would be able to actively and not just nominally engage in the creation of broad policies and programs, as well as in their review, approval, and implementation through the annual budget. Additionally, it implies that the legislature is better able to link the executive's accomplishments and performance to the goals and guidelines it has established. Legislative members may lack sufficient knowledge of the intricacies of financial management and are unable to grasp the magnitude of the activities' enormous scope and, consequently, the amount of funding necessary. Therefore, a variety of tools are utilized to help legislatures exercise their rightful control over the executive.

In order to make sure that the funds provided by the legislature are strictly used in line with the law, statutory audit also looks at the accounts and other pertinent data. Aside from that, audit aims to make sure that the government gets the most out of the tax dollars it receives and that the rules of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness are followed. Additionally, planning takes into account a wide range of government policies while keeping the passage of time and connections between them in mind. Planning anticipates a range of policy options. To maximize the use of resources, decisions must be made between possible courses of action at the level of projects and programs.

The objectives of the public sector, including the efficient use of resources, stabilization of economic activity, fair income distribution, and encouragement of economic growth, are all pursued within an organizational framework. The accomplishment of these objectives must be coordinated in the short term using administrative and legal tools, the most crucial of which are budget policy and process. Along with financial demands and financial analyses, political pressures are reflected in budget planning [6]–[8].

### **Importance of the Budget**

In the past, the public budget was viewed as nothing more than a straightforward accounting of the government's receipts and outlays. Then, it had only two goals: first, to determine how little money a government can take from taxpayers' pockets, which is simply insufficient to maintain its essential functions at a proper level of efficiency; and second, to demonstrate to parliament that it was necessary for it to be aware of the government's spending plan because it had to vote for funds. That was the position of the public budget in a laissez-faire economy, but ever since the welfare state concept was developed, government operations have expanded incredibly quickly to the point that they now cover practically every facet of community socio-economic life. In comparison to the past:

1. The budget has grown significantly in size. Its ability to have a significant impact on the national economy has grown.
2. Public budgets serve as a reflection of government actions, which have an impact on both the allocation of resources and the production of national income.
3. Through its policies on taxation, spending, and borrowing, the government can have a significant impact on the level of economic activity with the aid of the budget.
4. The government's borrowing practices may boost savings rates and encourage the mobilization of resources for the nation's economic growth.

Van Philips noted that this is the reason for the budget's supremacy, saying that the results of budgetary policies are more direct because the budget has a more firm and direct hold on the economy. One of the key instruments of financial management is the budget. Financial administration cannot function without a budget. Since it is the core of management, it serves as a Concept of Budget 91 effective tool for attaining administration-wide coordination. The chance to examine the government's numerous policies and programs is provided through budgeting, and in doing so, one can determine which policies and programs are unnecessary and should be abolished. Thus, a budget aids in reducing all forms of duplication and waste.

For the society to undergo socioeconomic change, the budget is crucial. The government provides for every segment of society through the budget. The government works to bring about socioeconomic change in the society by proposing new policies and programs and allocating cash for them. By levying high taxes on consumer goods and promoting investment, it aids in the nation's economic growth. It also taxes the wealthy in an effort to lessen socioeconomic inequality, and it affects every aspect of individuals' social lives. The government's budgetary policy is focused on those initiatives and plans that seek to reduce poverty, create employment opportunities, improve the lot of society's less fortunate members, fund public health and

education programs, and address wealth inequality. In this approach, the budget becomes into a tool for bringing about socioeconomic change in society. Additionally, the budget is significant as a tool for legislative control. No tax can be collected without the legislature's prior consent and authorization, and similarly, no expenditure can be made without the legislature's prior approval. Therefore, the legislative controls the executive through its control of the public purse.

The legislature now holds the government accountable for both spending and tax collection. In conclusion, it is clear that a budget is crucial for bringing about socioeconomic change in society, for managing the executive branch, and as a strong tool for coordination, as well as for removing waste and redundancy. The budget serves a variety of functions, according to Awasthi and Maheshwari. To an economist, it is a device for influencing the country's economy; to the politician, it is a device for defending or criticizing the government programmes; to an administrator, it is a framework for communication and coordination as well as for exercising administrative discipline throughout the administrative structure.

## DISCUSSION

**Revenue Budget:** The Revenue Budget displays the government's current receipts and the expenses that can be covered by those receipts. This financial statement includes the government's revenue receipts, such as money received in the form of taxes and other receipts. It also includes the expenses covered by such earnings.

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**Tax Revenue:** Tax revenue is made up of the money the government earns from various taxes and other levies. It is a significant source of tax revenue. Every citizen is required by law to pay them, and failure to do so is illegal. There are two different kinds of taxes: direct taxes and indirect taxes. Direct taxes are those that must be paid by the person who is subject to them. Its weight cannot be transferred to another person.

Direct taxes include, for instance, income tax, property tax, company tax, estate duty, etc. Indirect taxes, which are levied on goods and services and have an impact on a person's income through their consumption expenditures, do not directly benefit the tax payer. In this case, the cost may be transferred to a different party; for instance, indirect taxes include excise duties, sales taxes, services taxes, and customs duties.

**Non-Tax Revenue:** Governments also receive money from sources other than taxes. These are the non-tax sources of government funding: Revenues from public sector businesses: The government owns and runs a lot of businesses. The earnings they generate are a significant source of non-tax income. For instance, the Government of India owns the Indian Railways, the Oil and Natural Gas Commission, Air India, Indian Airlines, etc.

**Gifts and grants:** When there are natural disasters like earthquakes, floods, famines, etc., the government receives gifts and grants. During times of natural calamities, citizens of the nation, foreign governments, and international organizations like the UNICEF, UNESCO etc. give.

The government imposes a specific assessment duty on the populace in exchange for providing them with a special benefit. For instance, if roads are repaired in a specific area, property values will increase. The increase in property value will be advantageous to the local property owners. As a result, the government levies a fee known as special assessment duties on them.

### **Revenue Expenditure**

Revenue expenditure refers to the costs incurred for the routine, customary, and everyday operation of government agencies and the delivery of a range of services to citizens. It consists of all government spending that doesn't result in the creation of tangible or intangible assets. It relates to costs incurred for the regular operation of government agencies and services, interest payments on debt the government has acquired, and grants made to state governments and other parties even if certain grants may be intended to create assets. The capital budget is an accounting of the central government's assets and obligations that takes capital changes into account. It consists of the government's capital investments and capital outlays. This section of the budget covers estimated receipts and expenditure on capital account for the following fiscal year, which illustrates the capital requirements of the government and the pattern of their financing. Capital expenditures and capital receipts make up the capital budget[9], [10].

**Capital Receipts:** Capital receipts are payments that increase liabilities or decrease assets. The government acquires them through raising money through borrowing, debt recovery, and asset sales. The following are the primary sources of capital receipts. Government loans obtained from the general public through the issuance of bonds and securities. They're referred to as market loans. The government borrows money from the RBI and other financial institutions by selling Treasury bills. Loans and assistance obtained from other nations and international organizations like the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, etc. Profits from little-known savings programs like the National Savings Plan, Provident Fund, etc. Loan repayments to state and union territory governments as well as other parties. Like its income counterpart, plan capital expenditure refers to the central plan and central aid for state and union territory plans. The government provides a variety of general, social, and economic services under non-plan capital spending. Therefore, investments made in long-term physical or financial assets are considered capital expenditures, as are costs associated with land, machinery, equipment, irrigation projects, oil exploration, and other similar expenses.

Public budgets differ from other types of budgets in many respects because voters here give elected officials or politicians the authority to spend their constituents' money. Let's now examine the many types of budgets used in public financial management. Traditional or all-purpose budget: The Traditional Budget is the original form of the current general budget. The establishment of financial control over the Executive and the Legislative is the primary goal of the General Budget. The government's income and expenses are detailed in this budget. Details of the government's spending in several sectors are included in this budget. However, this budget does not explain how this expense turned out. Thus, the traditional budget's principal goal of solving independent India's challenges and achieving its development goals was unsuccessful. Thus, the necessity and significance of creating a performance budget were acknowledged, and it was portrayed as an addition to the prior traditional budget.

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### **1. Performance Budget**

A budget is referred to as a Performance Budget when the results of an activity are used as its foundation. A performance budget outlines the organization's goals and objectives as well as its performance goals. Through the use of a strategy, these goals are intended to be met. Unit costs are related to the strategy, and allocations are established in accordance with those expenses to fulfill the objectives. A performance budget outlines how the resources allocated are anticipated to produce outputs and, ultimately, outcomes. Performance budgeting does have a drawback, though, in that it can be challenging to determine standard unit costs, particularly for social programs that call for a multifaceted strategy. The performance budget was created in the US for the first time ever. Under Sir Hooper, an Administrative Reforms Commission was established in America in 1949. This commission suggested that the United States create a Performance Budget. The government is required to report what is done and how much done for the benefit of the people in the Performance Budget. The Performance Budget is sometimes referred to as the Outcome Budget in India.

### **2. Programmed Budgeting**

A system in which spending would be scheduled and regulated by the target was the goal of programmed budgeting. The system's fundamental building component was the division of expenditures into programs, which entailed classification that was goal-oriented and took those programs' shared aims into account.

### **3. Programme and Performance Budgeting System (PPBS)**

PPBS was much more than just a budgeting system and went far beyond the fundamentals of program budgeting. It aspired to create a system of integrated expenditure management where budgetary planning and methodical policy development would go hand in hand. Its scope was therefore overly broad. Both appropriate planning time and a stage-by-stage strategy were not used. Therefore, despite the fact that the ideas of performance budgeting and program budgeting persisted, this attempt to implement PPBS in the federal government of the USA was unsuccessful. The term programme budgeting is used by several governments nowadays to describe their performance budgeting method. As Marc Robertson noted, the basic programme budgeting concept has had a considerably greater impact on modern society than just its continued usage as a label. It is described in terms of the aforementioned key components. Many modern budgeting approaches that seek to connect financing and results include program budgeting as a component.

### **4. Program-Planning Budgeting**

Planning programming budgeting (PPB) is a system that considers effects and alternatives in addition to inputs and outcomes. It developed as a response to the haphazard and illogical planning that went into creating the budget. PPB assesses policy by breaking it down into distinct programs and calculating their profits and losses. This method of budgeting emphasizes cost-benefit analysis while also enhancing the efficacy and efficiency of the government.



It methodically compares the expense of a project to the anticipated value to an agency or department in terms of money or material saved or earned. Given that it reduces the amount of money the government spends and allows for cost savings, it is possibly the most thoroughly reasonable method of budgeting.

### **5. Zero Based Budget (ZBB)**

The main goal of ZBB is to phase out programs and activities that are no longer relevant. ZBB is used to revamp how public sector organizations (PSUs) and government departments operate so that productivity may be raised and waste can be reduced. Government resources that are limited can be used effectively. Zero Based Budgeting is used as a result to rationalize spending. In the 1970s, the idea of zero-based budgeting was established. Every budgeting cycle in the process begins from scratch, as the name implies. With zero-based budgeting, every activity is assessed every time a budget is created, as opposed to older methods where only incremental adjustments were made to the allocation. Only if it is determined that an activity is required are funds allotted to it.

## **CONCLUSION**

A budget is an annual financial statement that details the government's projected receipts and outlays for each fiscal year. Budgeting is the process of evaluating the resources' availability and then assigning them to various tasks in accordance with a prioritization system. Budgets serve as tools for management and a yardstick for assessing how well each department is doing. In India, it is required by the constitution (Article 112) to give an account of the government's anticipated receipts and outlays for each fiscal year, which runs from 1 April to 31 March. Its formulation is the responsibility of the ministry, who uses information and resources from many departments to do so. Since Independence, it has also developed into an important national policy declaration with Notes the introduction of the Five-Year Plans. According to certain arguments, the budget both reflects and shapes the nation's economic life and is itself shaped by it. The Medium-Term Fiscal Policy Statement assesses whether revenue expenditures can be sustainably covered by revenue receipts and how effectively capital receipts, including market borrowings, are being utilized. It also sets a three-year rolling objective for key fiscal metrics. The budgetary Policy Strategy Statement outlines the government's aims in the field of finances, analyzes present practices, and provides justifications for any deviations from key budgetary measures. The Macroeconomic Framework Statement evaluates the economic outlook in relation to the GDP growth rate, the central government's fiscal balance, and the external balance.

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## CHAPTER 14

### UNDERSTANDING THE POWER OF DECENTRALIZATION: GOVERNANCE SYSTEM

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#### ABSTRACT:

Decentralized governance is a hallmark of the new century, both as a philosophy and a method for bringing about reforms and changes in democracies. Transparency, responsiveness, and accountability were brought about by these measures, which also ensured good governance. Today, the most important topics in the development discourse are decentralization and democracy. There are two levels of government in the federal system. These two tiers alone cannot manage such a large nation as India. India's federal power sharing system necessitates the existence of a second level of government, beneath the state level. This is the justification for decentralizing power, which led to the creation of a third level of government known as local government. Decentralization has frequently been proposed as a solution to the problem of power concentration and as a way to guarantee that the demands and expectations of the average person are met. Decentralization is the process by which authority is transferred from the federal government and state governments to local governments. It is also referred to as the third tier of government. The general public can take part in decision-making directly at the municipal level. This fosters the development of democratic involvement as a habit. The most effective approach to implement the crucial democratic ideal of local self-governance is through local government. The purpose of this Chapter is to attempt to examine the intellectual underpinnings and significance of democratic decentralization as an institutional framework for governing both the rural and urban parts of society.

#### KEYWORDS:

Decentralization, Panchayati Raj, Political Factors, Public Administration, Tier System.

#### INTRODUCTION

Examining the issue of decentralization in England reveals that, despite the existence of decentralized local self-government groups, their operation was extremely centralized. At the local level in England, there were parish meetings and parish councils. Then, there were rural districts and urban districts. Finally, at the highest level of local self-government, there were administrative county, non-county borough councils, and county borough councils. Their operation was extremely centralized because the administrative county exercised direct control over the institutions at the local level. The Redcliff Maud Committee, a Royal Commission on local self-government, wasn't established until 1967, and local self-government in England wasn't rationalized based on true decentralization until the Act of 1976. Metropolitan councils, non-metropolitan councils, urban districts, rural districts, and Parishad are currently working on

a decentralized model in England. With the passage of the Government of India Act 1919 and the Government of India Act 1935, a highly centralized imperial system of government was gradually devolved at the level of the provinces. As a follow-up to the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, Dyarchy was implemented in the provinces under the Act of 1919[1]–[3]. This meant that some departments were initially placed under the supervision of elected ministers answerable to the legislature, while the other departments continued to be under the supervision of government representatives, namely the Members of the Governor's Executive Council. The Act of 1935 established a federal system of government for the first time and granted the provinces, subject to certain restrictions, provincial autonomy. During British Indian Rule, this deliberate process of transferring power from the federal government to the provincial governments was carried out for a number of reasons, including administrative ease, political pressure brought on by the national freedom struggle, and the requirement for political accommodation on the part of the elite and intelligentsia.

### **India's public administration and policy**

Another decentralization attempt that was apparent during colonial administration was the establishment of local self-governing bodies in both urban and rural areas. Even today, there are still questions and disagreements about this type of grassroots decentralization. For two key reasons, the decentralization debate has grown significantly in recent years. First, eradicating poverty and advancing social justice are now top political priorities; institutional decentralization is being discussed in this framework. Second, the Panchayati Raj Institutions have been ineffective in the majority of the states; the decline of the Panchayati Raj has been attributed to the lack of a constitutional guarantee.

### **The Years before Independence**

The infamous Ripon Resolution of 1882 serves as the foundation for the decentralization advocated throughout colonial governance. Ripon fervently supported the cause of decentralizing administration through the creation of local self-governing organizations in order to educate the Indians in the art of governance, provide them the opportunity to learn from experience, and open up channels for the educated class to participate in politics. The British administrators were unwilling to adopt the Ripon thesis because they doubted the ability of Indians to run local government under a system of local self-governance. The main point of contention was whether democracy or efficiency should be prioritized. However, the imperial regime was forced to voluntarily give in to Indian aspirations for self-government and administrative engagement as the pace of the freedom war picked up.

### **Post-Independence Era**

On the floor of the Constituent Assembly, the second stage of the discussion took place in post-Independence India. In Mahatma Gandhi's future vision of India, where economic and political power would be decentralized and each village would be economically self-sufficient, panchayati raj played a significant role. In accordance with the wishes of Mahatma Gandhi, Article 40 of the Indian Constitution was adopted, which directs the State to organize village panchayats and give them the authority and powers necessary for them to function as self-governing entities.

However, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar had a distinct perspective on Indian rural society. In the Constituent Assembly, he claimed that the social structure in Indian villages was hierarchical, oppressive, and resistant to reform. Giving the Panchayats authority would, in his opinion, be harmful because it would empower the existing rural power structure, which would act against the Harijans and the rural poor. Thus, in the Constituent Assembly, two opposing perspectives on decentralization have emerged: a visionary perspective and a pragmatic perspective[4], [5].

Any decentralization plan assumes an orderly society. In an unequal society, democratic or decentralized political or planning procedures fail to ensure sincere people's participation, according to Dantwala: Gandhi's idealized portrayal of village life acts as a normative paradigm and compass. But the realities of rural life and Panchayati Raj in India seem to have generally supported Dr. Ambedkar's viewpoint. In this context, it's interesting to note the Ashoka Mehta Committee Report's observations about Panchyati Raj institutions: Panchyati Raj institutions are dominated by economically and socially privileged sections of society and have as a result assisted the emergence of oligarchic forces yielding no benefits to weaker sections.

The conceptual level is where the argument around decentralization began. As the Asoka Mehta Committee observed, Some would treat it just as an administrative agency; other would treat it as an extension of democracy at the grass-roots level; and still other would treat it as a charter of rural local government. The dispute over decentralization between bureaucracy and democracy, which dates back to the Ripon reforms of the late nineteenth century, has also been practiced recently. The majority of state governments choose to entrust its official field apparatus with local development duties rather than the Panchayati Raj institutions for various reasons. The crux of the matter was generally the lukewarm attitude of the political elite at higher levels toward strengthening the democratic process at the grassroots.

### **Decentralization theory**

In this regard, it should be made clear that the French system is founded on deconcentration, whereas the British system has been organized on decentralized Notes lines. For instance, there are two main streams from which the local government institutions in England emerged. Some of them date back to a time when the United Kingdom even existed, to prehistoric times. They were then small Kingdoms with rudimentary government and a disorganized structure. They handed over the remaining powers to the new Kingdom while keeping some during the ensuing unification process. As the years passed, these abilities were enhanced and further developed. These units, a byproduct of more recent times, fall under the second group. Numerous new towns and boroughs gained prominence after the industrial revolution. These were given royal charters and other privileges, which gave them municipal status. The local autonomy that these different units had so attained came to be treasured by each of them. They would fiercely and zealously guard it. The Central Government would not interfere excessively in their affairs, but recently, some antagonistic groups have emerged that threaten central aggression. Local autonomy, though, is still very much intact. Its monarchs and emperors worked incredibly hard to preserve its integrity and unity. They had nominated prefects and other agents to represent their interests in pursuit of that goal. These representatives of the central government strictly enforced their bosses' orders when governing districts.

Later, when democracy began to spread and the need for a voice in the government's decision-making became apparent, local councils made up of democratically elected commune residents were established. But the prefects and other local authorities continued to hold sway and exercise power, so these councils were unable to gain the upper hand. They eventually came to supervise, lead, and direct the local councils. They did, however, have some influence and power together. However, they were unable to get the status and laws that other local self-government entities around the world do. They operate more or less as subordinate units that carry out the prefects' instructions. In India, the concept of democratic decentralization has been referred to by a number of names, including Panchayati Raj, functional democracy, grass-roots democracy, and building from below. These names, meanwhile, don't really capture the essence of democratic decentralization. Because in all of them, the democratic component has been given a lot more weight than the development component[6]–[8].

Despite technically meaning the rule or power of the people, democracy must be understood as a fairly broad notion in order to be fully analyzed. In addition to being a way of life, it is fundamentally a system of government that is predicated on the core tenets of the equality of all people and their equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Overall, democracy implies that any democratic structure charged with carrying out the tasks of development and administration is expected to be democratically constituted in accordance with the principle of election and to reflect the free will of the populace and to operate in accordance with the needs and desires of the locality. In other words, both their constitution and how they conduct themselves on a daily basis reflect the democratic character.

According to the study mentioned above, democracy is based on the premise that it incorporates a vast number of people in the decision-making process. It bases political authority on the consent of the people who, through a cooperative process, come to decisions that are binding on the entire community. All adults directly participate in decision-making at the lowest levels, if the size of the population concerned is not too huge and burdensome. Participatory democracy is the term used to characterize this kind of democracy. Direct association becomes challenging at the upper tiers. As a result, the method of representation is used. The democratically chosen representatives of the people then make decisions on behalf of their constituents. Representative democracy is the term used to define this kind of democracy. To sum up, the idea of democratic decentralization entails the transfer of sizable powers and duties from the national government to the democratically established territorial entities through well implemented legal measures. In accordance with this framework, the local units of government have a specified territorial and functional jurisdiction that they can operate in with more or less total autonomy.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Significance of decentralization**

The significant constraints of centrally managed national planning have been established in the past. The advantages of economic progress have not been distributed fairly among regions and groups in developing countries by the central planning systems. It was understood that since development is a difficult and unpredictable process, it cannot be planned and managed

centrally. The requirements of diverse regions and groups would be incomprehensible to the central decision-makers. They get more engaged in the work when duties and authority are delegated to local levels or to those who are directly affected by the issues and needs. They are motivated by their sense of involvement in the planning and management of development. It is also possible to improve the central government official's familiarity with regional issues and requirements. When they are reassigned to local levels, they develop greater sensitivity to a range of local issues. Better information may be gathered when local residents and government representatives are in closer contact. Additionally, more accurate information enables the development of more practical and successful project and program strategies.

The Center has an excessive amount of power, authority, and resources when it comes to central planning and management. Red tape and rigid protocols are therefore inescapable aspects of it. The target time must be met by the developing nations' developmental objectives. Decentralization can get rid of bureaucracy and highly structured processes. Decentralization can also offer a framework for better coordination of development-related activities at various central government ministries and agencies with those of local authorities and non-governmental organizations across various regions. Alternative methods of decision-making would emerge as a result of decentralization. By doing this, the local elites, who are insensitive to the concerns of the poorer people in rural communities and indifferent to national development objectives, would not be able to have control over development efforts.

As a result, there is a widespread concern in the developing world today to establish new types of administration to meet the needs of development. Decentralization has been viewed as a particularly helpful administrative strategy for delivering public services from practical local hubs near to the clients' neighborhoods. Decentralization in the majority of developing nations has been fueled by the desire to bring administration to the doorstep of the citizen and create a direct line of communication between the client and the government. Decentralization has become more and more popular. First and foremost, it was inspired by the urgent necessity for local administrative entities to provide essential public goods like food and water. Second, the majority of people in developing nations reside in rural areas that are removed from the country's capital, which is situated in a far-off metropolitan location. Rural communities need to be connected to the rest of the country by administration. Thirdly, societal diversity often takes the form of linguistic, racial, and religious disparities. Due to geographical differences, administration needs to be decentralized. Fourth, only if administration spreads out to the regions and localities can regional and local resources be used for area development. Therefore, decentralization allows local planning and development using local resources. Fifth, decentralization has advantages in terms of politics and administration. Politically, active local involvement in development initiatives and responses create the basis for the persuasive expression of regional aspirations. Planning thus gains ready political support and becomes considerably more realistic. Through consistent participation in local decision-making, local capacity to administer local regions grows from an administrative perspective. Decentralization is anticipated to unleash local forces and mobilize the community in favor of development initiatives. The neighborhood can gradually mature politically and administratively over this process.



### Decentralization Traits

It is evident from the explanation above that a decentralized structure's main trait is that decisions are made at a lower level. All organizations exhibit some degree of decentralization, but there cannot be complete decentralization because the Central Government would lose its status as such, its position would be eliminated, and there would once more be no Central Government, if it were to assign all of its authority to the states. Therefore, centralization and decentralization are tendencies; they have characteristics similar to hot and cold. The degree of decentralization of authority in an organization is said to be greater when:

1. More decisions are taken at the lower levels of the management structure. For instance, in India, where local bodies are the third layer of government, political decentralization will be higher if more decisions are taken by them.
2. The management hierarchy at the bottom makes the more crucial decisions. For instance, the degree of decentralization in this area is influenced by the amount of development expenditure that can be approved by the Panchayat Samiti in a system of Rural Local Government without consulting the State Government.
3. Decisions taken at a lower level have an impact on more functions. As a result, organizations that just allow operational decisions to be made at individual branches are less decentralized than those that also enable financial and personnel decisions to be made at the branch level.
4. Less verification of the judgment is necessary. Decentralization is more prevalent when there is no need for any kind of check at all, less prevalent when superiors must be notified after a choice has been made, and even less prevalent when superiors must be consulted before a decision is made. The degree of decentralization increases as the number of persons to be consulted decreases and their position in the managerial hierarchy rises.
5. The administrative division that typically includes the whole corporate structure because all of its factories are divided into more manageable divisions based on either geography or product. For instance, Indian Railways has been geographically divided into administrative units.

### Approaches to Decentralization as a Concept

Fesler has described the notion in a variety of ways using various methodologies. After classification, the approaches can be divided into four groups: doctrinal, political, administrative, and dual role approaches. Through a process of romantic idealization, the doctrinal method aims to make decentralization into a goal in and of itself. Decentralization has become practically a religion and an article of faith as a result of the Gandhian concept of a concentric circle of power distribution and the idealization of the rural community in Panchayat Raj. Such idealization typically elevates decentralization to the position of a firm dogma rather than recognizing it as a means to the accomplishment of some ultimate objectives. Political factors impact whether there are decentralization initiatives, readiness to transfer authority and responsibility to decentralized units, and whether these units are really allowed to operate autonomously. Deconcentration is demonstrated by the establishment of government field units that are independent of the main office. An attempt to establish autonomous local governments is decentralization, which takes the form of devolution to local self-government bodies.



The district administration is one of the long arms of the field units of government. Thus, the establishment and upkeep of local government requires significant political commitment. Devolution to sub-national governance, including self-governing bodies, will remain more theoretical than practical in the absence of such commitment. Efficiency criteria serve as the driving force behind the administrative strategy for decentralization. It becomes vital to improve administrative rationale.

Deconcentration-based field administrative unit setup is seen as a suitable measure for quick problem solving and field level decision-making. Between the locality and the central headquarters, administrative units may be established at several levels during this process. Multiple functional departments would emerge at the field level as the demand for specialized functions increased. The administrative environment eventually paints a picture of polarization between broad administrative demands based on administrative areas and specialized function-centered claims of individual functional departments[9], [10].

Decentralization in terms of administration may consequently not necessarily provide transparency of authority and efficiency of processes. Conscious efforts are Concept of Decentralization required to periodically rebalance the conflicting claims of area and functions in Notes de-concentrated field administration in order to support such operational principles. Finally, according to Fesler, the dual role method functions somewhat as a fresh context in which to practice the area function dichotomy.

Decentralization is positioned within a broader context of growth and change, as opposed to the upkeep of the status quo. The dual-role approach was developed with an administrative mindset and aims to highlight the tension between tradition and change in field administration. The majority of field administrative systems were developed in earlier times primarily to uphold the established order, collect money, and prevent problems. Nearly all of the emerging nations who have the colonial field system as a legacy want to hasten social and economic reform.

As a result, the duties of field administration have drastically changed. Fesler stated, to paraphrase, The objective is to modify traditional methods of doing things in order to hasten economic and social development. This is different from a field system's status quo orientation, which is focused on maintaining the existing order, and may conflict with the personal orientation of field generalists who have been selected and trained to identify with the classes, families, and other groups that make up the establishment. Decentralization must be adjusted to new conditions in order to resolve conflict between two opposing orientations in field administration. The topic is not foreign to district administration in particular or Indian administration in general.

## CONCLUSION

We draw a few broad conclusions from an examination of various organizational structures under democratic decentralization. When creating or improvising organizational structures for development, these conclusions might serve as guidance. The effectiveness and suitability of an administrative organization for rural development are assessed using the following criteria. Building the system on the pillars of dispersed power is one of the most crucial aspects of

institutional arrangement in the current day. It is generally recognized that too great a concentration of problems upon the central guidance cluster causes delay, increases costs, reduces efficiency, limits initiative, discourages innovation and causes the cluster itself to become a bottle-neck in the process of development, read a report by one of the U.N. agencies. Additionally, over centralization denies the various government agencies the authority they require for effectiveness and creativity. A centralized system of governance must eventually shift more and more in the direction of decentralization and authority delegation. According to the discussion of many components of decentralization, authority should be decentralized more politically than administratively. It is impossible to consider the delegation of power to administrative units at lower levels as true decentralization. Although such decentralization might make decisions more flexible and swift, it cannot qualitatively alter the nature of a system or guarantee public participation. This ought to obviously guarantee that political institutions predominate over administrative ones. This raises yet another crucial issue, namely the national elite's stance toward decentralization.

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## CHAPTER 15

### EVOLUTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES IN INDIA: PATH OF DEVELOPMENT

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#### ABSTRACT:

The Constitution lays forth the roles and responsibilities of the three branches of government—the legislature, executive branch, and judiciary—as well as the founding fathers' vision for the nation's citizens. The Directive Principles of State Policy, which represent the idea of a Welfare State and are a distinctive aspect of the Indian Constitution, are enshrined alongside the Fundamental Rights, which are essential for democracy. Therefore, the goal of government at all levels has been to establish a citizen-centered administration. A strong legislative framework has been developed with this goal in mind. Numerous organizations have been established, including the National Human Rights Commission, National Women's Commission, National Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission, and Lokayuktas. A number of further actions, such as affirmative ones, have been started. This Chapter provides a thorough understanding of Mauryan, Mughal, and British impacts on the development of Indian administration. Additionally, it explains parliamentary democracy and the key aspects of government. It provides a thorough analysis of the changing perspectives of Indian Administration.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative Services, British Developments, Evolution, Indian Administration, Welfare State.

#### INTRODUCTION

Indian Administration can be traced back to the tribal system, which eventually developed into a monarchical system, in its oldest known form. Ancient religious and political treatises provide us with a wealth of information on ancient Indian administration. The Sabha (Assembly of Elders) and Samiti were the tribal assemblies during the early Vedic period. Many tribes chose their own chiefs, who oversaw all of their duties and the administration of the tribes. The leader guarded the tribe but had no control over money or land, thus conflicts were fought and the spoils were divided among the tribes. The British Crown gave a group of merchants a monopoly on trade in the eastern waterways on December 31, 1600, beginning the era of British dominance in India.

A group of mercantile escapades was known as the East India Company. Its main goal was to acquire Indian items and sell them in Europe. They came to Bengal's coasts merely to hawk their goods, but they finally stayed to dominate. The Company remained primarily a trade business between 1600 and 1765, with periodic Crown charter renewals. The Board of Control and the Court of Directors each had a governing authority over the company.

Since it was chosen by the British Parliament was the superior body, and the Court of Directors was composed of individuals chosen by the Company's owners. During the Company's rule, the British made their most significant contribution by creating a group of public servants[1]–[3].

### **Important Successes of the Company Rule (1773–1857)**

The Regulating of 1773 can be used as a starting point because it is the first statute to acknowledge the Company performing duties other than those related to trade and can be considered the foundation for all subsequent legislation defining the structure of Indian administration. It mostly applied to the Bengali presidency. A Governor-General and a Council for Controlling the Presidency of Madras and Bombay were established, and in all matters pertaining to war and peace, they were required to follow the Governor-General's order in Council. Later, in 1833, the Governor-General of Bengal was elevated to the position of Governor-General of India, and in 1853, Bengal received a separate Lieutenant-Governor.

Recall that Act 4 of 1773, which established the Indian Administration Department at the University of Jammu's Master of Arts in Political Science program, was the legislation that led to Warren Hastings' appointment as governor general. The civil service started to expand beyond its commercial function under Hastings. Being a band of commercial adventurers and fortune hunters to a public service in the modern sense of the word is how the civil service was described before his rule. During his administration, the Company transformed from a trader to a government and assumed responsibility for collecting taxes and upholding the rule of law. These were the basic operations of a police state that was gradually taking shape. In those early days when there was only a nucleus of administration, the secretariat, a crucial organ of modern administration, was born. The industrial writers' office served as the forerunner of the current secretariat. There was a Secretary to the Council of the Governor-General in Madras and Bengal, and he was supported by five or six junior servants. Hastings designed this edifice, and his successor Lord Cornwallis improved it.

The Lord Cornwallis administration marked a turning point in Indian public service history. His changes to the public service had a lasting impression. He established a very generous system of compensation in place of the meager payments previously available to all classes, leaving the recipient with no choice but to choose between poverty and dishonesty. He made significant efforts to eradicate patronage and made sure that the civil servants who had signed the pact held all important positions. He created an administrative structure that included safeguards against officials abusing their positions of authority. Whether for tax, police, criminal and civil justice, or other functions, the Cornwallis Code defined and set limits to authority, formed a procedure via a regular system of appeal, guarded against injustice, and laid the groundwork for the Indian civil service that still exists today.

Additionally, he divided the revenue department from customs. Another point worth mentioning is that the District Officer at that time had more authority than the Collector in earlier times. The reasons given are a lack of central control brought on by a lack of transportation and communication, as well as the lack of district boards and municipal councils to check his power[4], [5].

In Calcutta and Madras, boards were established for the administration of several departments under the reigns of Hastings and Cornwallis. Boards of Trade, Boards of Revenue, Boards of the Military, and Boards of the Medical Directorate existed in Madras in 1785. They were given responsibility for the meticulous management of the various departments and were made up of Council members and other officials. The Board of Council itself, the Military Board, the Board of Trade, and the Board of Revenue will serve as the Company's four governing boards.

The Board of Council itself, the Military Board, the Board of Trade, and the Board of Revenue will serve as the Company's revenue board. The Court of Directors decided this in the same year. They persisted into the Company's final days in power. The systematic attempts Lord Cornwallis made to bar Indians from participating in government, however, were its most flawed aspect. He didn't try to boost the wages or preferential opportunities for classes that were still employed in lower-level positions.

However, Wellesley's reign (1799–1805) marked a turning point in the history of the civil services; his greatest contribution was to training. He was the first to notice that the Company's functions were expanding. Wellesley quickly set up the general upbringing of the Company's civil servant as a result. His urgency was so strong that he issued orders to establish the Fort William College in Calcutta in May 1800 without first obtaining the Court of Directors' consent. This college was to be used to train the Company's civil workers.

## DISCUSSION

### Government of India Act

The underlying principles of the Government of India Act, 1919 were to strengthen public sovereignty over local governance, make provincial governments answerable to popular representatives, and loosen the grip of the British Parliament and secretary of State. The fact that local self-government was made a temporary and transferable topic under a responsible Indian minister was a significant feature of this Act. Under the leadership of Lord Lee of Farham, the British government established the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India in 1923. The commission's recommendation to create a Public Service Commission was its most noteworthy contribution. In 1926, the decision was made to put this suggestion into practice. A chairman and four other members made up the Federal Public Service Commission, which went into operation on October 1st, 1926. It was primarily responsible for the recruitment process, although the government might consult it on disciplinary issues as well. However, prior to independence, it served only an advisory function.

The experiment with province autonomy was just as disastrous as the first two. It was put into effect in 1937 but abandoned in 1939 after the provincial Congress ministers resigned in opposition to the British government's intention to drag India into World War II. Overriding authority over a province's administration belonged to the Governor-General [6]–[8]. Three new departments were established in 1941: Information and Broadcasting, Civil Defense, and Indians Abroad. In April 1944, the Department of Commonwealth replaced the Indians Overseas Department.

It was included into the Department of External Affairs and Commonwealth Relations in June 1947. In 1942, the Department of Food was established, and in 1943, the Industries and Civil Supplies Department amalgamated with the Department of Civil Supplies. The Department of Planning was founded in 1944 but was disbanded in July 1946. The Department of Education, Health, and Lands was divided into the Departments of Education, Health, and Agriculture in 1945, following the conclusion of the Second World War. On August 29, 1947, the day after India gained independence, all departments were reorganized as Ministries. There is a brief discussion of the primary features of British control. The establishment of the Indian Civil Service, the secretariat system, salary, promotions, and transfers, financial management, financial responsibility, administration of justice, local self-government, and bureaucratic leadership are all related to these.

### **Civil Services in India**

The establishment of the Indian Civil Service is the most significant legacy of British rule in India. It represented the British Empire's outward manifestation in India, and power was exercised thanks to its broadened network. Without the ICS, it would be impossible to refer to a British empire in India because they were the foundation of British power there. The Aitchison Commission (1886–1877) maintained the two-fold division of the covenanted and uncovenanted services as previously established, and in 1892, the two services were given the names Indian Civil Service and Provincial Civil Service. The idea that independent agencies should run competitive examinations was another significant contribution of British administration. As a result, the Federal Public Service Commission was established in 1926 and given the responsibility of hiring government employees. The British also made a significant contribution by institutionalizing a training system. Up until the end of British rule in India, efforts that started in 1880 with the founding of the Fort William College in Calcutta were continued with a number of improvements and adjustments. The plan was to instruct the staff in both serving the Empire and serving the general populace. We'll get into more detail later on addressing the training system's competitions. It will do to mention that instruction in Indian languages and legislation was heavily emphasized in this context. In order to bring the official a little bit closer to the common people, languages were given prominence.

### **Making the Secretariat staff**

The British were extremely practical, as seen by their concepts for a central pool for recruiting labor. Prior to 1920, each department hired its own personnel on its own. Based on this, the Government of India created an Imperial Secretariat Service in 1920 and constituted a Central Staff Selection Board to oversee the hiring procedure. This service included higher division secretariat clerks. The recommendations given by the Tottencham Committee (1945–1966) led to a reform in the Central Secretariat's organizational structure. The Central Secretariat Service eventually took the place of the previous Imperial Secretariat Service in 1950. The significant reliance on precedents, inability of lower-level officials to share responsibilities, and practice of excessive record-keeping and nothingness were some characteristics of the secretariat system that were particularly obvious. The legacy is still in effect today.



### **Compensation, Promotions, and Transfers**

The British also created a well-developed wage structure for civil officials. 'Superior' and 'inferior' categories for jobs were established in 1918. The promotion system has had a devastating impact on the rigidly traditional Indian society. In India, a person who was born into a low caste was expected to live and die in that caste. A component of social mobility was provided by the well-planned promotion system the British constructed. Spangenberg draws attention to a flaw in the government's transfer program. The British administration's vibrancy was undermined by the frequent transfers. It had a negative impact on district management, especially because it eliminated the benefit of oriental allegiance. Three to four sub divisional officials frequently changed jobs within a 12-month period.

### **Financial Management**

Revenue came from two sources under the company's rule: land revenue and taxes on trade and personal property. There were two categories under which the spending was broken down: security or defense, and social and development services. The latter included things like public health and education. By far, the creation of the budget system via the Financial Resolution of 7th April 1860 was the most significant administrative reform. Under this arrangement, the Directorate of Distance Education, University of Jammu, M.A. Political Science, Semester III, Indian Administration 11, the Government of India was responsible for organizing, considering, and approving the financial estimates for each year prior to the start of the year. It included the empire's projected income and spending plans. A central Revenue Department was established in Calcutta as part of the same determination to unite and coordinate the operations of all revenue officials. An Imperial Audit Department was also established at the same time to check on the department's compliance with the budget's guidelines. The British also made a significant contribution with the introduction of paper money in 1860. The printing, issuance, and circulation of the notes were handled by the Bank of Bengal. One rupee to one thousand rupee paper notes were issued.

### **Financial Responsibility**

When the C&AG was officially accountable to the Central Legislature in 1919, a full-fledged and organized system of control also emerged. He was granted the authority to examine any government office of accounts in 1926. A Central Public Accounts Committee was established in 1922 with elected and appointed members, with the finance members serving as the committee's ex-officio head. It took into account the reappropriation amounts as reported by the Auditor General. Therefore, the Indian Legislature was to exercise authority over the handling of public finances through these two agencies. Another useful step in the area of oversight was the establishment of a Standing Finance Committee, with the Finance Members serving as its chairman. It performed the responsibilities of an open Estimates Committee. Additionally, public Accounts Committees were established in each province under each Governor. The Reserve Bank was created by the Government of India under the Central Legislative Act of 1934, and it started operating on April 1st, 1935.

The Indian Police Act of 1861, which established an organized system of constabulary, lay the groundwork for the modern police administration in India during the British era. It is noteworthy that the Indian Penal Code (IPC) of 1860 and the Code of Criminal Procedure (CrPC) of 1861, as well as other significant laws like the Indian Evidence Act, made up the legal framework of criminal justice administration that required the police system to carry out its duties in an efficient manner. These legal documents have grown to be significant parts of India's heritage of British rule.

### **Criminal Justice Administration:**

The sphere of judicial administration clearly exhibited the administrative character of British authority. However, during the early years of the Company's administration, when its covenanted servants had little knowledge of the local legal system, they continued to use the outdated procedures. In accordance with this approach, Hastings integrated the revenue and judicial tasks into the position of the Collector, keeping in mind that the Amalguzar under the Mughals had the authority to both collect revenue and try specific cases. Lord Cornwallis enacted a significant shift based on the idea that the court and the executive should be kept apart.

As a result, the Cornwallis Code of 1793 abolished the Collector's judicial authority. By doing this, he established the framework for a free judiciary. The code established a three-tier system of European judges, with the Sadar, Diwani and Nizamat Adalat at the top and the zilla and city courts at the bottom, followed by the Provincial Court of Appeal. In order to reduce the Governor-General's burden, a second layer of provincial courts was established. Until Bentinck's time, Indians were not given any positions in the judicial system. However, Holt Mackenzie, Bentinck's successor, recommended that Indians be given primary jurisdiction in all cases, with the exception of a few. He also recommended removing the intermediate tier because it slowed down the process and flow of justice. He expanded the district court's authority so that justice might be obtained locally.

### **Governing oneself locally**

While keeping some elements of the traditional village system, the British made some modifications to local government. The people of this country are perfectly capable of administering their own local affairs, the Government of India Resolution, 1864, had acknowledged. As a result, in Bombay and Madras, panchayats were given legal legitimacy as tiny courts. The panchayats were also incorporated in the management of funding for public works, education, and other purposes in 1870 by Mayo's government. During the reign of Lord Ripon, who is regarded as the father of Indian local self-government, another significant reform was implemented. Through a new Act, HR implemented a new policy in 1882. The resolution, dated May 18, 1882, suggested financial decentralization, reducing the size of the official element, increasing the elective component in rule bodies, and electing non-officials to lead rural bodies. The issue of local government was thoroughly examined by the Decentralization Commission in 1990. It proposed a three-tiered system made up of the local tehsil or sub district boards, the district board, and the village panchayat or union boards. It suggested reducing the degree of governmental authority over local organizations. Municipal corporations were

established for the cities in Madras in 1688, Calcutta in 1726, and Bombay in 1726. The Mountague-Chelmsford Report on Indian Constitutional Reforms of 1918 looked at the country's local government structure and recommended that local bodies be given more authority and outside control be reduced. Local self-government was made a provincial topic and transferred under the authority of an Indian minister under the Act of 1919. Every province passed laws promoting the expansion of village panchayats. They sought to make elected officials stronger to the point where they became the direct decision-makers in local affairs. The Act of 1935 established provincial autonomy, but little further could be done in this area up until independence because of the Second World War [9], [10].

No historian or student can fail to acknowledge that the personalities of certain administrators, through a secondary component in history, wield a considerable degree of influence in the creation of policies and decision-making. Civilians like Thomas Munro, R. M. Bird, James Thomson, Sir George Campbell, Sir Andrew Fraser, Sir Harcourt Butler, and Sir Malcolm Hailey were prominent among those who contributed to the formation of India's contemporary administrative system. They represented imperialism as a class. They were all influential civilian leaders who helped shape India's administrative reforms.

They were bureaucracy's top brass, directly involved in setting policy and making decisions. The Macaulay Report placed a premium on civil servants having traits like enterprise, self-sacrifice, and tenacity; nonetheless, the royal commission on decentralization was dissatisfied with the behavior of junior ICS offers. It made note of the fact that barriers between the public and the government are still coming down. According to Executive Councillor Syed Ali Imam, sympathy loses so significantly as it moves down to district officials that hardly any trace of it remains visible. I could list hundreds of instances of district authorities showing Indians inconsideration if I were to mention them. The Commission mandated that the new officials receive specialized training in Indian etiquette under the supervision of chosen Collectors.

### CONCLUSION

It is clear that the modern Indian administrative structure was influenced by British culture. British rule laid the foundation for many structural and functional aspects of Indian administration, including All India Services, Civil Services recruitment, administrative training, the secretariat system, office procedures, management of districts, revenue administration, police system, and budgeting, accounting, and auditing. Despite the fact that the British had their own goals of maintaining and expanding their empire, for which the administrative system was designed, some of the outcomes of their organizational attempts have shown to be helpful to India even after independence.

There was a sizable portion of India that the British rule and its administrative activities only somewhat or only slightly impacted. The more than 550 princely republics in the nation did not go through the same level of administrative innovation as British India. Despite some of the princely rulers' progressive initiatives, there was a notable gap between these two Indias in terms of the design and operation of their administrative systems. It is obvious that it is important to look into the causes of this variety and divergence.

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## CHAPTER 16

### CIVIL SECRETARIAT: DEFINITION, RESPONSIBILITIES AND FUNCTIONS

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#### ABSTRACT:

Over 200 years, the secretariat has seen numerous changes. This course would cover the development of the secretariat as well as its function in the nation's administrative structure. The term Secretariat is not included in the Constitution. According to Article 77(3) of the Constitution, the president must set regulations for the government of India's business transactions and for the distribution of said business among ministries. To conduct government business, the secretariat is needed. The word secretariat is derived from the word secret, which denotes something hidden or withheld from public view or knowledge, secret, secretive, or confidential. The secretariat's primary responsibility is to counsel the minister on administrative and policy issues. The government's activities appear to have grown synonymous with secrecy because of the nature of the state's business, notably the interactions between the secretary and the minister. Thus, the name secretariat is likely derived from the word secret for this reason. This Chapter analyzes the Central Secretariat, the Cabinet Secretariat, the Ministries and Departments and the Indian Administration Commissions with an emphasis on their structure and operation. This offers fresh insights into numerous facets of how central administration functions.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative Principles, Constitution, Indian Administration Commissions, Secretariat, Secretariat Structure.

#### INTRODUCTION

The office of the governor-general served as the secretariat of India at first. The Central Secretariat at Fort Williams in Bengal was created to provide the necessary information for the creation of the policy and to carry out the instructions of the Company's Government, according to the description of the secretariat's initial function. A secretary and a few helpers helped the president and council at Fort William conduct all of their business in one general department prior to the year 1756, according to B.B. Mishra. When packages from England arrived, the secretary presented them to the council for orders and constructions, which, once issued, were communicated to the authorities in question for execution[1]–[3]. The supreme government, which has supreme power over the presidency government, was initially established by the Regulatory Act of 1773. It was made up of a governor general and four councilors, who held all authority over the Indian military. During the whole British occupation, this system persisted. The only thing that continued growing was the council's membership. The secretariat's position

developed along with the company's control as it assumed a number of governmental responsibilities. Lord Cornwallis made some efforts to strengthen and organize the secretariat. He established the position of secretary-general, in which all authority and duties were centralized. He eventually earned the title of chief secretary. Lord Wellesley also showed a considerable interest in restructuring the secretariat, and as a result, the secretariat's workload and responsibilities significantly grew. He improved the government secretary's standing. He accomplished this by increasing their pay and giving them more responsibility. The duties of the Indian Administration 87 secretaries were assigned to planning and research in addition to their regular duties of implementation. The supreme administration at the end of the 18th century was composed of a governor-general, three councillors, and a secretariat with four departments. Each of them reported to a secretary, who in turn was supervised by the chief secretary. After more than a century, the Indian government had a governor-general and seven other members on the eve of the Montford Reforms in 1919.

With the exception of the Indian Munitions Board and the Railway Board, the secretariat also grew and now contained nine departments. There were 29 members of the secretariat overall; another 17 officers from the two boards should be added. This figure stayed constant until 1939, the start of World War II. The administration's structure underwent a considerable transformation as a result of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms in 1919. The changes created a split of responsibilities between the federal and provincial administrations over a sizable portion of the country; the provinces essentially gained autonomy. Only a few areas, including the army, telegraph, and railways, were directly under the control of the central government, leaving the rest in the hands of the provinces. The division of powers allowed the federal government to take direct control of a greater number of domains. As a result, the secretariat's function began to expand from that of a purely policy-formulating, overseeing, and coordinating agency to include that of an executive agency. The advent of regional autonomy in 1937 and the subsequent start of the Second World War gave the tendency even more momentum.

The central government was required to take on tasks like civil defense, the mobilization of troops and supplies for war, and the provision of food and other necessities almost immediately. In order to handle the civil defense job, the department of home affairs developed the position of officer on special duty. Later, a separate department for civil defense was established, and its secretary was appointed its director-general. The secretariat had significant growth to handle many more topics. The number of secretariat departments expanded to 19, while the governor-generals council's membership increased from seven to fourteen. Additionally, the number of officials grew to 200. The expansion was viewed as a passing Indian Administration occurrence, and it was assumed that it would return to its original location once the conflict was over and normalcy had been restored. However, the post-war reconstruction initiatives and eventual independence did not allow for a diminution in the secretariat's size. On the other hand, post-independence issues and growing social welfare responsibilities of the new popular government led to further secretariat expansion. As a result, the secretariat's departments climbed from 19 in 1945 to 74 in 1994, while its affiliated and subordinate offices grew from 20 in 1947 to nearly 100 in 1991.



### Secretariat Activities

In our nation, the secretariat has often operated under the guidance of two guiding principles. The first was the idea that policy should be separated from its implementation, or administration in action, so that the latter might be given to a different body with some latitude in terms of execution. Second, the health of the administrative system as a whole depends on a temporary cadre of officers selected from state cadres who operate under the tenure system of staff and supervise a permanent staff. In his book *Thoughts on the Constitution*, L.S. Amery made the observation that in a situation of dual functioning, the policy-making functions are most likely to suffer. Routine business is always more urgent and requires less mental effort than the activities involved in determining policy. Routine tasks are completed because the human mind prefers to take the easiest route, freeing the general staff to focus on strategic planning while routine tasks are handled by the policy department. Split system is the name of this system[4], [5].

There are numerous benefits cited for the Indian concept of function separation. The most significant is firstly the absence of day-to-day operational issues, which gives decision-makers the ability to take whatever actions are required for long-term planning. Second, the secretariat serves as the minister's objective advisor. Any proposition is uninteresting to it. The suggestions emanating from the executive agencies are objectively evaluated from the larger perspective of the government as a whole. Because of this, the secretary in the secretariat serves as the secretary to the government as a whole rather than his minister. Third, the division maintains a compact secretariat. Fourthly, this structure also avoids becoming too centralized. The executive agencies must be given a fair level of latitude in carrying out the policies and duties assigned to them. The secretariat's management of the field operations would have resulted in significant centralization and a lag in task completion.

## DISCUSSION

### Secretariat Structure

A vast and intricate organization made up of numerous ministries and divisions, the central secretariat. The many components of the Union government's administrative organization are not all described using the same terminology. It is a conglomeration of numerous departments and ministries. The phrase ministry only became popular after Independence. The officers and office are two separate parts of the secretariat. There may be more than one department in a ministry. Numerous sizable ministries, like those for home, agriculture, finance, education, defense, and external affairs, are responsible for multiple departments. In terms of the department, it can be described as an organizational unit for carrying out particular tasks under the supervision of the administrative. In other words, a ministry is still in the minister's care while a department is under the charge of a secretary, albeit this distinction must always be kept. There may be more than one secretary in a ministry with multiple departments. In these situations, one secretary is elevated above the other secretaries so that she can represent the ministry. These individuals are known as the chief secretary or the secretary-general. Because of this, even though all secretaries receive the same pay, they might not all hold the same rank.

According to the organizational structure of a ministry, the minister is the political leader and may be supported by a minister of state and a deputy minister. The minister's bureaucracy is led administratively by the secretary. The following departments make up a ministry's structure, and an official is in charge of each one to speed up operations: Department Secretary/Additional/Special secretary. The section in-charge or a section officer, assisted by a number of assistants, is the lowest level of such units. There are also clerks, daftaries, typists, and peons in addition to stenographers who help the top officers with their secretarial duties. It's also known as the office. It deals with the assignments associated with the assigned topic. The branch, which consists of two parts, is run by an undersecretary also known as a branch officer. A division is made up of two branches and is often led by a deputy secretary. A ministry may be divided into one or more wings as the amount of work increases, with a joint secretary overseeing each wing. The department, which is led by the secretary or, in some situations, a second special secretary, sits at the top of the organizational chart[6]–[8].

There was no central secretariat service to offer a stable group of officials for the secretariat at the time of independence in 1947. Officers selected from the provincial government filled the secretariat jobs, and the majority of them left after working there for the designated time period of three to five years. This method is called a tenure system since each officer assigned to the center must work there for a set period of time, typically between three and five years. Lord Curzon, who held the view that India may be governed from Shimla or Calcutta, but is administered from the plains, developed this system in 1905. He believed that the district served as the center of administration and that all significant administrative tasks were carried out at the district level. He therefore believed that the officers with district work experience ought to be brought to the secretariat. He believed it was wise to keep the secretariat informed of events on the ground. The officers must return to the field to refresh their field experience, which wanes while they are serving in the secretariat for a set amount of time.

Several committees and commissions have proposed that the secretariat be staffed by personnel from the states. It is an accepted principle that efficient secretariat service, both in the provinces and at Delhi, depends upon a constant interchange of personnel between the district and the secretariat, the Simon commission on decentralization stated in its 1930 report. In the Indian administrative system, experience earned with the central government or at the provincial secretariat service is beneficial to the provinces and districts and in-depth familiarity with the provinces and districts is priceless in the provincial and central secretariat. Their interaction promotes the health of the entire. The tenure system was likewise favored by the 1936 Wheeler committee. The imposition of a limit to the occupancy of certain appointments has long been a feature of Indian administration, the committee claims. The posts governed by it range from that of the governor-general and members of the council to such junior ranks as those of undersecretaries. This structure is built into how all-India services are organized and are provided by both the central and state governments. The district offices, state secretariats, and central secretariats are where the members of these services must work. The tenure system was developed to employ their services so that the federal and state governments may benefit from the expertise of these officers.

In its report from 1967, the administrative reforms commission study team on personnel administration recently endorsed the tenure system wholeheartedly and recommended removing any obstacles to the free flow of workers between the secretariat and the field. The tenure system should be strictly enforced, and officers should return to their parent departments or state governments, as applicable, for a significant amount of time not less than the time spent away from the department or state before being considered for another assignment. The following is a comprehensive summary of the defenses of the tenure system put forth by various committees and commissions: First, the federal system of governance is affected positively and consistently by the rotation of public workers between the federal government and the state and local governments.

Due to tensions and difficulties in center-state relations, particularly when various political parties gained control of the federal government and the states, such a function has grown in importance. The national policies will be grounded in reality and have less trouble being implemented in practice when the central secretariat positions are held by individuals with expertise in district and state administration. Third, a protracted stay at the secretariat causes a break in communication with field administration. In a tenure system, officers are returned to the states where their expertise working in a central secretariat helps the local government. Fourth, states gain from the tenure system. They received back officials with a wide range of expertise who are knowledgeable about both national policy and how the central government operates. Fifth, a long stay at the secretariat might make an officer stale, but under the tenure system, he has the chance to work in a different setting, which can give him a new perspective. Sixth, a tenure system gives everyone the chance to work at various administrative levels. Seventh, the tenure arrangement gave the secretariat's personnel management the required flexibility. At the end of the term, it is simple to get rid with ineffective and unable people.

The necessity of the secretariat has not been contested by its detractors; rather, they support the secretariat's role in giving the minister the essential support while formulating policies. On numerous occasions, its real functioning techniques have been challenged. The criticisms were as follows: The secretariat is a body that formulates policies, but it has recently begun to do a number of field tasks as well. This hinders administrative effectiveness. Either the secretariat lacks the time necessary to focus on formulating policy, or the power and authority of the field agencies are reduced in such circumstances. The secretariat also frequently engages in empire-building. The many ministries and departments frequently take on tasks that are unrelated to their area of responsibility, which results in wasteful spending. Third, the secretariat has outgrown its structure and is obviously overstaffed. The secretariat often takes on extra work to support overstaffing. Fourth, the secretariat staff believes they are superior than the staff of field agencies. Even the interaction between a junior secretariat officer and a senior field officer has not been positive. Despite the fact that it is their responsibility to have the policies set up so they can conduct their field duties, they try to boss them around. The tenure system was designed to allow for the exchange of individuals between the secretariat and field offices so that policies could be developed based on field experiences, but in reality, this goal is not being met because officers now stay in the secretariat for an excessive amount of time.

The need for secretarial service was recognized even before independence in 1947, and personnel from the Imperial secretariat service were appointed to the positions of assistant and assistant secretary/undersecretary. Following Independence, the central government authorized a plan for such a service in 1948 under the name central secretariat re-organization and reinforcement scheme. It advocated for the central secretariat service (CSS) to take the role of the previous Imperial Secretariat Service. Initially, the new service was divided into four grades.

However, in 1959 grades II and III were combined into a single continuous class II grade as a consequence of the Second Pay Commission's recommendation. Additionally, a new selection grade above grade I was established, which included positions up to and including deputy secretary. The following are the key components of the central secretariat services: First, the service staffs all positions from the assistant level up to under-secretaries, in addition to the central secretariat and the majority of the attached and subordinate offices. Second, the new service was made available to all the ministries as a shared service.

All of the service's employees now have better promotion opportunities and prospects thanks to this. However, it was decided to include a decentralized component to the service. The division of the assistants and section officers into ministry-specific cadres suggests that the administrative ministries concerned now have jurisdiction over these levels. However, all of the officers in the section officers grade in all of the cadres are eligible for advancement to grade I. The department of personnel now has authority over grade I and selection for Indian Administration positions.

Third, the plan anticipated the need for a deputation reserve from the outset in order to make it possible for service members to be nominated to outside executive jobs in attached and subordinate offices. This clause was included to broaden the service's perspective and experience and to support external organizations. Finally, it was agreed to construct a secretariat training school to give new recruits in grades III and IV of this service systematic pre-entry training.

A similar institution was started in May 1948, and it is currently known as the Institute of Secretariat Training and Management (ISTM)[9], [10]. Promotions from grade I officers with five years of service in the grade are used to fill positions in the selection grade. There are several methods for filling the positions for the grade of section officer.

Based on the results of the IAS entrance exam, one-sixth of the positions are recruited by UPSC. By promoting assistants to fill two-thirds of the remaining positions and using a limited departmental examination held by the UPSC to fill the remaining one-third of positions, the remaining positions, as well as temporary positions, are filled. The initial plan for grade assistants called for reserving 75% of the permanent openings to be filled by direct hiring following an open competitive exam held by the UPSC.

However, the direct recruiting quota has so far been retained at 50% instead of 75% to take care of the advancement chances for the upper division clerks. A university degree is the prerequisite for direct recruiting. The remaining 50% of open positions are filled.

## CONCLUSION

To sum up, the planned economic development, the administrations' accountability to the Parliament, and the intense examination conducted by its standing committees have all contributed to a significant increase in the volume of secretariat activity in recent years. It has been determined that complete and accurate records of cases involving financial and other sanctions must be kept. But there has been a significant change in this area with the introduction of modern economics and its trend toward privatization. According to this method, the work of the lowest-ranking ministry or department is divided into various functional desks, each of which is staffed by an officer of the proper rank, such as the under secretary section officer or assistant, who manages the case with the necessary stenographic and clerical help. Two officers, such as a section officer and an assistant, two section officers, or one section officer and two assistants, make up a desk. If a functionary holds the rank of section officer or its equivalent, they are known as desk officers and are assisted by stenographers. Desk attaches are the same as assistants and their equivalent. In terms of functionality, the under-secretary will submit cases to the joint secretary, the desk officer to the deputy secretary/director, the desk attaché to the under-secretary if it's not a desk, and the deputy secretary/director if it is a desk. As a result, the system is designed for efficiency and quality because the initial review of cases is carried out at a responsible level.

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## CHAPTER 17

### ROLE OF MINISTRIES AND DEPARTMENTS: GOVERNMENT MACHINERY AT WORK

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#### ABSTRACT:

The president is given full control over the government's executive branch. According to Article 53, the president has the executive authority over the union, which he may exercise directly or through officers who report to him in conformity with the Constitution. Thus, the president can exercise all of his executive powers in one of two ways: directly or through subordinate offices. However, according to Article 53 (3), Parliament may grant by law functions to authorities other than the president. Before becoming effective, every law passed by the legislature requires the president's approval. However, a council of ministers has been established by the constitution to aid and advise the president as he exercises his executive responsibilities. He must therefore follow the ministerial council's recommendations. Despite being collectively accountable to the Parliament, the council of ministers had individual ministers assigned to several ministries, for which they were individually accountable to both the council of ministers and the legislature. We shall analyze the distribution of labor among several ministers and how each ministry operates in this Chapter.

#### KEYWORDS:

Business Allocation, Composition, Distribution Labor Secretary, Executive Responsibilities, Social Welfare.

#### INTRODUCTION

During the British era, the governor-general-in-council was in charge of making executive decisions, but as the government's workload rose, the portfolio system was implemented, and each council member was given a specific portfolio. All questions pertaining to a certain portfolio were directed to the member in question. Only issues pertaining to broad policy were sent to the council. After Independence, the body changed its name to the body of Ministers/Cabinet, and this tradition persisted. Despite being collectively accountable to the Parliament, the council of ministers had individual ministers assigned to several ministries, for which they were individually accountable to both the council of ministers and the legislature.

The President is given the authority under the Constitution to establish regulations for the efficient conduct of government business and for the distribution of ministerial responsibilities. The president occasionally assigns ministries or departments to the ministers on the prime minister's recommendation. The Government of India Rules, 1961, as amended, serve as the foundation for work distribution.

These regulations specify the ministries/departments, secretariat/office, and locations where the government's work is done. The business assigned to a ministry is typically handled by the minister in charge or by a suitable officer of the ministry acting at the minister's direction, according to the government of India manual. However, there are some restrictions on how individual ministries can carry out their duties, such as those that call for interdepartmental consultation on issues that affect the work assigned to another minister or that demand the submission of specific types of paperwork in order to comply with orders from the prime minister, the cabinet, or a committee of the cabinet. Before issuing orders, certain classes or situations must also be submitted to the president[1]–[3]. In order for a ministry to function well, it is given to a specific minister who is then under the overall direction of the prime minister and the cabinet. There were not many ministries in 1947, and each general ministry had its own department and secretary. The planned economy and social welfare initiatives increased the workload for the government, which led to an expansion in departments as well. However, it has become necessary to combine a number of departments into one ministry in order to keep the size of the ministry minimal. As a result, many ministries today contain multiple departments, each of which is led by a secretary.

Work assignments are presented in detail at the Chapter's conclusion. The division of labor among the several ministries is constantly shifting. Sometimes the allocation of work is based solely on political or personal considerations and not on any principles or bases. For the purpose of accommodating certain political leaders, independent ministries or departments are run, as was the case in 1993 with the ministry of fertilizers and chemicals. The considerations of weakening some ministers can occasionally affect how the task is divided. For instance, the CBI, IB, department of personnel, and administrative reforms were transferred away from the ministry of home affairs when Y.B. Chawan was the home minister in an effort to weaken him. Similar to how the size of the ministry of agriculture has been reduced, the department of rural development, fertilizers and chemicals, etc. As a result, the division of labor is not always founded on sound reasoning.

The three political figures in charge of a ministry are the minister, the state minister, and the deputy minister. There may occasionally be a parliamentary secretary at the bottom of the political ladder. They hold the post as a result of their political influence within the party. They lack technological expertise and qualifications. The ministers primarily carry out three different types of tasks. He starts by developing the broad policies that the department must adhere to. He makes decisions on all significant policy issues that might arise throughout the course of the department's operations. Second, he supervises the department's implementation of the policy in general. Third, he assumes in the Parliament the administration and policy of his department. He responds to parliamentary inquiries about his division. He oversees legislation and speaks for his department in front of the public and in the parliament. Fourth, in the cabinet, he represents his ministry. He must partake in the cabinet's overall obligation to the Parliament. He must make sure that his policies are in line with those of other ministries. The functions of the cabinet minister are shared by the minister of state, the deputy ministers, and the parliamentary secretaries. Generally speaking, they aid the cabinet minister.

## DISCUSSION

### Secretary

The secretary is the department's or ministry's administrative leader. He serves as the Minister's top policy and administrative counsel on all issues pertaining to his ministry or department. He bears complete responsibility for the effective management of his ministry or agency. He speaks on behalf of his department or ministry before parliamentary committees such as the committee on public accounts, the estimates committee, and the committee on public undertakings, etc. He receives weekly briefs detailing the kind of cases that have been resolved by his subordinate officers so that he is kept up to date on the operation of his department. He has the authority to give orders allowing him to receive cases directly. A secretary should not be immersed in files and burdened with routine, Gopalaswami Ayyangar advised. He must have enough time to consider the big picture, assess the challenges facing the government in the area under his responsibility, and make future plans. All of them are his proper responsibilities, and they must be carried out effectively. A mere expansion of the establishment under his supervision cannot make up for a failure to make proper provisions in this regard. The secretary's role has also been envisioned by the administrative reforms commission as one of coordinator, policy guide, reviewer, and evaluation. As a result, the secretary holds the highest level of departmental power and receives the greater pay that is offered to some IAS.

**Special Secretary:** The traditional hierarchy was upset after Independence when other levels of authority were established. Hierarchical organizations are weakened as a result, undermining their efficiency, effectiveness, and cohesion. An excellent illustration of such a disruption in the hierarchy is the position of special secretary. 1951 saw the appointment to the ministry of agriculture of a special secretary with the pay, position, and power of a secretary. This was a special position, and neither the basis for its creation nor its interactions with the permanent secretary were acknowledged or specified. This position, which has the pay, rank, and status of a secretary, has just been reinstated in the ministry of external affairs to oversee the administration of the foreign service. The ministry of commerce and industry's department of heavy industries is now under the supervision of a special secretary who earns the salary of a joint secretary but has no set position within the ministry. As a result, there is no established principle or regulation for the selection, ranking, or compensation of a special secretary [4], [5].

**Additional Secretary:** Initially, the deputy secretary's office was next to the secretary's, but over time, other levels of special, additional, or joint secretaries were created. These new levels were mentioned by the organization and procedure committee in 1937. The interposition of these levels, between the secretary and the deputy secretary, has drawn criticism from a number of committees that were supposed to report on improvements in administration. There isn't a distinct administrative division that needs a second secretary in charge. He occasionally oversees a department and serves as secretary; other times, he directs a whole wing and serves as joint secretary. He occasionally assists the secretary in a particular area of expertise. Richard Tothenham described the nature and function of these posts accurately.

According to him, the only difference between a joint and an additional secretary should be their compensation and not their roles. In both situations, their proper role is to delegate a block of work to the secretary and deal directly with the member on that assignment. They ought to be necessary solely in such divisions. Neither inexpensive secretaries nor expensive deputy secretaries should serve as supplementary or joint secretaries. The administrative reforms commission's study group on personnel administration made a suggestion for the creation of a specific level of extra secretary, as did the ARC itself. Additionally, it allowed for the possibility of an extra secretary leading a ministry division rather than a joint secretary. The position of additional secretary in the larger Directorate of Distance Education, University of Jammu, M.A. Political Science, Semester III, Indian Administration 129 ministries significantly relieves the secretary. In reality, though, the secretary views him as a threat to his power and the joint secretaries perceive him as an unneeded intermediary between them and the secretary.

**Joint Secretary:** The joint secretary often oversees a wing and is granted the greatest degree of autonomy for managing all operations within that wing, subject to the secretary's overall accountability for the management of the ministry as a whole. The joint secretaries should actually be what their title suggests, namely secretaries for the topic assigned to them and joined to a more senior secretary for the convenience of administrative work, according to A.D. Gorwala. Three factors led to the creation of this post in the early 1920s. First, it was difficult for one secretary to keep up with the increased workload due to changes in some departments' functions. Second, it was challenging to combine disparate items of business under one secretary in order to keep up with the increased workload. Third, the establishment of two houses of the legislature at the center in 1920 necessitated the presence of senior officers. Nearly every committee formed by the government to recommend changes to the administrative machinery has questioned the establishment of the offices of joint secretaries between the secretary and his deputy secretaries. The Gopalaswami Ayyangar committee has criticized the structure for being ineffective and causing delays. However, in reality, the joint secretaries carry out essentially the same tasks that the deputy secretaries did in the past. Even though they are in charge of a different ministry division, they serve as the secretaries' assistants. On the particular tasks assigned to them, they do not independently decide anything nor do they present documents to the minister.

**Deputy Secretary:** An official who represents the secretary is referred to as the deputy secretary. He oversees a secretariat division and is in responsibility of finishing the work assigned to him by the government. He should typically be able to handle the bulk of cases that are presented to him on his own initiative. Originally, this official held a crucial position, but after independence, the position has lost value, and there are now very few decisions that a deputy secretary makes on his own. He gives joint secretary the majority of the cases.

**Under-Secretary:** An under-secretary oversees a branch of a ministry and has authority over both the conduct of business and the upholding of discipline. The Maxwell Committee Report has a full description of this officer's duties. The undersecretary should typically take the initiative on all incoming communications and bring it to the deputy secretary's attention right away for any instructions that latter may like to provide.

Minor situations should be handled by the undersecretary on his own initiative. More significant documents should be sent to the deputy secretary in a way that allows for a swift resolution of the case in regular business. Additionally, undersecretaries should make every effort to minimize the number of files that must be formally presented to the deputy secretary by following the latter's verbal instructions where applicable. The practical absence of the summary and draft of the effective under secretary, which was caused by a number of factors, is one of the major losses in recent years in the operation of secretariat departments, in our opinion.

**Office:** The secretariat is made up of two different types of officers, one of which is made up of participants in the decision-making process and the other of which is made up of the office that keeps and presents paperwork. The office employs functionaries in the following grades: section officers (i), assistants (i), upper division clerks (UDC), lower division clerks (typists), etc.[6]–[8].  
**Section Officer:** Section officers are the superintendents who oversee individual sections. A section officer is responsible for supervising the activities of his staff members. He is in charge of handling significant matters by himself. He assigns the task to the team, trains them, and provides guidance as they carry out their responsibilities. He oversees the fast completion of tasks and coordinates the efforts of many employees within his division. He must use established procedures for handling cases, submitting statements on schedule, and producing other periodic reports. Proper upkeep of assistants' diaries, sector diaries, file registers, and other relevant paperwork and registers. He makes sure that instructions for secret papers are followed.

### **The Ministry of Home Affairs' Function**

Due to the Ministry's distinction, senior politicians have been nominated as at-home ministers. Although its duties have been scaled back since the establishment of the ministries of personnel, public complaints and pension, and welfare in 1985, its crucial status within the Union cabinet has not changed. Let's investigate its function. Although the president gives ministers their portfolios based on the prime minister's proposal, the ministry of home affairs was assigned to a senior politician who sits next to the prime minister. The experience demonstrates that the minister was divided from the start because the prime minister viewed the powerful home minister as a rival. The junior minister was now free to manage the ministry however he saw fit because home ministers had been made ineffective and put on a back shelf.

Brahamananda Reddy served as home minister during the Emergency solely in name; the minister of state handled all duties. Om Mehta, also known as Home Mehta. When Rajiv Gandhi served as prime minister during S.B. Chavan's tenure as home minister, his two deputies, especially Arun Nehru, effectively oversaw all aspects of the ministry. Later, when V.P. Singh was the prime minister, Mufti Mohammad Sayeed served as the home minister, but SubodhKanth Sahay, a junior minister of state, was in charge of both Punjab and Ayodhya. Then-railway minister George Fernandes received Jharkhand, the North East, and Kashmir. As a result, it was noted that, at least in terms of how the home ministry is handled, the National Front government is no different from the previous two regimes. The issue is more clearly who oversees the ministry. Once more, Rajesh Pilot and the prime minister did nothing to mediate their conflict while Rao was the prime minister and S.B. Chavan was the home minister and being ignored by his junior minister of state.

In addition, Rajesh Pilot was required to attend cabinet sessions even when the home minister was present. Rajesh Pilot was prompted by this to oppose ministry plans that had been duly vetted by the cabinet minister before being submitted to the cabinet. The home minister had suggested banning the BJP's large rally on February 25 in the capital due to the delicate communal atmosphere following the Ayodhya event. Because of what happened in Ayodhya, the BJP leadership could not be relied upon to maintain the rally's peace. But Rajesh Pilot opposed the ministry's suggestion in three of the four cabinet meetings where the topic of prohibiting the BJP rally was discussed.

This demonstrates unequivocally that powerful home ministers are disliked by prime ministers. The home ministry still maintains status in our nation next to the prime minister despite all of this politics[9], [10]. An efficient administrative control over the government's income and expenses is crucial in a parliamentary democracy. The Union government's financial management is entrusted to India's ministry of finance. It creates budget ideas that are then submitted to the cabinet and approved by the Parliament. As a result, it controlled both the Union government's spending and the distribution of funds to the states.

### CONCLUSION

The planned economy and social welfare initiatives increased the workload for the government, which led to an expansion in departments as well. However, it has become necessary to combine a number of departments into one ministry in order to keep the size of the ministry minimal. As a result, many ministries today contain multiple departments, each of which is led by a secretary. A minister now has to manage more than one secretary as a result.

The government's responsibilities have multiplied and grown more complicated. As a result, various alternative structures, such as companies, corporations, etc., have emerged in addition to the traditional departmental groups to carry out governmental duties. Government companies and statutory corporations are two new types of organizations that have emerged as a result of the expansion of the government's commercial operations.

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## CHAPTER 18

### BOARDS, COMMISSIONS AND FIELD ORGANIZATIONS: GOVERNMENT DUTY

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#### ABSTRACT:

The departments manning it operationalize governmental functions. Boards and commissions are a couple of the other types of organizations that exist in addition to departments and ministries. For a variety of governmental tasks, numerous chief executive organizations have been preferred. The executive council of the viceroy, which assumed the role of a cabinet following our nation's independence in 1947, has been granted executive authority in our nation since 1983. A board or commission multiple executive has developed into a crucial component of administrative systems even now. One can wonder why boards and commissions are established in addition to the departments. The advantages of single executives, board and commission types of plural or collegiate executives, as well as both, have been extensively discussed. We will first talk about the benefits of the single chief executive system, which is the most common type of government organization, before moving on to the benefits of the plural executive system.

#### KEYWORDS:

Boards, Constitutional Committees, Commissions, Dichotomy, Executives system, Field Organizations.

#### INTRODUCTION

There are many benefits to giving someone administrative control. First off, this system gives one person all the power and makes them accountable for the outcomes. He is the one who develops the program, carries it out, and makes the required adjustments. As a result, he would be responsible for his behavior while the responsibility in a board or commission is shared by a number of people, according to Anyone who participates in such a distribution of power cannot be held accountable for the outcomes of a group decision. Second, it is less expensive; in the commission system, several higher-level officials would attend meetings, and they must be paid their TA and DA. This places a significant financial load.

However, with a single executive system, none of these costs are necessary because such meetings are not necessary and files can be moved throughout the department for decision-making without incurring any costs. Third, decisions can be made swiftly in the single executive system. It takes time for the board or commission to make decisions. Sometimes a decision needs to be delayed because a meeting is not imminent, and other times it is delayed because of disagreements. Fourth, because he has the power to make decisions in an individual chief executive system, he feels more involved, expends more effort, and is keenly interested in how it operates.

An individual feels that he doesn't need to exert any more effort than others under a commission or board system because the board will be credited for his achievements rather than him personally. Fifth, in a board or commission kind of organization, the chain of command is not always evident. In the event that there is dispute among the members, this may make it unclear to the line functionaries whose commands they should follow. In a single chief executive system where the chain of command is quite obvious, this kind of issue is unheard of [1]–[3].

### **System for Plural Chief Executive**

The board or commission structure has a number of benefits. First off, making decisions in a government department takes a lot of time. It must go through a number of levels and phases before being consulted. Decision-making is delayed as a result of this. The consultation process might happen across the table in a board meeting in the case of the plural executive. As a result, choices in this structure are made faster than they would be in a system with a single top executive. Second, a single person is more susceptible to demands than a group of people, such as a commission or a board. The plural system is therefore more suited to maintaining administrative integrity. Third, the commission and boards are neither totally representational nor entirely expert groups. In order to strike a balance between the unique demands of contemporary public administration and the representative nature of a democratic government, a properly constituted body combines both of these components.

Fourth, in addition to their administrative duties, these entities occasionally carry out quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial activities. A plurality of people can accomplish these tasks more effectively than one person can. The likelihood of client cooperation or individual bias in judgment is decreased by the members' collective wisdom. Last but not least, the board of commission type of organization can assist in relieving the federal and state governments of the duty of control over the daily operations of a service organization or the administration of a private entity. On the one hand, it gives the agency the required autonomy, and on the other, it gives the government the chance to design a specific control system to track the development of the organization without damaging its autonomy. The development of either of the two types of organizations is not encouraged by the aforementioned debate. The single chief system appears to be the most common and logical type of organization. However, there are a variety of circumstances in which the plural chief executive system may be deemed appropriate. L.D.

White points out that, generally speaking, those who favor boards or commissions over a single executive bear the weight of proof. Even when a board or commission structure is desired, it is up to a single chief executive to manage the organization's daily operations while remaining under the overall supervision and control of the board or commission. This type of structure is fairly common in private organizations where the board of directors makes the essential policy choices and the managing director, with help from a team of executives, manages the day-to-day operations. The board does not interfere with the managing director's day-to-day operations, but it maintains control by requesting strategic information and reserving some strategic choices for itself. Willoughby asserts that the board/commission kind of organization is better suited for the following services.

First, there are certain services, like public utility boards, that have a quasilegislative or quasi-judicial function. Insofar as they create the rules and regulations that determine the costs and terms of providing these services, they serve quasi-legislative functions. In accordance with the rules, they carry out quasi-judicial tasks by making decisions about disputes that have an impact on both public and private rights. This group includes development authorities and improvement trusts. Second, the services that require the exercise for their functions 148 Indian University of Jammu, Directorate of Distance Education, M.A. Political Science, Third Semester broad discretionary authority or are characterized by widespread control, as in the case of public service commissioners. Third, services like arbitration or conciliation boards where a variety of different interests are involved. Fourth, those cases that are the focus of intense political pressures and intragroup conflicts. In these situations, different interest groups frequently use a variety of tactics to influence the government authorities' decisions in their favor. The board/commission is better able to balance the numerous pulls and pressures in such circumstances. India's Tariff Commission serves as an illustration. To sum up, the single head is best when the department's major policies and objectives are clearly defined, when the activities are routine, and when executive promptness and vigor are needed to safeguard the vital interests of society, like public security and law and order. The board or commission is more suited to planning new initiatives if there are unresolved issues and ongoing dialogues are necessary to make policy decisions in response to changing circumstances[4], [5].

## DISCUSSION

After Independence, there was an explosion of new agencies in India to carry out the novel and intricate tasks that the government had taken on. The Union and state governments have established several boards, commissions, and organizations for carrying out tasks like conducting inspections, offering public utility service, and providing financial support. These bodies can be categorized in several ways. Advisory boards and commissions are not a part of the government organization's hierarchical structure. They are often solely involved with the organization's leader to offer advice. They do not share the duties or the policy of the department. They just offer advice, which the department head may or may not accept. The board or commission that makes policy decisions is powerful and focuses primarily on making policy decisions. The planning commission is one illustration. Some boards and commissions are responsible for both creating and carrying out policies. One such organization is the railway board, which is in charge of formulating policies for all issues relating to Indian Railways. Additionally, it is in charge of all operational issues related to the functioning of the railways.

Posts and telegraphs board, atomic energy commissions, etc. are other such boards. These commissions are headed by the president and are not subject to the daily administrative oversight of any one ministry. The president appoints the members of these commissions, who have a fixed term and are not subject to removal without first complying with a specific constitutional provision. Parliament receives their reports and places them on the tables of each house. A number of boards and commissions, including the University Grants Commission, the Railway Board, the Central Board of Direct Taxes, the Central Board of Excise and Customs, the Oil and Natural Gas Commission, the Flood Control Board, the Atomic Energy Commissions, and

others, are established by special statutes of Parliament. These statutory boards and commissions operate under the administrative supervision of the relevant ministry; some of them, such as the railway board and the atomic energy commission, are ministries, but others are also largely exempt from standard departmental procedures. They have a lot of autonomy in their daily operations, but its members do not have the same level of security, independence, or reputation as those who work for constitutional governments[6]–[8].

### **Boards and Commissions Established by Resolutions**

The government's executive resolutions establish a number of boards and commissions, including the Central Ground Water Commission, the Central Social Welfare Board, the Handicraft Board, the Handloom Boards, and the Planning Commission. Although the same board is attached to the relevant ministry and is referred to be an attached board, these boards and commissions are established for a defined period of time.

They are typically of an advising nature. Their members have a limited degree of autonomy and no set term of office. However, some of them, like the planning commission, are quite significant and influential. They can be divided into three groups based on where they are located.

### **Commissions and Boards as Ministries**

These boards carry out all of a ministry's duties, and some of them also carry out executive duties. These boards/commissions include the following: the railway board, the posts and telegraph board, and the atomic energy commission. These boards and commissions are established for organizations that deal with operational or commercial tasks.

### **Boards as Department Heads**

These boards serve as significant department heads within the ministries. The Central Board of Direct Taxes and the Central Board of Excise and Customs are two examples. These boards direct the field offices that report to them and are also in charge of overseeing their overall performance. They cover significant topics and are thought to be very helpful. The following are the many categories that the boards and commissions fall into in terms of the tasks they carry out.

**Growth-Oriented Boards:** These boards are referred to as development boards since they carry out developmental activities. These are listed below: The Export Promotion Council, All India Handicraft Board, Industrial Promotion Board, All India Handloom Board, etc. All of these organizations make an effort to support the growth of specific industries, agriculture, and other economic activities. These boards typically control some of people's activities. As an illustration, consider the agricultural marketing boards, which control the marketing of agricultural production.

**Various Boards:** These boards carry out both regulatory and developmental tasks. For instance, the tobacco board implements numerous plans to enhance tobacco farming and to control tobacco marketing. In order to increase their effectiveness, organizations should use boards and commissions. In some circumstances where rules, regulations, and processes have not yet been

defined, they may be helpful. Three sorts of commissions and boards exist legally. Here, we are talking about the commissions and boards for each category. For a thorough analysis, we have chosen the Union Public Service Commission (UPSC) and the Finance Commission under the first category of commissions and boards established by the constitution; the Railway Board under the second category of those established by special statutes; and the Planning Commission under the third category of those established by government resolutions[9], [10].

### CONCLUSION

The government's responsibilities have multiplied and grown more complicated. As a result, various alternative structures, such as companies, corporations, etc., have emerged in addition to the traditional departmental groups to carry out governmental duties. Government companies and statutory corporations are two new types of organizations that have emerged as a result of the expansion of the government's commercial operations. The establishment of numerous registered organisations to manage training and research operations is similar. We have so far talked about how the Central Secretariat of the Indian Government is set up.

The organization of the field office is crucial because the Secretariat develops policies and operative directives to ensure that policies are implemented, even though policy execution occurs at the field level. In India, field offices are often set up according to geography, and each ministry's field offices are responsible for a certain region within a state. India is a very large country, so it is impossible for each department of the government of India to deal with all field offices directly. Therefore, the majority of the departments have state level or regional level including more than one State offices in an area.

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## CHAPTER 19

### STATE GOVERNANCE DYNAMICS: EXPLORING THE ROLES OF THE GOVERNOR, CHIEF MINISTER AND CABINET

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#### ABSTRACT:

Our Constitution's first clause reads that India, that is, 'Bharat,' shall be a Union of states. In the US Constitution, the word Union has been used to mean Federation. The Union, however, is not a federation as defined by the US Constitution under our Constitution. The dual government, the division of powers between the federal and state governments, the supremacy of the Constitution, and the ultimate power of the courts to interpret the Constitution are only a few of the traits of a Federation that the Indian Constitution possesses. On the other hand, there are a number of unitary characteristics, such as a single citizenship, a single judicial system, integrated electoral, accounting, and auditing systems, and the authority of the union government to supervise state governments in emergencies and to some extent even in regular times. As a result of these characteristics, our Constitution establishes a quasi-federal polity. Austin, on the other hand, referred to our Federalism as Cooperative Federalism since it required tight coordination between the federal and state administrations. This article's goal is to place the study of state administration in its right context, not to go into great depth about the nature of the Indian Federation. Therefore, knowing that our Constitution envisions a two-tier structure of government, one at the Union or Central level and the other at the state level, is sufficient for us. The Constitution specifies the roles and responsibilities of the federal or union government and the state governments. Both the federal government and the state governments run their affairs separately. Of course, certain responsibilities overlap with others, and there are some supervisory capabilities.

#### KEYWORDS:

Cabinet, Cooperative Federalism, Constitution, Federation, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

A total of 61 items on the State List fall under the sole purview of the states. Public order and police, agriculture, forestry, fisheries, public health, local government, and other significant ones are only a few. These are issues that the public is most concerned about and which are best handled at the state level. Although the states typically have sole authority over these areas, the Parliament may pass laws on them in the following situations. The Council of States may, in the interest of the nation, by resolution approved by two-thirds of the members present and voting, direct the Parliament to pass laws on matters of state. With the consent of two or more states, the Parliament may legislate on a state subject with regard to the consenting states. Under a proclamation of emergency, the Parliament may legislate on a state subject. Parliament has the authority to legislate with reference to any subject for the purpose of implementing treaties or international agreements [1]–[3].

### Concurrent List

47 items on the Concurrent List are subject to concurrent jurisdiction by the national and state legislatures. The crucial ones include: Social and economic planning, marriage, trusts, civil procedure, insurance, and criminal law and procedure. While both the Union and the states are allowed to pass legislation on any of the issues on the Concurrent List, the Union Legislature is given priority. It means that when a state law and a federal law conflict on a given issue, the federal law takes precedence. However, if the state law was reserved for the President's assent and has got that assent, the state law may still prevail notwithstanding the repugnance; however, the Parliament would still be able to overrule that state law through subsequent legislation. The courts will resolve any disagreements on how the entries in the three lists should be interpreted. The following guidelines have been adhered to in this interpretation:

1. Predominance is to be accorded to the Union Legislature in cases where a subject appears on all three lists.
2. Each entry is given the most weight that words can convey.
3. The pith and substance of a given statute is taken into account when determining whether it comes under one category or another in the Constitutional Profile of State Administration.

### Destructive Powers Distribution

Typically, the distribution of legislative and executive powers occurs in that order. This indicates that the state government has executive authority over matters included on the State List. However, the executive authority over matters on the Concurrent List often stays with the state governments, with the following exceptions:

1. Where a statute of Parliament related to certain matters provides the Union with some administrative powers, as in the instance of the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947.
2. In cases where the Constitution's provisions confer executive authority on the Union, such as when a treaty or other foreign obligation must be carried out. Additionally, the Union has the authority to direct state governments to exercise their executive authority in the following circumstances:

In ordinary times, state governments must make certain that: adherence to Union laws, the use of the state's executive power does not conflict with the Union's executive power. State-sponsored development and upkeep of vital communications infrastructure for the military or the nation. Protection of the state's railroads putting plans into action to improve the lives of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. A state's administration is conducted in accordance with the Constitution's guidelines. In times of emergency, the union government has total control over how the state government operates. In the event that the constitutional machinery in a state fails, the President may declare all or a portion of the executive powers as his own. The state government can get instructions from the President to follow the rules of financial propriety. The President has the authority to lower staff compensation and benefits. Bills of exchange and other financial documents may be held back for the president's review[4], [5]. India is described as a Union of States in its Constitution.

The Constitution also establishes the Union as the central government and the States as the regional governments. The organizational structure and administrative processes at the Center and the States follow the same paradigm since India adopted the parliamentary system of government. Part VI of the Indian Constitution deals with provisions relating to the makeup, structure, powers, and duties of the State Government in Articles 152 to 237. In India, there are currently 28 States.

All of these States are run by the individual State Council of Ministers, which is presided over by the Chief Ministers acting on behalf of the Governors. Each state government consists of three bodies. State Legislature, State judiciary, state executive, and state government. The State Executive is made up of the Governor, the Chief Minister, a few ministers, and a sizable number of employees.

The presiding officials and one or more Houses make up the State Legislature. A Chief Justice, other justices, and the High Court's ministerial staff make up the State's judicial system. The State Executive, which includes the Governor, the Chief Minister, and members of the State Council of Ministers, is covered in articles 153 to 167. Additionally, several administrative staff members support the ministers in the operation of the State Government. The Chief Minister serves as the State Government's actual executive head, despite the fact that the Governor is its titular and constitutional executive head.

On the Chief Minister's recommendation, the Governor appoints the ministers. They have a significant impact on how the State Government formulates and implements its policies. The State Secretariat serves as the hub of the government's administrative system. The Governor position is one that is established under the Indian Constitution. The Constitution Act of 1956 made it easier to appoint the same individual as a governor for two or more states. Normally, there is a governor for each state.

## DISCUSSION

### Governor

In accordance with the State Government's charter, the Governor is its executive leader. In his name, the State Government does all of its business. As the well-wisher of the people, the hiring authority, a representative of the President of India or the Union government in the state, the promoter of cordial relations between the Union and the States, and the protector of the interests of the All India Service personnel working in the State, the Governor plays a significant role in each of these areas. The Governor has a special role to play in defusing political crises. In times of political crisis, the Governor has a big say in how the state council of ministers and the legislature will function.

Additionally, he has a special responsibility for providing the president with private reports on the operation of the state government. We just saw how actively the governor of Karnataka, H.R. Bhargava, handled the state's constitutional dilemma. The Governor is compelled to play a significant part in reestablishing political normalcy in the State whenever the Chief Minister of a state [6]–[8].

## Appointment

Our Constitution's framers used a Canadian model for the appointment of the governor. The Indian President appoints the Governor. The President follows two norms when picking the Governor: consulting the Chief Minister of the relevant state; and selecting an accomplished individual from outside the state. Some precise guidelines to be followed in the appointment of the Governor have been given by the Sarkaria Commission. It has underlined the necessity of choosing famous, non-controversial people from the minority sections to serve as governors. In the current situation, former senior bureaucrats are being selected as governors, along with former military leaders and those leaders who have the support of legislators. The appointment of members of the ruling party as governors in the Union administration has nearly become standard procedure. As stated in the Constitution, the President appoints the governors, although in reality, the Prime Minister just advises and consents to these appointments. The President is not allowed to nominate whoever he wants.

## Tenure

The Governor serves a five-year term. In the presence of the Chief Justice of the relevant High Court, he takes the oath of office. If he decides to leave his position before his term is over, he may do so by submitting his resignation to the President of India. It should be emphasized that the Governor serves at the pleasure of the Indian President. Here, the Union Council of Ministers' judgment governs the President's pleasure. The Governor may be dismissed by the President at any time and without cause or prior notice. The Governor may also be appointed by the President to oversee neighboring States or transferred to other states.

## Position of Governor under the Constitution

According to the Indian Constitution, the states will follow the same parliamentary system of governance as the national government. As a result, the Governor now only serves as a fictitious executive; the true executive is the council of ministers, which is presided over by the Chief Minister. In other words, the Chief Minister-led council of ministers must advise and assist the Governor in the execution of his duties. However, under the following situations, the Governor may exercise his or her discretion.

1. A suggestion that the president impose his rule over the state.
2. While performing his duties as the head of any state or union, according to reservation of an Indian Administration territory for the President's consideration.
3. Neighboring union territory.
4. Calculating the amount due to the autonomous Tribal District Council from Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura, and Mizoram as royalty resulting from mineral exploration permits.
5. Requesting information from the Chief Minister about state legislative and administrative issues.
6. Appointing the Chief Minister in the absence of a certain majority for any party in the state assembly.
7. The dismissal of the Council of Ministers if it is unable to demonstrate that the state Legislative Assembly has confidence in it.
8. If the council of ministers loses a majority, the state Legislative Assembly is dissolved.

As a result, in the Indian federal system, the Constitution gives the office of a governor a dual function. In addition to serving as the President of the Center, he is the state's constitutional head of state.

### **The Governor's Role in the State Government**

The role of the governor in state government activities is crucial. He carries out his duties by reporting to the President and following the advice of the Chief Minister-led State Council of Ministers. He keeps in touch and gets along well with the actual executive leaders of the union and state governments. He observes that the state government's political and executive leaders work hard to advance the interests of the populace. He is in charge of making sure that the state government's business is conducted in conformity with the constitution.

He has to make sure that the ministers and bureaucrats uphold the constitutional and democratic principles by refusing to give in to political and administrative pressures. Without engaging in active politics, he positively contributes to the state's growth and development. Therefore, a governor-designate must have particular traits, such as a bright mind, a secular outlook, a humanitarian approach, national integrity, etc. He must be unbiased toward both the party in power and the opposition, by acknowledging his limitations and upholding constitutional traditions, he can gain the support of the populace.

### **Critical analysis**

The Governor is merely a national and constitutional head of state, much like the president of India. Except for limited discretionary powers, all of the powers granted to him by the Constitution are used with the recommendation of the Council of Ministers. However, there are some areas where the governor's viewpoint has recently generated controversy. The first is the nomination of the Chief Minister, the second is the dissolution of the Legislature, and the third is the imposition of President Rule under Article 356 in the State. Although the Governor's involvement in these areas was not consistent, it was nonetheless criticized as being favourable to the party at the center and acting as Agent to the Centre. One example is the removal of the governments of Jammu and Kashmir and Andhra Pradesh in 1984.

The debate over the contentious role of governments actually began much earlier, in 1967, following the 4th general elections, in which a sizable number of non-Congress administrations were installed in the states of north India as well as in Tamil Nadu. When the Janata government took office, the governors' contentious role persisted. In 1978, the Janata administration ousted non-Janata governments. After 1980, Congress-I followed the same tendency and rejected non-Congress governments.

Even the center-right government has on numerous times fired governors without giving a cause. When the National Front government, led by V.P. Singh as prime minister, was established in December 1989, it made the decision to request the resignation of every governor that had been chosen by the previous Congress government[9], [10].



**Head of Ministry**

The Chief Minister is a state's actual executive in India. He may be seen as the Prime Minister's opposite at the state level. Although the Governor is the state's chief executive, the Chief Minister actually serves in that capacity. The Chief Minister will have a significant impact on the political landscape of the state as the leader of the parliament, the party in power, and the State Council of Ministers. He has an impact on state public opinion. Our Indian constitution's articles 163 and 164 discuss the Chief Minister's position. According to Article 163, the Governor receives guidance from the Chief Minister and other Ministers as they carry out their duties.

**Appointment**

The Chief Minister is chosen by the Governor, according to Article 164(i) of the Constitution. After each general election, the Governor usually names the leader of the dominant party in the Legislative Assembly as the Chief Minister. The Governor looks into all options for establishing a stable government if no party can win a majority in the Legislative Assembly. In order to create the government, he invites a leader who is capable of winning the confidence and support of the majority of MPs from other parties. When choosing such a leader as Chief Minister, the Governor requires him to demonstrate the majority on the Legislative Assembly floor within a given time frame. In no legal proceeding may the method used by the Governor to select the Chief Minister be contested.

**Term of Office**

The Chief Minister's tenure is not set in stone. The Chief Minister and other Ministers are required to hold office and use their authority at the Governor's pleasure, according to article 164. The State Legislative Assembly is ultimately responsible for the Chief Minister and the Ministers. The implication is that the Chief Minister is in charge of the Indian Administration during the Governor's approval and the support of the majority of lawmakers in the state legislature. Therefore, the chief minister makes every effort to win over the Governor and the majority of the state's Legislative Assembly members.

**Requirements**

Typically, the Chief Minister must meet the same requirements as those set forth for State Legislative Assembly members. The sole distinction is that the Chief Minister can also be someone who is not a member of the State Legislative Assembly. Assuming this is the case, he must run for election to that Legislative Assembly within six months of taking office.

**Power and Functions**

The Chief Minister performs a variety of duties and has broad authority. The Chief Minister has the discretion and accountability for ministry formation. He selects party members or constituent parties in the case of a coalition and suggests the Governor designate those individuals as ministers. He offers the Governor suggestions regarding the distribution of ministerial posts. Additionally, he offers the Governor advice on how to remove a minister from his position. Governor and Cabinet liaison. The Chief Minister serves as the Governor and Cabinet liaison.

He informs the governor of the state cabinet's choices. He informs the Cabinet Ministers of the Governor's recommendations. The Chief Minister serves as the majority party's leader in the State Legislative Assembly. He leads the legislative bodies of his party throughout various House debates. He offers the presiding officers his support for the orderly conduct of the business outside the House through. He steps in to the talks whenever there is an uproar in the House over the ministers' responses, provides a thorough justification for the subject under consideration, and maintains order in the chamber.

### CONCLUSION

The Governors' position has evolved in the current era of coalition politics. In this regard, former President Abdul Kalam underlined that governors must have traits like integrity, objectivity, adherence to constitutional norms, and openness. He reaffirmed that the Governors must work to protect the interests of the average person, especially the weaker segments of members of the scheduled castes and minorities. According to the study presented above, an Indian state's Chief Minister is actually in charge of its political and administrative structure. He is the chairman of the council of ministers, the major planner, the political head of important departments, the coordinator of state administration, the instigator of administrative reforms, the protector of the civil service, the leader of his political party, and the voice of the people. He must use political sageness and administrative acumen with sagacity to handle the many facets of his broad and diversified task set.

The position of the Chief Minister has become significantly stronger than it was before because of the apparent trend toward the concentration of power in the seats of government; he is no longer simply *primus inter pares* (First among equals). Compared to his cabinet colleagues, he is significantly taller. The Chief Minister's personality, including his skills, mannerisms, and attitude, take on a crucial role in this circumstance. The Chief Minister's vision and ability are key factors in how well the state is run. He or she cannot lead the state with effectiveness and efficiency unless they have the backing of the populace, party cadre, and majority of the legislators.

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## CHAPTER 20

### **A BRIEF OVERVIEW: LPG REFORMS' ON INDIAN ADMINISTRATION**

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#### **ABSTRACT:**

The third five-year plan presented the federal government with a resource dilemma. Private enterprises have now been introduced as a result of this. The topic of privatization has received a lot of attention recently, reflecting a global desire to reduce the role of the state and expand private ownership and the private sector. In many nations around the world, privatization has grown to be a significant topic of public policy. Many public firms in India are suffering significant losses and are unable to raise the necessary funds. The discussion for privatizing public companies began in India, particularly when Rajiv Gandhi, the country's then-prime minister, embraced several liberalism initiatives because to a shortage of resources.

The government, led by Shi Narasimha Rao as prime minister, has been compelled to enact many liberalization measures to open up the economy, including letting foreign companies to operate in Indian businesses and delicensing sectors, among other things. All of these actions support the national privatization movement. Public sector privatization is not a recent development. Japan was the country to do this first about a century ago. It encouraged a lot of businesses, and after they ran successfully, it turned the businesses over to private businesses. The government now has a revolving fund to support an increasing number of industries thanks to this strategy.

#### **KEYWORDS:**

Administrative Principles, Globalization, Liberalization, Privatization, Public Administration.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

It is thought that privatization compels management to pursue profit objectives. John Moore, the British treasury's financial secretary, asserts that privatization frees managers and staff members and enables them to realize their full potential. In an activity or in the ownership of assets, privatization refers to the act of diminishing the involvement of the government or increasing the role of the private sector.

David Held defines privatization as the replacement of a non-market allocation system with a market system. According to D.R. Pendse, privatization is any procedure that lessens the role of the government in the economy of the country. The privatization of governmental entities to private parties is a global phenomenon that has affected both developed and developing nations[1]–[3].

### **Privatization in India**

The topic of privatization has emerged as one of the most contentious ones in today's global political and economic conversation. Since top bureaucrats, ministers, and politicians control the public sector entities in India, they have turned them into tools in their hands to:

1. Monopolize economic decision-making
2. Fudge perks, like as the free use of PSU vehicles and planes for personal enjoyment.
3. Raise money for political campaigns and other projects that further their own self-interest.

These have ruined the commercial failure of India's public sector organizations, which is why private sector organizations have emerged.

### **Alternative Methods of Privatizing Public Services**

1. The most frequent technique is contracting out. In this approach, the government maintains oversight over the activity and continues to fund it, but contracts out its management to one or more private businesses in exchange for a fee.
2. Franchise agreements are still another prevalent method of privatization. In this arrangement, the government gives a private party permission to offer a specific service in a specific location.
3. Vouchers are a relatively new method of privatization; they are redeemable vouchers that potential users of public services receive and can use to obtain public services from any one group of alleviation authorized suppliers.
4. Volunteer work is another instance of privatization where candidates are sought out for honorary public service by people, groups, or institutions.

A society can benefit from privatization by sharing governance knowledge and responsibilities, as well as by strengthening participatory democracy. Additionally, it is a practical technique to find managerial talent outside the organization. It is possible to debate whether privatization always results in the process of economic progress. Privatization is being implemented in cities against their will and not for ideological reasons. D.R. Pendse claimed that privatization in its broadest meaning covered such things as divestiture, de-Nationalization, delaying the prospects of the state, and liquidating any state-owned businesses. Samuel Paul claims that increasing productivity and completion, lowering the public deficit, generating cash flow, removing political meddling in business management, and expanding ownership of economic assets are the main objectives of privatization.

### **India's 1985 Privatization Policy**

The seventh five-year plan (1985–1990) was the one that initially started the privatization agenda. In most developing nations, there has been a trend toward privatization since 1985. Indira Gandhi liberalized economic policy in January 1985. She was in charge of laying the groundwork for privatization. It loosened up the industrial licensing process. In order to modernize and grow a production, licensing was eliminated. Import taxes were lowered so that international investment would be welcomed.

Even global corporations were given permission to implement automation and modernization. Financial imbalances first appeared in India. Deficit finance, ineffective spending by government agencies, and a significant indirect tax burden on the general people were the causes. Therefore, the government adopted a privatization strategy. This policy will only be continued by the new administration. They improved it by adding realism and development. Along with liberalizing the new policy, the new administration started evaluating public sector initiatives[4], [5].

### **Public Sector's Role**

India's new industrial policy has paved the way for privatization there. Since January 1985, there have been almost 50 decisions regarding the liberalization of certain industries. The agricultural industry is given a significant role in the seventh five-year plan's efforts to create jobs. An important focus of the 7th five-year plan is on setting up the framework for more independent work. The 1991 introduction of a new industrial policy by the Indian government included privatization as a key component. The Government of India stated, The public enterprise sector has not generated internal surpluses on a large scale and because of its inadequate exposure to competition has contributed to a high cost structure, in the official memorandum to the IMF on the country's economic policies for 1991/92/93. In emerging nations where the industrial sector and occasionally crucial components of the commercial sector are substantially dominated by private firms, privatization is frequently advised. The 1988 Abid Hussain Committee Report advocated for a more liberalized strategy for private investment in core industries.

This suggests that more than 50% of an asset has been sold to private investors. In April 1988, the World Bank argued that privatization was the only way to attain autonomy in the Indian setting. Ironically, privatization has now evolved into a justification for obtaining funds. However, privatization provides most nations a better future than State Corporation. Private sector businesses in India have been generating large profits. In a study of 541 big public limited businesses for the year 1985–1986 performed by the Reserve Bank of India, gross profits indicated a marginally higher growth rate of 20.6% in 1985–1986 compared to 20.3% in 1984–1985. Beginning in the middle of 1991, the government made significant adjustments to its policies regarding foreign investment, change rate, industry, fiscal affairs, and other factors that collectively make up economic policy. The privatization of a significant portion of the public sector is one of these transitions' biggest complications.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Area of LPG Policy Features**

Under the following four headings liberalization, privatization of P.S., globalization, & market-friendly state the key components of the new policy may be discussed. The main goal of the strategy is to give entrepreneurs the freedom to engage in any sector of the economy. The capital markets have also been liberalized and made accessible to private businesses looking for funding. The business owner has the option of purchasing foreign currency at market rates. This has been made possible by allowing the rupee to be convertible for current account transactions involving the export and purchase of commodities and services.



They will now compete to take advantage of the market prospects, which will encourage contests among them in this market-oriented atmosphere. The vastly expanded potential for privatizing how the economy operates is another feature of the new strategy. The new policy calls for the privatization of public sector entities; in the first place, 11 of the 17 public sector-reserved industries have been turned over to the private sector[6]–[8].

The new economic strategy has also made the economy more outwardly focused, causing it to now be governed by both the domestic and global markets. The rupee was devalued in July 1991 in order to get rid of the artificially controlled rupee exchange rate. Additionally, the rupee has been declared fully convertible on current and payment-balance accounts. Out of 17 industries earmarked for it, 11 have shown to be worthwhile, and the Union is open to the private sector. The state's involvement is limited to specific non-market areas. The adoption of macroeconomic policies by the government is also required to preserve market stability. As a result, the new economic strategy has brought about a system that is focused on the market. The public sector, which up to now has taken the lead in development, no longer controls the same dominating positions in the economy. The private sector currently occupies a larger and more significant portion of the economy. The new policy's key reason is that it is compatible with the economic circumstances in India at the moment. It will increase the effectiveness with which resources are used. Economic growth is also anticipated to pick up significantly. The convertible rupee mechanism on current account will help to balance the balance of payments as well. The most acceptable method of deprivation is to liberalize government policy by removing the boundaries between the public and private sectors, as stated in the Industrial Policy Resolution of 1956.

### **Globalization Definitions**

The fact that there are so many definitions of globalization shows how complicated the phenomenon is as well as how the meaning of the word changes throughout time and geography. Public services have been quick to adapt to these new multilevel governance models, which are being proposed as a beneficial tool for translating governmental responsibilities. In fact, changes over the past 20 years have happened so quickly that it has been called a paradigm shift. All have been forced to refashion approaches and processes as a result of global trends. Furthermore, it is becoming clear that universal mantras are being embraced by everyone, regardless of the unique characteristics of each country, supporting the argument that global pressures frequently produce similar responses and homogenous institutional effects. Market capitalism is establishing itself aggressively now that state socialism and its command institutions have collapsed. The acceptance of New Right politics has fueled the growth of international organizations like the World Bank and the IMF. Citizens are left with little chance to play any significant social role as political regimes embrace liberalization, privatization, and globalization since they are seen as purely rational self-interest agents capable of self-enhancement. The surge of management gurus who are shattering the governance formula built on this assumption is giving ill public sectors new life. They have identified a set of similarities that they think are essential to developing new management models for both the public and private sectors.

### **Marketization's Evolution**

The dominance of libertarians in political circles has led to the assertion that collectivist practices and bureaucratic stifling, which nipped the competitive spirit and aided only entrenched vested interests, were the primary causes of the crises of the 1970s. As a result, marketization and laissez-faire are relentlessly promoted as the only economic system capable of resolving the twin crises of state socialism and bureaucratic mismanagement. The state's inability to efficiently handle the plethora of demands placed on it is being made worse by the simultaneous intensification of globalization. The terms disorganized capitalism, flexible accumulation, post-Fordism, and network society are used to define the new system of global accumulation. All agree that this restructured capitalism is founded on a neo-liberal form of regulation and flexible regime of accumulation, notwithstanding differences over particulars. The methods in which nation governments have transitioned from welfare to a competition state are signs of neo-liberalism. This is evident in government initiatives to de-regulate the economy in an effort to boost the ostensible efficacy of market forces and increase global competitiveness by encouraging the growth of a suitable knowledge economy.

Structural adjustment policies are intended to expose erstwhile protected economies to the forces of global competition in a large portion of the third world. These regulations are made to let nations use their individual comparative advantages in a world of free commerce. A homogenization of answers, reactions, and solutions to problems results from the instantaneous and unrestricted flow of goods, people, knowledge, information, and images across national borders. The constant contact between different spheres and the spreading of opportunities and knowledge has a pluralizing effect. This interaction also results from the stretching of social, political, and economic activity across the world. These changes have been seen as fostering a sense of vulnerability and global belonging that transcends national allegiances. The effects of various institutional assemblages, from regional to multinational, are added to these processes. The influence of national agencies and institutions is considerably diminished by the global political orientation and broader perspective created by transnational agencies and actors. Globalization has also affected the official authority of the state.

### **National and World Players**

The spatial reach of the modern system of production, distribution, and trade has diminished the ability of national institutions to direct a nation's economy and has produced a rift between institutions of sovereign states and stakeholders in the global economy. Decisions made solely in the national interest generally take a backseat as the economic process, investment, and production become more globalized, particularly if economies lack the international clout to support them. National strategies and centrally planned economic growth patterns are mostly irrelevant in the current global environment. This refers to the broad opening of borders brought about by the removal of state regulatory obstacles and protectionist policies, which enables quick financial transactions, communication, and exchange. Following the Second World War, Keynesian macroeconomic planning which was successful when embedded capitalism prevailed provided the political and economic underpinnings for both national and international economic regulation.

However, as the liberal consensus broke down in the wake of the 1980s economic crisis, it became more challenging to manage the national economy and buck global trends. All economies have been severely impacted by the forces and limitations of the global economy, but newly industrialized states were particularly hard hit by sudden fluctuations. According to Wattenhall, a global trend toward privatization began to emerge from the beginning of the 1990s.

### **Administration, government, and globalization**

The management of the growing number of devolved systems turned into a process. The government became entangled with powerful global forces in framing its function. The basis upon which the prevailing tradition was based was substantially transformed by the growing relevance of the twin forces of devolution and globalization. In modern times, a theory of public administration means a theory of politics as well. A theory of public administration in our time is a theory of governance as well, is added to it. The term governance refers to the connections between a government and its larger political, social, and administrative environment. It serves as a way of capturing the initiatives used by governments around the globe to reduce their size while attempting to meet citizen demands. Governance is the processes and institutions, both formal and informal, that guide and restrain the collective activities of a group, assert Robert O. Keohane and Joseph Nye. Increasing the ability of the government to seek the common good while maintaining external and internal controls is the goal of governance.

However, the term governance continues to be ambiguous because it places unavoidable pressure on the government to do more with less by promoting diversification, devolution, independence, responsiveness, and autonomy, among other things. In spite of the otherwise seamless alignment between the promotion of neoliberal ideals and economics for the countries, the argument over governance in Indian Administration has a certain amount of complexity. The simultaneous insistence on a limited state and on excellent governance is the root of the mess [9], [10]. In order to govern, the state's size and reach must be reduced while its capacity must be increased. The traditional liberals concur that the bureaucracy shouldn't expand excessively. The bureaucracy's innate Parkinson inclination is sometimes blamed for its underperformance and eventual failure, which transformed the structure of government administration. Its demise was fueled by bureaucratic aggrandizement, which prompted the need to change the most well-established method of conducting business in government. Traditional administration was feared to be linked to bureaucracy that helps pursue their own internal logic rather than the democratically elected purposes and that they relentlessly grow and become all engulfing in the civic life, according to this worry. Governmental involvement is frequently seen in the context of totalitarianism and even sweeping governmental authority.

### **CONCLUSION**

A new public service paradigm has emerged as a result of the transformational nature of change in public service management. In reality, the governance agenda calls for changes at the macro, meso, and micro levels, from the wide global arena to within micro organization operations. The logic of putting best logical practices into action includes political response and evaluation of the change programs being distributed under the banner of governance as a whole.

The changed agenda, which aims to curtail bureaucratic dominance and replace it with a more flexible governance system, necessitates moving slowly because doing so will have social, economic, and political costs, all of which are crucial factors in creating a change agenda. The combined effects of political, economic, cultural, and technical change have led to a particular configuration of structural mechanisms and principles that have all but sealed the doom of the conventional methods of conducting government.

However, the emergence of reformed governance and organizational structures clearly demonstrates a departure from adhocracy as the ideological organizing model in favor of a new style of managing governmental operations. The paradigm shift promotes the idea of less and better governance while acknowledging the new realities of globalization and marketization. In our context, capacity refers to the ability to carry out development activities, such as advancing democratic governance, enhancing economic policymaking institutions, bolstering the capacity of civil society to contribute to national development, and fostering a climate of social empowerment where citizens can meaningfully influence decisions that have an impact on their lives.

They oppose the idea of governance since traditional bureaucratic processes stand for high taxes, corporatism, and market-resistance, all of which hinder efficiency and the free market. This mindset resulted in hostility to Weberian administrative methods and a focus on unrestricted capitalism.

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## CHAPTER 21

### DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN GOVERNANCE: DEVELOPMENT AND ONGOING CHALLENGES OF E-GOVERNANCE

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#### ABSTRACT:

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are used in e-governance to assist government operations, democratic procedures, and interactions between citizens, civil society, business, and the government. The evolution of e-governance is examined in terms of five interrelated goals: a policy framework, improved public services, high-quality and cost-effective government operations, citizen engagement in democratic processes, and administrative and institutional reform. These goals were developed over more than two decades of technological innovation and policy response. The biggest investments and advancements in e-governance have been made in bettering public services and governmental operations, according to this summary analysis of e-governance in US states and local governments. On many fronts, policy development has advanced, but a growing number of complicated challenges are continuously added by new policy concerns. Enhancing democracy and investigating the potential effects of e-governance on administrative and institutional transformation appear to have made the least progress. For the foreseeable future, ICT-enabled governance will continue to develop, creating a dynamic environment for ongoing learning and action.

#### KEYWORDS:

Administrative Reforms, Communication, E-Governance, Information, Institutional Reforms, Public Administration.

#### INTRODUCTION

Information and communication technologies (ICTs), which are continually growing, have penetrated almost every element of business, government, and daily life over the past 20 years. The amount and variety of information available online has skyrocketed. There are numerous ways to create, share, and use it, and these ways can produce both public and private value. Global communication networks enable people, groups, and organizations to interact at any time and from any location. The networked society is complicated and open to new dangers, including those to stability, privacy, security, and stewardship. The risk and opportunity-filled climate today poses ever-changing difficulties for public service. Its impact on the public sector has been described in a variety of ways, from the next American Revolution to exciting but incremental change (Council for Excellence in Government 2001). Government today is obviously different from how it was in 1993 when the Winter Commission was debating the future of state and local public service, even though the full impact of these developments is not yet apparent[1], [2].

The technology-related issues covered in the 1993 Winter Commission report are still relevant for American states and local governments, but they now also present significant new difficulties. Despite the extensive use of computer technology in the back offices of government in the early 1990s, the majority of public officials often interacted in person or via memo, letter, or telephone. Office technology consisted of word processing, spreadsheets, and internal e-mail systems that typically only functioned inside a single building where it was present. Government departments and levels of government still mostly used paper mail for communication. Today, contact with and inside government is conducted mostly through the Internet, international e-mail, laptops, cell phones, and other mobile devices. The majority of official government documents were still retained and preserved on paper at that time, despite the fact that many regular functions were supported by computerized transaction processing systems. Public records are now born digital, and many are in danger of being lost. A government database in the 1990s was nearly usually connected to a single service or regulation program run by a single agency.

These days, the same data is frequently transferred across networks, stored on portable devices, and made accessible for purposes aside from those for which it was initially gathered. Simultaneously, as information is used and reused in interconnected, overlapping organizational networks that frequently stretch deeper into the non-profit and private sectors, the boundaries between organizations, sectors, and levels of government are becoming more permeable. Government and the general public contact considerably more frequently via email, websites, and interactive voice response systems than they do in person or on paper. Government is even starting to interact in digitally created virtual worlds, blurring the line between real-world and online communities.

### **The Development of E-Governance and Its Ongoing Challenges**

At the University at Albany, Sharon S. Dawes teaches public administration and policy as an associate professor and senior fellow at the Center for Technology in Government (CTG). From 1993 through 2007, she served as the CTG's founding director, guiding it to prominence in applied research on digital governance. She was chosen to serve as the first president of the Digital Government Society of North America in 2006. A fellow of the National Academy of Public Administration, she was elected in 2006. She is a member of the National Science Foundation, National Archives and Records Administration, and United Nations University advisory committees.

Her primary areas of interest in research are cross-border information sharing and integration, international research collaboration, and government information strategy and management. The emergence of e-governance in American state and local governments is the main topic of this essay. Taking a quick glance at the growth of e-governance in the United States in terms of technological acceptance, policy developments, and implementation priorities—with an emphasis on state and municipal governments in particular—it starts off the Chapter. The key points from the research literature are then presented, together with remarks about how well e-governance is being evaluated. The article ends with some ideas for the future of research and innovation.



## Historical development

The reinventing government movement demanded a drastic shift away from bureaucratic government toward an entrepreneurial government that is innovative, catalytic, purpose and customer driven, and results oriented in the early 1990s. Reinvention and the innovative application of information technology (IT) were intimately related after the Clinton-Gore National Performance Review (NPR). Early efforts were made by government agencies to rethink work processes and support them with new technology applications that were centered on the needs of customers rather than the needs or structures of agencies as a response. In the course of this procedure, the term electronic government was created. For easy access to the government, elected officials started making promises to put citizens online instead of in line (NPR 1993)[3], [4]. The National Science Foundation (1999) coined the term digital government, which offered a slightly broader perspective and focused on the use of information and technology to support and improve public policies and government operations, engage citizens, and provide comprehensive and prompt services.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's definition states that the use of information and communication technologies, and particularly the Internet, as a tool to achieve better government is what the organization means by this. According to OECD 2008, this means achieving better policy outcomes, higher quality services, greater engagement with citizens, and advancing the public reform agenda. The World Bank adds citizen empowerment through access to information to its definition.

Together, these increasingly broad perspectives cover not only administration and services but also democratic procedures and interactions between citizens, civil society, business, and the government. When taken as a whole, they make up what is now known as e-governance. Examining e-governance in terms of five interconnected goals. A policy framework is necessary to legitimize e-governance because it is based on laws and policies relating to information. They establish policy objectives and lay out the guidelines and criteria that will govern how data will be collected, utilized, safeguarded, and shared by the public, corporate, and non-profit sectors.

E-governance goals for service enhancements embrace a commonsense approach that swaps an organizational perspective for a customer orientation, giving individuals and businesses seeking information or services from the government access, convenience, and choice. A wide range of managerial, professional, and technical improvement goals address efficiency as well as infrastructure investments, information management and use, organizational innovation, risk management, procurement reform, workforce capabilities, and performance assessment. — High quality and cost-effective government operations.

Citizen participation in democratic processes, often known as e-participation, spans the gamut of democratic procedures. It encompasses public engagement with government, political discourse, and public consultation, which refers to the procedures for including the general public in the agenda-setting process. It also involves accessibility and usability of technology and information material.

### **Institutional and administrative reforms**

Reforms relates to the structures and procedures of government as well as the duties and responsibilities it assigns to the private and nonprofit sectors for carrying out public functions, with an emphasis on responsibility, transparency, and trust. The culture of government and how the public service views its place in relation to governance, citizens, and society are other issues that are addressed by reform. As a result, the challenges of e-governance go far beyond effective IT management, organizational flexibility, and technical competence, which were the main issues noted by the Winter Commission. By 2008, economic and social changes brought about by ICT breakthroughs and the means to exploit them had resulted in a significant number of policy reactions and related governmental measures.

### **DISCUSSION**

According to the study, the introduction of IT into government employment and workplaces had a significant impact on skills, work processes, job design, organizational structures and controls, as well as the demand for new types of policies and leadership behaviors. Small stand-alone computers were increasingly used in program, policy, and administrative units due to the early popularity of desktop computing. By providing them with tools for niche applications, this breakthrough liberated analysts and program managers from the constraints of highly organized and specialized mainframe systems. The PC led to a fundamental shift in the information processing abilities of all types of government employees as a result. These modest systems were first connected through local area networks, which laid the groundwork for a very limited amount of information sharing. The World Wide Web and the Mosaic Web browser were created at a time when the early Internet was developing quickly in research but neither made significant inroads into government until much later in the decade.

Important policy foundations were set at this period by the NPR and the Partnership for Reinventing Government that followed. A national law enforcement network, access to government information, tax filing systems, investments in information infrastructure, and workforce development were among the NPR's IT objectives. These objectives were supported by significant private sector outsourcing and contracting as well as significant policy attempts to improve technology procurement and management. Government agencies have to monitor, enhance, and report performance to Congress and the general public via legislative measures including the Government Performance and Results Act (1993).

### **Networks, service expansion, and management innovation in the mid-1990s**

Although networks had significantly increased in size and capability by the middle of the 1990s, they were still mostly devoted to certain tasks or organizations. For public safety, education, human services, and other program areas, several states ran various networks. But within a few years, the Internet's commercialization made it feasible and affordable to start connecting various networks to operate over common backbones. The first basic public sector websites started to develop at the same time. Email gradually migrated from proprietary and centralized agency implementations to global connection through the open Internet protocols.

A new leadership position, the chief information officer, was mandated by additional policies, such as those embodied in the Clinger-Cohen Act due to the high level of public spending on IT. These policies were expected to result in better IT investment decisions and fewer problematic implementations. The application of technology strategies and resources to overall government or agency missions as well as the management of overspending and failed system issues fell under the purview of state and municipal chief information officers. ICTs started to be seen as strategic assets for the government, influenced by changes in the private sector, with the potential to aid policy makers and program managers in redesigning and integrating services to support crucial stakeholder relationships and overarching policy objectives.

This movement was followed by a growing trend toward outsourcing IT tasks to the private sector, which was thought to be more cost-effectively done outside of government. During this time, laws were passed to modernize and increase the general public's access to telecommunications and government information, such as the Electronic Freedom of Information Act Amendments of 1996 and the Telecommunications Act of 1996, respectively.

Reports on the progress made toward ensuring that all Americans may access communications and information regardless of their location, financial level, or level of education were started by assessments of the digital divide (NTIA 1995). E-government initiatives were started by the American government as the Internet and World Wide Web became more accessible. Most early efforts were made to streamline paper-intensive operations and increase their efficiency, or they were modest attempts to post simple descriptive data online. Later, organizations started experimenting with websites where users could get papers and details about the organization's structures and programs. Visitors were able to start interacting with government agencies digitally through e-mail or Web forms.

With a concentration on electronic transactions that allowed people to actually perform various types of business with the government, such as paying fines or taxes, applying for a student loan, or renewing a driver's license, electronic services to citizens later became the model of e-government. These electronic services have been (and still are) greatly influenced by private sector initiatives in electronic commerce as well as by the quick development and adoption of new technology in all facets of society[5]–[7].

### **Late 1990s: Consolidation of IT Management, Information Management, and Service Expansion**

At all levels of government, Web adoption advanced quickly in the late 1990s. A wide range of Web-based applications and information sources have been developed as a result of new capabilities like wireless networks and sophisticated search engines, which have increased both the demand for information and their availability. Data mining and other analytical methods, as well as geographic information systems, were increasingly used. Shared data repositories were first developed by data cooperatives, like the one run by the New York State Geographic Information System Clearinghouse (and were based on formal sharing agreements as well as shared standards for description and application. Nearly all states have statewide information management initiatives for the criminal justice system.

For instance, the 1998-launched JNET effort in Pennsylvania grew to become a statewide information management infrastructure for justice applications spanning more than 15 organizations at all three levels of government. These cross-boundary activities created a pressing demand for joint governance arrangements where several agencies cooperate on decisions and split costs and benefits.

There have been major new technology hazards. The market for new products to safeguard data and systems from hackers and other risks was created as a result of networkinvasive computer viruses, which drove awareness, education, and monitoring efforts. The potential of critical systems failing if they underestimated the date shift to a new century was raised by the millennium calendar change from 1999 to 2000. In response, the federal government, states, and business organizations organized a national effort to get ready for Y2K. States and local governments are given the chance to assess and fix their information systems in advance of the date shift, as well as to carry out some significant modernizations as outdated systems were improved, replaced, or completely eliminated. Enterprise-level IT planning, infrastructure, and resource management were prioritized during Y2K remediation. As a result, the federal government, states, and significant towns started to design enterprise architectures, which are essentially plans for rationalizing, controlling, and expanding information and communications investments and operations as assets for the entire government. Strategic IT plans for the entire state have become popular tools for determining goals and tracking progress in IT management. The Rehabilitation Act of 1998's section 508 modifications, which mandated that online government resources be accessible to people with disabilities, were a manifestation of a persistent concern with access. Additionally, standards and guidelines controlling the use of digital signatures and the veracity of electronic records were adopted as a result of the promotion and regulation of electronic commerce[8], [9].

### **Security, consolidation, sharing and preserving information, and elections after 2001**

The Office of Management and Budget reported in 2001 that the federal government invested \$45 billion annually in IT. Large states spend more than a billion dollars apiece annually, bringing the total annual IT investment across all levels of government to around \$100 billion (NASCIO, 2005). Major e-government initiatives in many states and localities addressed a wide range of back-office administrative tasks like financial management, payroll, and accounting as well as program operations like eligibility determinations and benefit payments. They also addressed more types of online citizen services. The 2000 presidential election brought into sharp focus the use of ICTs for political campaigns and discourse, voter registration, and election technologies all of which have grown significantly over succeeding election cycles. Following September 11, 2001, a strong emphasis on security temporarily replaced the e-government's orientations toward improving management and providing better citizen service. Large elements of state and municipal plans for further e-governance development were placed on hold while resources were moved to cybersecurity with the enactment of the USA PATRIOT Act (2001) and related state and local public safety concerns. Policymakers gradually began to focus again on electronic services while continuing to place a priority on homeland security, first-response technologies, and other related issues.

### Issues between States and Local Governments

The most important e-governance concerns facing state and municipal officials today are more complicated and intricately entwined with organizational and social context than ever before. Massive amounts of data are being connected via networks from an expanding number of sources, with implications for the social, political, and economic geographies of governance. Due to our reliance on large databases and networks growing, security has gained increased significance. We now need to secure people, businesses, systems, and infrastructure from fraud, mistakes, attacks, and hackers. Meanwhile, leadership continues to pay attention to issues including service delivery, effective management, IT investments, and public access. E-governance-related subjects are consistently among the top ones mentioned on these organizations' home sites or found through straightforward searches. Some, like security, affect all spheres and levels of government, while others, like broadband deployment and e-commerce issues, are more exclusive to particular offices. None of the organizations explicitly state the concerns' priority. Security is the most pervasive theme by this rough standard. Security is a top priority for executive, legislative, and technical leaders, regardless of whether it is referred to as computer security, cybersecurity, homeland security, Internet crime, or any comparable term.

The second main area of concern for state and municipal governments, as well as from the executive, legislative, and technical viewpoints is privacy and identification. In many different fields, including business, health care, digital communications, financial concerns, and education, privacy is seen as a crucial element of trustworthy relationships. The design and delivery of personalized services, as well as the needs for electronic commerce and restricted and trusted access to systems, services, and information, are all impacted by personal identity and the capacity to authenticate and safeguard it. Another prevalent theme is enterprise IT management which views government as a whole and develops an IT strategy, infrastructure, and policy framework that prioritizes jurisdiction-wide benefits and interagency cooperation over the needs of specific departments or programs. This theme includes IT investment and procurement procedures, IT consolidation and shared services, and more. The functions and responsibilities of chief information officers and CIO councils are frequently the focus of notable IT leadership positions and governance frameworks. As governments contemplate how to deal with changing skill shortages and workforce demographics, IT workforce problems also figure prominently.

### CONCLUSION

In terms of public management, E-governance has advanced quickly from basic ICT use to support for highly structured administrative processes, to technology integration into government offices, to reliance on networks and other cutting-edge tools to change how services are provided and governmental processes are carried out. New management strategies and governance frameworks have also been created to better fit networked organizational types. Through investments in usability, accessibility policies, and technologies, as well as in information-rich Web sites, online transactions, and municipal networks, government has also become more accessible. E-governance has advanced more slowly in terms of democracy, with the obvious exception of political campaigns and e-voting.

Although there is a lot of room for improvement in terms of political dialogue, public consultation, and citizen and civil society engagement, only a small number of state and municipal governments have implemented or supported these e-governance features. Although cross-disciplinary and international research offer a wider literature, especially for topics related to democracy, e-governance research in these domains tends to follow these same trends. Therefore, the effects of technology advancement on the character, structures, and procedures of governance will continue to be a fertile ground for both scholarly inquiry and government innovation. It is conceivable that the term E-governance will lose its currency as soon as technology is no longer viewed as distinct from traditional governance procedures.

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## CHAPTER 22

### CHALLENGES OF INTERNAL SECURITY IN INDIA: A REVIEW

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#### ABSTRACT:

Our main national security concern right now is internal security. Internal security in India has been compromised by citizens' pervasive, deep sentiments of insecurity. There are several obstacles in the way of India's internal security. We have been working hard as a nation to both contain and, if feasible, eliminate them. In terms of resolving the past difficulties, a review of India's internal security shows a promising trajectory. However, the increasing number of terrorist attacks across the country, particularly in Jammu and Kashmir, Assam, Manipur, and Nagaland, continue to pose a severe danger to the nation's internal security. Additionally, there have been a number of significant serial explosions in the recent past that have caused enormous loss of life and property. As its power and geographic reach have increased, naxalism has reached as many as thirteen States and nearly 200 districts. The country's peace and order are still most seriously threatened by its consolidation. In light of this, the paper makes an effort to analyze the problems at hand, the solutions that have been tried, and suggests some potential solutions to allay the population of India's pervasive sense of uneasiness. Let's attempt to comprehend each of these issues separately.

#### KEYWORDS:

Border Control, Internal Security, Naxalism, Organized Crimes, Terrorism.

#### INTRODUCTION

For India's internal security, the social fault lines of caste, religion, gender, ethnicity, area, and language have long been of concern and continue to pose a severe threat. Both the slow-moving and ineffectual legal system and the politicized, ineffective, and unprofessional police force haven't helped the situation. Human rights abuses that frequently occur in the nation either as a result of the societal fault lines indicated above or, most regrettably, by the State's own agents have seriously harmed India's internal security. Additionally, the nation is currently experiencing a crisis in its governance due to elements like nepotism, favoritism, and administrative incompetence. The threat of corruption has made the issues with governance even more complicated. Internal security would be severely impacted by the widening divide between the haves and the have nots. Today's globe has seen a massive increase in crime. The notion of internal security has taken on new dimensions as a result of the new threats posed by cybercrime, counterfeit money, and white-collar crimes. To address these threats, new methods have had to be developed along with new laws and apparatus. A nation's capacity to safeguard its citizens' welfare, national existence, or ability to survive against a variety of challenges is referred to as national security. These dangers put a nation's interests in its geography, economy, politics, and sociocultural at risk [1]–[3].



Furthermore, a nation's security goes beyond defending its borders to include maintaining a tranquil, inclusive, technologically advanced society with high standards of living. External and internal security are two broad categories of national security. On the other hand, external security addresses external aggression by a foreign state. On the other hand, internal security is more dynamic since it addresses threats from both violent state actors and non-state ones. Natural disasters that jeopardize national interests are also included in the definition of internal security. The most important threats to India's internal security include secessionist movements in the Northeast and Jammu and Kashmir, the Left Wing Extremism movement, terrorist attacks by foreign and domestic terrorists, infiltration, illegal immigration, and trafficking in arms and drugs that crosses the nation's international borders. Furthermore, upholding law and order is another crucial aspect of internal security. Thus, one may argue that internal security is a factor that may be even more crucial than exterior security. This is primarily due to the fact that, in modern times, destabilizing a country is easier through the engineering of an internal security crisis than through the engineering of an external invasion, so internal security needs to be carefully taken care of on all fronts, whether it be through cross-border terrorism, cyber terrorism, or organized crime, internal security concerns cannot be ignored at any cost.

### **Relevance and Purpose**

Internal security is a fairly wide topic that can include anything that poses a threat to the lives and property of the nation's residents. Problems with law and order, environmental security, energy security, and economic security are only a few examples. The key agency for handling issues relating to internal security is the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) of the Indian government. The Ministry of Home Affairs continuously monitors the internal security situation, issues pertinent advisories, shares intelligence inputs, extends human resources and financial support, as well as advice and expertise to the State Governments for the maintenance of security, peace, and harmony without infringing upon the States' constitutional rights. The following are the primary areas under the MHA's supervision. The issue involves a wide range of issues, including how the government will respond to the various crisis situations that keep arising, as well as the role and degree of the army's involvement in managing and controlling the situation in these areas. These issues call for the involvement of a specific division of the MHA. Ex-PM Manmohan Singh identified left-wing extremism as the single greatest threat to the nation's internal security. The level to which the LWE ideology has permeated the nation and the Naxals' pervasive presence throughout the red corridor regions is a significant reason for concern. It is urgently necessary to reduce the Naxals' military capabilities and coerce them into engaging in productive talks with the government.

### **Issues Relating to the Upkeep of Law and Order and Organized Crime**

Public order and police are state subjects. The MHA has, however, occasionally advised the State Governments to concentrate more on enhancing the administration of the criminal justice system in order to ensure effective prevention and control of all crimes, with a focus on reducing crime against the SC/ST, women, children, and the elderly [4], [5]. Even while maintaining law and order is a governmental responsibility, in the modern world, the governments cannot handle law and order on their own. Without the Center's involvement, issues like organized crime,

communalism, and naxalism cannot be effectively addressed because non-state actors like international organizations and domestic NGOs support and finance the offenders of these crimes, which have inter-state dimensions. The Center, which provides the required information inputs and has the knowledge and experience to deal with aspects of crime that go beyond simple law and order issues and require the involvement of the police apparatus. Since dealing with such actors is essentially the responsibility of the Police, this topic also includes the element of police reforms incorporated into it.

### **Border Control**

The MHA's Border management division is in charge of safeguarding the nation's land and sea borders from forces with anti-national interests, preserving the free and uninterrupted flow of trade and commerce, and implementing plans for the development of border regions in order to both enhance border security and foster an environment of peace and goodwill. With the widespread use of computers and the internet The necessity to protect data and our information systems has become of highest importance in our information management systems. Cyber terrorism is being used more frequently by such hostile elements to make a statement and cause significant damage without endangering lives or using ammunition in the modern age, when it is becoming harder and harder to challenge the power of the State through conventional warfare and militant activities. As a result, the MHA has to create a special section to handle this aspect of internal security.

### **Disaster Preparedness**

Natural and man-made disasters, such as earthquakes, Tsunamis, and epidemics, have both significantly damaged lives and property and are therefore viewed as serious risks to domestic security. In fact, certain calamities, like the tsunami in 2004, did such tremendous harm that people are still horrified by the memory of it. This has become more crucial in light of growing environmental concerns around the world, where the threat of such catastrophes is intensifying. As a result, it was determined that a systematic disaster management plan was necessary in order to address the requirements for developing disaster policies, disaster response, building capacity, prevention, mitigation, and long-term rehabilitation. As a result, the MHA created a dedicated division to handle this issue.

### **Expatriate Immigration**

A clear immigration strategy must be developed and put into place in order to manage the entry of people who are either hostile to the nation or have the potential to cause serious issues with internal security. When we consider issues like the entry of Bangladeshis into the north-eastern states or, for that matter, the influx of Rohingya refugees from Myanmar into Indian territory, we can see how important this issue is. In addition to this, the movement of terrorists and members of the organized crime syndicate into and out of Indian territory is a constant source of worry because it has the potential to seriously compromise the nation's internal security situation. As a result, the MHA needs a specialized division to keep an eye on, oversee, and handle the situation on that account.

### **Intelligence agencies' function**

The management of both internal and external security issues is a responsibility that intelligence agencies are playing a larger and larger role in today's world. The function and position of the intelligence agencies must be addressed in any discussion of internal security. The MHA controls and oversees the Intelligence Bureau, which is the nodal body in charge of handling internal security issues[6]–[8]. However, the aforementioned areas are the distillate of the internal security issues, which shall constitute the subject of our treatment in this Chapter as well as the following Chapters, which are written to meet the requirements of the syllabus on internal security. The MHA also operates in some other areas, including official language, center-state relations, etc.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Terrorism**

In general, terrorism is the deliberate use of violence to spread fear among a population and, in turn, achieve a specific political goal. However, it lacks a generally accepted definition because terrorism typically involves complexity and controversy in addition to its intrinsic intensity and violence. Violence against noncombatants, primarily civilians, committed during times of peace or in times of war is typically referred to as terrorism. Notably, numerous political groups have been charged with utilizing terrorism to further their goals. These organizations include both right- and left-wing political parties, nationalist and religious organizations, revolutionaries, and governing bodies. India has had insurgency since it gained its independence, although at that time it was mostly confined to some regions of the North Eastern states, where some tribal and ethnic groups had organized and used violent tactics to satisfy their demands. However, in the 1980s, that insurgency was seen to have expanded to Assam, when AASU and Bodoland activists heavily participated in violent operations.

Aside from the North-East, the 1980s saw the rise of the use of terror and violence to make political statements, particularly in the Punjabi States, where the Khalistan movement became active, and in the Union Territory of J&K, where Jihadi terrorism first surfaced and engulfed the region in bloodshed. The government only began to recognize terrorism as a significant internal security threat and to devote significant resources to investigating its ideology, causes, and strategies for neutralizing it in the years immediately following the 1980s. The legal definition of terrorism has been a source of much anxiety and discussion. By premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against non-combatant targets by sub-national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience, the U.S. Department of State means acts of violence against non-combatant targets. Thus, terrorism always employs criminal tactics like murder, arson, hijacking, etc., but what distinguishes it from other criminal or violent acts is the motivation. While any other criminal may engage in such illegal activity for financial gain, a terrorist may do so in order to make political statements and exert pressure on the government to meet their demands. Thus, we can see that terrorism is a type of contemporary non-state warfare strategy.

Non-state because, in most cases, no state directly supports or engages in such activities. Other prevalent forms of non-state warfare outside than terrorism include insurrection, insurgency, militancy, etc. Security professionals have attempted to develop a reasonable clarity at a conceptual level, despite the fact that these phrases are frequently used synonymously in the media due to conceptual overlap. However, these names have minute distinctions that are clarified below by a list of their key characteristics: Features of an Insurgency It is the rejection of commands emanating from any authority. It is a concerted effort to overthrow the current system of government.

### **Counter-Radicalization & Terrorism Issues**

**Terrorism & Counter-Radicalization Issues** On the one hand, the behaviors can take the form of non-violent actions like the phenomena of civil disobedience, civil resistance, and political activism. On the other hand, the behaviors can also take the form of violent acts like bombings, assassinations, and other forms of mass violence. On the other hand, it might include violent campaigns, like the uprising against the Iranian Shah in 1979, the independence movements in the colonies, etc[9], [10]. Insurgents, as opposed to terrorists, attempt to interact with the general public and use ideology to support their acts. They typically refrain from sporadic acts of violence instead choosing to retaliate against specific government actions. They might participate in guerilla warfare, for example, or other forms of direct conflict with government forces, like the LTTE, Naxalites, etc.

### **Consequences of Terrorism**

Terrorism works to alter public attitudes regarding the efficiency or legitimacy of the government itself rather than directly opposing government forces. The goal of terrorism is still to carry out violent acts that make the local community, the government, and the world aware of their plight. By selecting targets that stand for things they dislike, the terrorists arrange their attack to garner the most attention for their deeds. More than the immediate victims, terrorists try to instill fear in the minds of the viewers, as was the case with the 1972 Munich Olympics and the 9/11 attacks, for example. Terrorists do not attempt to control any terrain; instead, they merely occasionally restrict their area of operation to the area where they want to make a statement or to the area whose government they want. In general, it does not recognize any restrictions on their behavior, such as those imposed by international law, moral principles, compassion for the weaker groups, etc. Examples include the 1993 Mumbai serial bombing, the 9/11 attack on the Twin Towers, etc.

### **Violence in India**

India has been fighting terrorism for a very long time. In other cases, we have even succeeded in achieving concrete results and successfully neutralizing terrorism. For instance, Sikh fanaticism in Punjab was effectively neutralized, and the situation there is now mostly under control. Similar to this, once the Assam Accord was signed in 1985, the rebel organizations were mostly assimilated into society and Assam's peace was substantially restored. But there is still much work to be done, particularly in the J&K and certain northeastern states.

More importantly, we need to delve a little deeper and comprehend the various other factors that play a role in it, including the ideology, demands, and methodologies of the terrorists, the causes, issues, and problems involved, and finally the kind of response that the government can and should be producing. To properly comprehend the concerns, we'll try to discuss each one separately in the section that follows.

### **J&K terrorism or jihadi Terrorism**

For India, J&K is of utmost strategic importance. Even though Pakistan still occupies a sizable portion of the state, India still holds the majority of the fertile and populated areas. Because PoK is a stop on the Chinese OBOR (One Belt One Road) project, its significance can be calculated. Additionally, Pok has been designated as a transit site for the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC), indicating that the state's position makes it capable of acting as a transit hub for India for Central Asia, Pakistan, and China.

Additionally, the state's enormous water resources and the fact that numerous significant rivers, like the Indus river system, run through it give it prominence in relation to Pakistan's interests because Pakistan is deemed the lower riparian state in these scenarios. Pakistan has therefore been eager to strengthen its grip outside of the PoK and into Indian Kashmir, which it is attempting to do through funding anti-India militancy in the State.

### **CONCLUSION**

The dangers to India's internal security are intricate in design. Contrary to criticism from some scholars<sup>31</sup>, the Indian state's response has been remarkably resilient in light of this complexity and the part that some external actors have played in amplifying the threat perception. The reduction of militancy and terrorism in J&K, the containment of Maoist violence to a few pockets of central India, the de-escalation of violent-related activities in the Northeastern states, the active pursuit of peace talks with several militant groups in the Northeast, and these actions all attest to the Indian government's effective internal security strategy.

A strong security approach, development initiatives in the impacted areas, resolving grievances through securing rights and entitlements, and peace negotiations with armed organizations can be summed up as the Indian state's entire response to internal security challenges. However, in the domains of managing public perception. The government must engage successfully in deradicalization of brainwashed individuals and. To gain the confidence of the populace, it is necessary to move quickly with the peace negotiations currently taking place with various armed organizations in the Northeast. The current governments ought to consider emulating the Northeast's peace talks in the Maoist-affected regions.

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## CHAPTER 23

### IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT POLICY: DEVELOPMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

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#### ABSTRACT:

This essay tries to study and analyze the role that government policies play in entrepreneurial development and its effects on economic growth. The study expands on prior research in the fields of entrepreneurship, economic development, and public policy as it relates to entrepreneurial behaviors because entrepreneurship is a component of the economic development plan used by many nations worldwide to obtain macroeconomic benefits. The framework offers researchers and practitioners a place to start as they further investigate entrepreneurship policies and practices. The framework makes the defining characteristics of entrepreneurship, government policy, and economic development components, as well as their proposed linkages, clearer for scholars. The framework can be utilized by practitioners to comprehend the impact of government policy on the growth of entrepreneurship and economic development.

#### KEYWORDS:

Community Development, Economic Development, Entrepreneurship, Government Policy, Societal Development.

#### INTRODUCTION

It is impossible to overstate the value of entrepreneurship development for many economies around the world; hence, the vast majority of nations have established programs to encourage entrepreneurship in their local communities. The business incubator is one of the programs that encourages the growth of entrepreneurship, and the business incubation initiative is the tool used by policymakers to this end. Busler, M. described economic development as the process of generating wealth through the collection of human, financial, material, physical, and natural resources to produce marketable commodities and services. According to Rice and Matthews, the primary objective of company incubation initiatives is the promotion of entrepreneurship. In other words, the fundamental objective of an incubator is to create profitable, independent businesses that will graduate from the program.

An organization's success is also influenced by the assistance that its government offers. On the one hand, the state's laws can make doing business more appealing and convenient, but on the other, they can severely restrict an enterprise's ability to start up and grow. In an entrepreneurial economy, the state does not act as an entrepreneur; rather, it has a duty to defend every economic endeavor using all available legal means. The State, its institutions, and its representatives are not viewed as executive authority, but rather as a crucial administrative support for a flourishing economy.



Their duties include creating the required infrastructure, promoting legislation, enhancing institutional capabilities, delivering adequate economic policy measures, and supporting the development of SMEs in order to promote a stimulating business environment[1]–[3]. While undeveloped and developing nations take baby steps in building tactics that are crucial for the growth of this industry, industrialized nations have long-standing experience and effective techniques to assist entrepreneurship. As a result, a nation's institutional, physical, and financial infrastructure greatly influences how businesses develop. The easier a country's infrastructure development is, and vice versa, the easier it is for entrepreneurship to grow there. It has been determined that entrepreneurship is a key component of both job creation and economic growth since it is crucial to the success of income production for the vast majority of residents in both rural and urban areas who lack a recognized paid employment. Numerous studies have been conducted at the municipal, state, and federal levels on the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic development. According to a 2005 study by Kumar and Liu, the entrepreneurial sector is increasingly contributing to GDP and employment. For this reason, it has been recommended that governments reduce barriers to entrepreneurship.

In the case of government assistance policies, it is seen appropriate that since the government is driving entrepreneurial development, it should make the necessary resources available to the best of its capacity. One of these resources is the creation of a business-friendly atmosphere that will strongly encourage entrepreneurship. Any course of action that tries to regulate and enhance the conditions of SMEs in terms of supportive, implementation, and financial policies by the government is referred to in this context as government policy. According to this concept, government policy pertaining to entrepreneurial practice aims to promote entrepreneurship by creating an environment that is hospitable to entrepreneurs. This is accomplished through passing laws that broadly govern entrepreneurial activity because entrepreneurship is the cornerstone of a country's route to industrialization. Additionally, the government must pass laws that are simple for business owners to use. No matter whose administration is in office, according to Pals.S. (2006), government policies related to entrepreneurship must be successfully executed in order to meet the aims of the guidelines, which are frequently not met.

### **Government's role in fostering entrepreneurship**

**Establish a just legal framework:** The government should establish a just legal framework with strong property rights and contract law as well as a well-organized bankruptcy procedure that reassures lenders and enables failed entrepreneurs to restart their businesses. **Simplify business registration:** Around the world, the time it takes to create a small business varies greatly. New Zealand triumphs, requiring only one formal procedure and an average half-day to register a firm. In Venezuela, it takes 114 days and 17 procedures, giving rise to 17 chances for corruption and delays. With a five-day and six-procedure average, the United States comes in twentieth. However, it takes years to register a business in India because corruption permeates every sector there. This is also true of Kashmir Valley, where registering a business is fraught with difficulties[4], [5]. **Promote a diversified funding environment:** According to experts in entrepreneurship, having various revenue streams is more crucial than having a single large pipeline.

The creation of new financial sources, such as peer-to-peer lending and equity crowd funding, can be encouraged by the government. For instance, the 2012 JOBS Act introduced new exemptions that allowed small enterprises to raise money through crowdsourcing. Enforce strict intellectual property regulations: Both public and private entities must uphold strict intellectual property laws to make it possible for business owners to launch their initiatives. Example: If IBM hadn't agreed to license the startup company's operating system, which was made feasible by intellectual property law, Microsoft might not have found success.

Remove the stigma attached to failing businesses: These nations have greater rates of new business creation. Entrepreneurs who fail are an invaluable resource, according to the European Commission Competitiveness Council. Second startups have reduced failure rates due to experience. We ought to assist businesspeople and give them another chance. Development experts concur that public spending on education yields the highest return on investment. In order to create new enterprises, more than a third of American institutions are currently working with small business incubators. Additionally, we ought to teach our high school pupils about entrepreneurship. Nations that offer low tax rates, streamline procedures, and encourage entrepreneurship will see a rise in the number of start-up businesses. Therefore, it is imperative that tax regulations be made simpler so that people can start their own businesses.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Entrepreneurship's Contribution to Economic Development and Growth**

The economy and the quality of life in the nation are both influenced by entrepreneurship. One may believe that as a startup founder or small business owner, they are merely working hard to establish their own company and support themselves and their families. But in fact, he or she is doing far more for your neighborhood, state, region, and the nation as a whole. The top seven crucial roles that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs play in the economic development of a nation are listed below. By starting the business entity, entrepreneurs put their own money into it and draw funding (in the form of debt, equity, etc.) from investors, lenders, and the general public. By doing this, public wealth is mobilized and the success of entrepreneurs and expanding firms is shared by all. One of the fundamental requirements and objectives of economic development is the form of pooled capital that leads to wealth creation and distribution.

As opposed to job searchers, entrepreneurs are by definition and nature employment producers. The straightforward interpretation is that when you start a business, there is one fewer job seeker in the economy, and you subsequently employ many more job searchers. Again, one of the fundamental aims of economic development is the creation of jobs of this kind by both new and current enterprises. To encourage and support new startups, the Indian government has developed programs like Startup India. Other programs, like the Make in India initiative, aim to draw in foreign businesses and FDI to the Indian economy. All of this in turn generates a large number of employment opportunities and contributes to raising our standards to a worldwide level [6], [7]. By establishing new enterprises and industrial facilities in underdeveloped and underdeveloped areas, entrepreneurs contribute to regional growth.

The expansion of these regions' businesses and industries results in the construction of improved roads and infrastructure. There are 108 rail connections, airports, reliable water and energy supplies, schools, hospitals, malls, and other public and commercial services that would not be accessible otherwise. Every new company that opens in a less developed area will provide both direct and indirect employment, boosting local economies in a variety of ways. The total amount spent by all of the newly hired staff members of the new companies, along with the jobs they support in other companies, increases the local and regional economic output. Through a variety of perks and concessions, the federal and state governments support this type of regional development through registering MSME enterprises. The MSME sector in India, which consists of 36 million units and employs more than 80 million people, now contributes more than 37% of the nation's GDP. Each new unit added to these 36 million units uses even more resources, including land, labor, and capital, to create goods and services that raise the nation's gross national product, national income, and per capita income. One of the key objectives of economic development is the growth in GDP and per capita income. Raising the standard of life for residents of a community is one of economic development's other main objectives. Once more, entrepreneurs are crucial to raising a community's standard of living. In addition to creating jobs, they achieve this through coming up with and implementing innovations that enhance the lives of their customers, employees, and other community stakeholders. A company unit will become more productive, for instance, and offer the same products to its clients for less money thanks to automation that lowers manufacturing costs and speeds up production. To develop their firm into global markets, each expanding business will eventually wish to start with exports. This is a crucial component of economic growth as it opens doors to larger markets, generates currency inflows, and gives access to the most cutting-edge tools and methods employed in more advanced overseas markets. The expansion's ability to increase business revenue stability amid local economic downturns is another important advantage. Economic growth is not necessarily accompanied by community growth. Infrastructure for public services including healthcare, education, and training is necessary for community growth. For instance, a community needs highly educated and competent personnel if it wants to draw in new enterprises. The pool of educated and skilled workers will grow if there are educational institutions, technical training programs, and internship possibilities.

### **Suggestions**

For the country's economic progress, entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs must be properly streamlined because they are the forces behind change and innovation. Many governments have made it a policy aim to foster an entrepreneurial mindset because of how it may help economic growth and social cohesion. This can be done in a number of ways; either by integrating entrepreneurship into education systems, legislation to encourage risk-taking, and national campaigns. Here are some ideas for how governments may enhance their efforts to promote entrepreneurship. The majority of youth programs today concentrate on entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurial ecosystem but ignore the importance of the family and the community. One of the most important variables in an entrepreneur's capacity to succeed is family support, especially for young people in rural areas. It's crucial to figure out how to involve and win the support of families and communities.

Due to a lack of employment prospects, particularly in developing economies, many young people turn to entrepreneurship. They might not, however, always be in entrepreneurial positions. Youth, families, and communities are more likely to participate in development programs that include skills training that may be applied once the project is over. Give considerable thought to ways to assist young people in obtaining financing. Access to cash is crucial for young entrepreneurs in order to launch or grow their firms. Sadly, these young people frequently have the least access to available funding. Access to credit differs not only between nations but also within communities. As a result, development programs must carefully consider how to assist young people in obtaining the necessary funding. This entails carefully analyzing various financial models and creating goods catered to the requirements of the participating youngsters.

Young people might get assistance from mentors in reviewing their company ideas and plans. They serve as role models, introduce them to bigger networks, and set successful examples. According to research and evaluations on youth entrepreneurship, mentorship must be effective for young entrepreneurs and mentors to work together since these interactions must be built on mutually agreed-upon expectations. Although rural poverty shares some universal traits, the issues that young entrepreneurs encounter call for regionally based solutions. Depending on their local environment, young people may have distinct wants and goals and are more susceptible to external changes such as changes in the climate, the economy, or political and social upheavals. A program's ability to adapt and change as circumstances change can be its lifeline. Additionally, there is an urgent need to start additional institutions for entrepreneurship development in the nation in order to encourage young people to adopt an entrepreneurial mindset and include entrepreneurship development. The young people will be influenced to pursue entrepreneurship as a career by their education at the school level. This makes entrepreneurship a potent weapon in the fight against youth unemployment.

In addition to jobs, upgrading in the nation's Tier II cities and regional areas is another area where entrepreneurship is fostering growth. Entrepreneurs are establishing industries in Tier II cities as a result of financial limitations and competitiveness in the metro areas. The state governments of some states, like Kerala, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nadu, have programs or incentives for the establishment of SME's in Tier II and III cities. Businesses in these smaller towns are expanding, which benefits the local community by improving transportation, healthcare, education, and other areas while also encouraging balanced growth across the nation. Due to cheaper prices and accessible expertise, this is also encouraging more entrepreneurs to establish bases in their home cities, which is attracting investor attention and incubation centers. Today's entrepreneurially driven economy provides the solution to this requirement since it encourages innovation in the production of products and services, making them more readily available and more reasonably priced. Entrepreneurs look for possibilities, use resources wisely, and develop new products and services. These are for domestic consumption, which will increase national income and invariably lessen our reliance on imports, strengthening the economy[8]–[10]. Without a doubt, entrepreneurs are catalysts for innovation and change. The necessity to fill a market need is the root of entrepreneurship, and this puts the entire development process in motion.

Our nation's entrepreneurial expansion has resulted in a wide range of economic advantages, including new enterprises, jobs, goods, and services. The government must now play a role in fostering this development by offering opportunities for not only education focused on enhancing entrepreneurial abilities but also passing beneficial plans and policies to boost the nation's entrepreneurial environment.

## CONCLUSION

Entrepreneurship helps a nation's economic development in a number of ways. It is a vital component of job generation and a major contributor to innovation and product enhancement. Another crucial factor to take into account is the fact that in the Indian market, entrepreneurship-driven economic growth is more inclusive. As a result, governments at the federal and state levels have been taking steps to strengthen the entrepreneurial ecosystem as they recognize the advantages entrepreneurship offers to the nation's economic development. One of the factors contributing to the decline in employment possibilities in the nation is the slowing of the economy. Youth unemployment is on the rise, and entrepreneurship is therefore helping to fill the employment gap. An entrepreneur not only creates self-employment but also erects a framework for employment on a small to large scale. Opportunities for employment improve as these businesses expand. Many start-up businesses in India that began as home-based businesses now employ hundreds of people. A business or entrepreneur with a novel idea has the potential to provide employment, which would therefore boost the economy.

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## CHAPTER 24

### TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS

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#### ABSTRACT:

Tribal people make up a sizeable portion of India's population 8.6% of the country's overall population. Tribal peoples may be in the minority, yet they constitute an integral component of India's identity. The tribal people of India are incredibly diverse in terms of their culture, language, traditions, ecological environments, means of subsistence, social stratification, and degree of development. Although there are many tribes throughout the country, their distribution varies. The bulk of Indian tribal people reside in the country's eastern, middle, and western areas. Though there may not be a large enough population of tribal people in the northeastern section of India, several of the states there have a large tribal population. The bulk of Indian tribal people live in the states of Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and West Bengal. In the southern part of India, there are 5% tribal people. Tribal peoples in India are distinct in terms of their culture, tradition, and history, yet they share some characteristics with other underprivileged groups in India. Similar to other underprivileged tribes in India, tribal people lack significant political sway and administrative representation. The goal of the study is to comprehend the tribal development administration in Jammu and Kashmir's Poonch area. The objective is to comprehend how, in one of India's most distant districts, tribal development administration has changed since 1989 and made sure that the STs are empowered. By examining historical context, numerous arguments about tribal development, FYPs, and significant policies like the Tribal Sub Plan, the study aims to assess the national framework for managing tribal development.

#### KEYWORDS:

Constitutional Development, Five Years Plans, Tribal Development, Social Stratification, Underprivileged Groups.

#### INTRODUCTION

The last portion of Indian Territory to be administered by the British was tribal areas. Before the 1857 Revolt, the British Administration had a different personality than it did afterward. The administration's behavior before the Revolt was entirely exploitative. Tribal areas were unreachable for a very long time due to the challenging terrain. The British government was however aware of the tribal areas' inaccessibility. The construction of transportation and communication infrastructure allowed the tribal communities to interact with the outside world. After that, the British government moved into the highlands and forests where indigenous people lived, expanding their sphere of influence. The establishment of law and order administration in



these territories was established by the British[1]–[3]. Non-tribal people began to move into the tribal territories as British administration was extended there. Moneylenders, builders, and landlords were among the individuals that invaded these regions with the intention of making money. The British government assisted them in their efforts to exploit others. Missionaries and social reformers were another group that entered these regions. In actuality, Christian missionaries had already gained access to these regions before the British officially extended their dominion to these tribal regions. These missionaries sought to 'civilize' what they referred to as 'uncivilized' people. They converted them to Christianity during that procedure.

Even though tribal territories were included within British administration, nothing was done to advance their quality of life. The interactions between tribal people and non-tribal people as well as the officials who had infiltrated these areas were not cordial. Numerous tribal uprisings occurred, and the majority of them largely served to defend the tribes' ownership of the land and forests, which were in danger from the arrival of non-tribal people and British officials. The Queen Proclamation represented the first significant step in the evolution of British government following the Revolt of 1857. Tribals benefited from several aspects of the Queen's Proclamation that were basically protective in character, such as due consideration for traditional rights and the policy of non-interference. The Proclamation implemented a forward policy of commercial development and firmly planted the administrative roots in tribal territories.

### **Misuse of forest resources**

In tribal regions, there are now two different kinds of administration arrangements. One was the military control system, which was implemented in regions that were primarily populated by unrecognized tribal tribes and were referred to as Non-Regulated Areas. The second strategy involved running things through civil servants. The Regulated areas were those that were governed by civil law. The Regulation Acts, legislation created under the charters known as these regulated districts, were followed in the administration of these districts. The British government understood that tribal regions needed to be administered differently from the rest of India. The British government believed that the isolationist stance would allow for this new type of governance. The Government of India Act of 1870 marked the beginning of an administration based on isolation. The Scheduled Tracts are the regions designated by the Act as being in the nation. The Scheduled Districts Act was adopted in 1874.

The government was able to announce the legislation that could be applied in the Scheduled Districts thanks to this statute. The act gave the British government the ability to manage tribal regions as a group. The statute also gave the government the authority to change any laws it wanted to apply to these areas. The government can shield certain regions from the laws passed for the rest of the nation. Certain regions of India were referred to as Backward Tracts in the Government of India Act of 1900. The Backward Tracts' included regions virtually overlapped with those of the Scheduled Tracts and Scheduled Districts. It was merely a change in terminology with a few additions and deletions. The Backward Tracts Act of 1919 established some specific measures for the administration of tribal territories. Authorities at the District and Taluk levels were given the authority to choices concerning the management of law and order and land rights. Up until 1935, this administrative style persisted[4], [5].

The Simon Commission's report served as the foundation for the 1935 Government of India Act. In its 1930 report, the Simon Commission questioned the permanency of the isolationist approach. According to the panel, the tribal people's ongoing segregation from the general population will impede their development. The tribal people must be educated and made self-sufficient in order to secure their growth. Some, but not all, of the Commission's recommendations were included in the Act of 1935. For the protection of tribal people, the Act of 1935 included a few unique provisions. The tribal regions underwent a reclassification. They were recategorized as Partially Excluded Areas and Excluded Areas. These regions had independent governments. The Excluded Areas were those that were inaccessible and where it was impossible or impractical to build up a regular administrative structure. Areas that were partially excluded had a civil servant-led administration. In the tribal territories, the Governor was granted particular powers under the 1935 Government of India Act. He exercised complete administrative discretion in the Excluded Areas. In Partially Excluded Areas, the Governor may contact ministers if necessary. The Act also established a Tribal Inquiry Committee, whose purpose was to enhance the tribal territories' administrative infrastructure.

It is a fact that the British perspective on tribal people fluctuated from time to time in the years leading up to independence. Some welfare measures were implemented for these people to save them from the sheer exploitation and neglect, when tribal people were preserved as nothing more than anthropological specimens and for academic interest. Since 1857, every act that the Parliament has passed has had some advantages over the one before it. For instance, the Act of 1935 differed from preceding laws and included some welfare provisions for tribe members. But the Isolation strategy was the one that was most frequently used before to independence. The socioeconomic and educational standing of indigenous people did not improve as a result of this strategy. Social assimilation attempts were attempted, and some of them were successful, but tribal people largely remained segregated.

To protect tribal identity, this isolation was justified. India's tryst with destiny began when the policy of isolation was implemented in tribal areas, and the Constituent Assembly was debating the future direction while the Constitution of India was being written. Tribal policy in India is mostly influenced by two major factors. Verrier Elwin and Jawaharlal Nehru are them. To comprehend tribal concerns in India and the strategies required to ensure their development, it is critical to comprehend their works and theories on tribals. Elwin was an anthropologist, although he wasn't a trained expert in the field. But unlike modern professional anthropologists, he adds, I did not start with it. I became interested in people because of books. Elwin cared for tribal people, and he was interested in learning about and comprehending them for reasons that were entirely humanistic rather than scholastic.

When he relocated to a village in Central India in 1931, he first had direct contact with tribal people. The Gonds lived in the village. Elwin made clear in his article *Hill and Forest Tribes*, which he wrote at the start of his stay in Central India, that the National Movement had not given adequate consideration to the existence and struggle of the Indian tribes. He stated, Both the Liberals and the Khadi workers have neglected them.

The Government of India Act 1935, which classified tribal lands as Excluded Areas and Partially Excluded Areas, was passed during his third year of residence in India. These kind of clauses emphasized the British position and method of handling the tribal issue. The rules were advertised as safeguards for tribal members against non-tribals. It's interesting to note that missionaries were free to serve in these regions. These clauses received harsh criticism from the Congress. The idea of isolation was also challenged as a tactic used by anthropologists to preserve tribe members as exhibits for their research. The comprehension of Verrier Elwin is crucial given this context. He was aware of the discussions going on about the tribes. Elwin's experience living with tribal people gave him insight into their culture. Elwin made the preservation of tribal life in all of its radiance his life's mission. To comprehend his viewpoints and position on tribal peoples and their progress, you must have this insight. Based on his work in the area, he believes that tribal life has to be shielded from outside influence. Elwin categorized tribes into three major categories. One was the small group of tribal elites—lawyers, politicians, etc.—who had successfully adapted into society without sacrificing their dignity.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Administration of Tribal Development in Post-Independence Era**

The history of the country's development began after independence. The first step was to incorporate all of the components, including tribal areas, into the Indian Union. Following independence, a combination of integration and isolation has been used to foster tribal growth. Although these are different strategies, they have nevertheless been successful. In fact, assimilation attempts in many kinds persist. Elwin endorsed Nehru's vision for indigenous people based on the integration strategy while also promoting the isolation approach. In the years following independence, Verrier Elwin and Jawaharlal Nehru's vision played a significant role in the management of tribal development. The Constitution of India served as the compass for India following Independence. The Constitution appropriately addresses tribal issues and establishes a legal framework. Studying the various provisions for the Scheduled Tribes in the Indian Constitution and comprehending the underlying theories and methods can help one understand tribal development administration in the post-independence era. The analysis of the Five Year Plans can be used to better understand the strategy for tribal development, particularly the policies and plans that have been developed. Administration of tribal development must include a thorough understanding of those portions of the Constitution that have an impact on tribal issues and development.

### **Constitutional Development and Tribal Growth**

The Indian Constitution incorporated a two-way approach to tribal development. Providing protection against exploitation is the first tactic. Assuring the socioeconomic development of tribal peoples is the second strategy. Constitutional Safeguards refer to the numerous provisions of the Constitution that ensure protection and socioeconomic growth. The fundamental goal of the Indian Constitution for the Scheduled Tribes was to maintain their command and access over the natural resources endowed to them and ensuring tribal people to take advantage of the benefits of sponsored development.<sup>16</sup> Political, economic, social, employment, cultural, and

educational rights are among the many rights that the Constitution protects through its numerous Articles[6]–[8]. Articles 164 (1), 243, 230, 334, and 371 of the Constitution protect the political rights of the tribal people. According to Article 164 (1) of the Constitution There will be a minister in charge of tribal welfare in various states, including Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, and Orissa. This Article outlines the framework for tribal welfare and emphasizes how important it is to the Constitution. Tribal members now have reservations in Panchayats and legislatures. Articles 243, 330, and 332 all address the topic of reservations. The House of People (Lok Sabha) has seats reserved for Scheduled Tribes under Article 330. In the legislative assembly of States, seats for Scheduled Tribes are reserved by Article 332. According to their numbers, the Scheduled Tribes are entitled to 1/3 of the seats in Panchayats under Article 243 of the Constitution. This also applies to reservations for native women. These clauses in the Constitution guarantee indigenous people political representation at each of India's three levels of government.

Reservations should be made available to Scheduled Tribes and other socially and educationally disadvantaged sections in accordance with Article 15(4) of the Constitution. States may also offer some accommodations, such as age concessions. Scheduled Tribes are covered by Article 29, which safeguards the rights of minorities to retain their culture, language, and writing systems through independent educational institutions. According to Article 46 of the Constitution, Scheduled Tribes are to be protected from social injustice and all sorts of exploitation, as well as having their economic and educational interests promoted. To ensure tribal development, certain rights are required. The Constitution's Article 46 also places a strong emphasis on helping Scheduled Tribes develop economically.

The Constitution now includes special provisions for advancing economic equality and protecting tribal members' job rights. With the use of Article 275, the Parliament is now able to give States specific grants for the implementation of development plans, guarantee the welfare of 44 Scheduled Tribes, and improve scheduling in Scheduled Areas. The Consolidated Fund of India provides funding for the grants that are made available to States under Article 275. Reservations are made for indigenous members in employment and promotions under Article 16(4) and 16(4A). Tribal people require protection from exploitation because they have long been exploited. The Indian Constitution's Article 23 offers protection for indigenous people's social rights. Human trafficking, begging, and other types of forced labor are all prohibited by this article. Children under the age of 14 are not allowed to work in industries or in hazardous jobs, according to Article 24. The aim is to guarantee children's healthy development. A new Article 21 (A) under the Right to Freedom was added by the 86th Constitution (Amendment) Act of 2002. All children between the ages of six and fourteen are intended to get free and required education by this Article of the Constitution. The article further specifies that specifies would establish appropriate laws to govern how education would be provided. This included offering instruction in regional languages and dialects. However, under Article 342, it has given the President of India the authority to designate the tribes as Scheduled Tribes in that State through a public announcement after consulting with the Governor of the concerned State.

The National Commission for Scheduled Tribes was established by the Constitution under Article 338A. Prior to the 2003 enactment of the 89th Amendment to the Constitution, both Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were represented by a combined commission. Following this modification, a new Article 338A was adopted, which established a unique National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. The Commission is responsible with looking into and overseeing all constitutional protections offered to the Scheduled Tribes. It can look into particular complaints of these measures being violated.

The Commission also participates in socioeconomic planning, tribe welfare, and the application of tribal protections. According to Article 339, the administration of Scheduled Areas and the welfare of Scheduled Tribes in the States are under the responsibility of the Union Government. The President is authorized by Article 339(1) to appoint a Commission to provide a report on the management of the Scheduled Areas and welfare of the Scheduled Tribes in the States. The Union Government is authorized by Article 339(2) to direct States in the development and execution of tribal welfare programs.

The Fifth and Sixth Schedules of the Indian Constitution dictate how Scheduled Areas are managed. Article 244 governs the administration of Scheduled Areas. According to Article 244(1) of the Constitution, all States other than the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Mizoram, and Tripura shall administer and control the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes in accordance with the Fifth Schedule. The administration and governance of the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes in Assam, Meghalaya, Mizoram, and Tripura are governed by the Constitution's Sixth Schedule. The Fifth Schedule of the Constitution mandates that Tribal Advisory Councils be established only upon the President's direction in each State with Scheduled Areas and in those States with Scheduled Tribes but no Scheduled Areas. The Fifth Schedule includes information on how a Tribal Advisory Council will be made up.

### **Administration of Tribal Development through Five Year Plans**

India's economy is planned. The Planning Commission creates the Five Year Plans to offer a long-term strategic vision for growth and development. Following an evaluation of the nation's resources, these plans establish priorities, offer several strategies, and specify the type of machinery needed to carry out development-related policies and programs. In actuality, the Five Year Plans propose numerous programs and measures. One of the top priorities in the twelve Five Year Plans that India has created so far is the development of the Scheduled Tribes. The Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes are intended to be developed holistically as a result of these Plans. The Five Year Plans aim to assure economic development through the advancement of horticulture, forestry, animal husbandry, and other related industries. Additionally, they support the growth of institutions for education, healthcare, communication, and infrastructure, as well as the support and defense of tribal culture and their customary rights.

#### **(1951–1956) First Five Year Plan**

The First Five Year Plan recognises that there are several strategies for dealing with tribal concerns, and that these strategies vary depending on who is handling the tribal issues and challenges. The Policy of Isolation was abandoned in favor of tribal development.

The Plan recommended a Positive Assistance approach, which will help tribal nations utilize their natural riches, fend off outside exploitation, and safeguard social and religious life. The strategy also called for the development of healthy aspects of tribal life, particularly tribal arts and crafts, as well as changes in the tribal world with their free permission. According to the Plan, tribal economic development should be prioritized as a strategy for development. For the growth of the economic life, some broad areas were recognized. These included agriculture, forestry, water supply, communications, arts and crafts, and education. The Community Development Programmes (CDP) were intended to assure tribal communities' agricultural development, according to the Plan. There were no particular policies or plans for tribal development in the First Five Year Plan. Tribals were included in the Community Development initiative, which is the main development initiative. Even while the program played a helpful role in the process of tribal development, non-tribal residents in tribal areas typically benefited from this endeavor, and the administration had a part to play in it.

### **(1956–1961) Second Five-Year Plan**

Understanding tribal culture and traditions was highlighted once more in the Second Five Year Plan. Certain modifications to traditional customs may be required by development programs, but these can be secured through attempts to forge a consensus that will benefit from tribal members' goodwill. The plan for that development calls for the employment of 49 welfare workers who are educated indigenous kids. It is important to tackle tribal issues and problems with empathy, understanding, and knowledge of the social psychology and needs of tribal communities. The Second Five Year Plan recommended a participatory type of development that actively involved indigenous people. The management of development would also entail training staff members who would work in these areas to comprehend tribal demands and issues through tribal research institutes. Eight of these institutes were already in place during the First Plan. The Second Plan recommended enhancing them and collaborating with nonprofit organizations [9], [10]. The tribal rights over woods were stressed once more in the Second Five Year Plan. The function of the forest contractors was criticized. It recommended a cooperative paradigm for gathering and processing small amounts of forest food. It aimed to show that in the cooperative system, official honesty is essential. In reality, Multi-Purpose Cooperatives were recommended in the Second Five Year Plan. Tribal cooperatives should, to the greatest extent possible, be multifunctional in nature, offering loans, supplying consumer goods, and marketing all at once.

### **CONCLUSION**

The British era saw the beginning of tribal development, but it lacked a development vision. The British government's strategy was to take use of the resources of tribal territories and integrate them into their empire. They embraced an isolationist policy. Over the years, several legislation were passed, but this strategy of isolation persisted in some fashion. Numerous times this perpetual isolation policy was questioned, but under colonial rule little changed and the absence of socioeconomic progress was a marker of the pre-independence period. Although this method was not anti-development, its emphasis on seclusion and non-interference was seen as a barrier to it. Assimilation was a different strategy. Assimilation of the tribes with the rest of the country's population was the goal.



The Five Year Plans served as a vehicle for promoting the goal for tribal development. Each plan recommended different steps for tribal development, and the Five Year Plans served as a major foundation for tribal policy. One significant contribution of these Plans was a novel strategy for ensuring tribal development that was presented in the Fifth Five Year Plan. Tribal Sub Plan, a new strategy for development of Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes, was essentially a plan within a plan.

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## CHAPTER 25

### AN INDIAN PERSPECTIVE: PRIVATIZATION OF PUBLIC SECTOR

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#### ABSTRACT:

The growth of private businesses free from functional management has made India's economic reforms noteworthy. Given its critical role in national investment and prosperity, the public sector in this nation requires renovation. To evaluate partial privatization and restructuring of India's state-owned businesses (SOEs), which require more dynamic shape, is the purpose of this essay. Since India shifted to market-based prices and incentives with greater contract enforcement, central government SOEs have encouraged their profitability, investments, and expansion. In the manufacturing industry, SOEs are more profitable and effective than private businesses. But when it comes to providing services, SOEs do worse than their competitors. The paper also suggests policies to enhance SOE performance in India.

#### KEYWORDS:

Economic Reforms, Industrialization Policy, Privatization, Private Sector, State-Owned Businesses.

#### INTRODUCTION

In terms of economics, privatization is a rather broad idea. It entails a number of procedures, including the influx of private capital, the sale of assets held by the government, and the shift to a private economy. Consequently, privatization has the following three main characteristics: Measures related to ownership, organization, and operations are listed in that order. Ownership measures relate to the conversion of public enterprise ownership to private ownership. Organizational measures have to do with limiting state control over publicly traded firms. These entail the use of techniques for leasing and reorganizing the businesses. Operational measures focus on how to increase the efficiency and profitability of public organizations.

Every country in the globe has its own businesses. Even while the phrase stateowned enterprise (SOE) has a variety of interpretations, in general it refers to a company whose ownership is heavily influenced by the government. In fact, it is the duty of every state to take an active, responsible role in generating wealth. These values may be of an economic, social, environmental, or even livelihood nature. These SOEs are required by law to carry out the state's objectives. In order to sustain themselves, advance continuously, achieve their goals, and contribute to the growth of the state's revenue while avoiding losses, it is also the obligation of the SOEs to operate strategically. The monitoring of public policy assignments within the context of corporate business administration needs to be improved by SOEs[1]–[3].

People in any country want SOEs to conduct themselves honorably in the industry they have chosen. Many managers claim that their companies have historically achieved sustainable development and anticipate continuing to do so in the future. For instance, this benefits society as well as the companies involved in both concrete and intangible ways. In particular, tangible benefits result from lowering the costs and risks associated with conducting business, whereas intangible benefits can boost a company's reputation, competitiveness, and ability to attract evidence and case studies, however, have demonstrated that many SOEs do not contribute in line with what the public expects or what the government's policies are.

The performance of SOEs, including those in India, must therefore be evaluated. One main drawback of India's SOEs has been noted as low performance levels and systematic performance variances. Additionally, the labor rules mostly disregard the privatization of public firms and cannot consequently promote the nation's economic progress. This essay's goal is to list and analyze the reforms India has implemented, including the privatization of state-owned businesses. Reviewing India's industrialization policy from the 1950s is crucial to comprehend the significance of its SOEs. Additionally, the Commercial Policy Resolution (1956) defines the economy's size for SOEs. Even while the private sector and private property are protected by the Constitution, there is still a cap on how much can be invested. Indian infrastructure and utility businesses, including railways, ports, airports, telecommunications, and power plants, were predominately in the public sector when the nation attained independence in 1947. The state was required to give license for the existing private businesses to operate in several sectors of capital and basic goods. In contrast, the private sector has access to the trade goods industry and intermediate production commodities like cement.

It is true that Indian SOEs have helped this nation reach economic independence. The primary goals include fostering industrialization and building infrastructure for economic growth, as well as advancing employment and regional development balance. They also aim to build an economy that is self-sufficient by reducing reliance on imports and increasing export capacity, while also preventing the concentration of private economic power. Only five SOEs participated in the First Five-Year Plan (1952), which had a total investment of 290 million rupees (Rs), or \$60 million at the time (exchange rates from 1955). Since the Second Five-Year Plan, the government has built a number of new SOEs in core and basic sectors, beginning with the Industrial Policy's adoption in 1956.

It established factories making machine tools, steel, heavy engineering, fertilizer, and equipment for generating energy, the majority of which received financial and technological backing from the Russian Federation and other Eastern European nations. In the 1970s, the government intended to nationalize all insurance companies, big commercial banks, and the coal industry. As a result, state (provincial) governments created several SOEs, many of which functioned in the joint sector and had up to 49% of their shares held by private partners. The number of CSOEs (excluding commercial banks and insurance businesses) dramatically grew by 244 when the Indian government initiated the program on deregulation and liberalization<sup>5</sup> heading the Seventh Five-Year Plan. Due to the departure and privatization of numerous prominent CSOEs, they fell to 239 by 2005–2006.

Indian SOEs began to emerge in the early 1990s as mature public enterprises took control of key industries. These companies had expanded their production, unlocked new technological frontiers, and successfully replaced imports in a variety of capital goods sectors. They also had a large pool of trained workers with technical skills, which helped India's ranking in terms of industrialization[4], [5].

In a changing environment, SOEs and other public sector businesses are going through challenging times. Their problems include bad management, resource mismanagement, low accountability, and frequently significant losses. Because of this, governments all over the world have been actively selling off these enormous behemoths in recent decades to increase the effectiveness of the assets invested and stop the massive resource drain. Not an exception is India. Downsizing the public sector, according to the study it is essential because it helps developing nations' SOEs undergo reform. He said that while the reform may increase economic efficiency, it is important to take the risks into account. According to the study, improving the performance of SOEs through corporate governance changes is doable but much more challenging with full privatization. Therefore, while restructuring SOEs, policymakers should carefully contemplate substantial privatization. The Author also highlighted the function of privatization in lowering societal costs and disruptions. He came to the conclusion that privatization in South Asian nations cannot increase public confidence in the private sector and that this results in widespread layoffs of workers. As a result, on July 24, 1991, the Indian government unveiled a new industrial policy, which many saw as a blueprint for the privatization of numerous sectors. Participation in the private sector in place of SOEs, disinvestment, and the listing of SOEs on the stock exchange were all part of the restructuring process.

## DISCUSSION

### India's conception of privatization

The government oversees an enterprise's ownership and accountability. However, while the state is actively involved in this process, private businesses can provide the goods or services. A contract, franchise, lease, or gift can be used to delegate. The government transfers control of the company to one or more private companies. As a result, the state oversees a small portion of the company's ownership. The initial step is deregulation. Through this process, private players are given access to the market, and private businesses will gradually replace public enterprises. In this scenario, the government directly sells all or part of a publicly traded company to private parties. Privatization in India is related to the 1991 economic reforms that were implemented. In general, privatization refers to promoting private sector involvement in the ownership and administration of SOEs and other PSEs. Reviews have revealed that the privatization of public sector businesses that were losing money was a widespread tendency in the late 1980s and early 1990s. This approach was developed and put into use by a number of Western European nations as well as developing nations like India. India has a mixed economy, which means there are both public and private sector businesses there. 49% of SOEs are privately owned, and the new industrial policy takes this into great consideration. Public firms must be privatized as a result of their subpar operational and financial performance. The privatization of SOEs has a lot of benefits.

They consist of a sizable decrease in the burden on the government, a strengthening of professional competition, an improvement in public finances, funding for the development of infrastructure, responsibility and accountability to shareholders, a decrease in unwelcome interference, a dedicated workforce, and others. It was discovered that the performance of Indian SOEs was influenced by both low performance and systematic fluctuations in the performance parameters. Efficiency is positively correlated with size, but adversely correlated with age. The findings also suggested that economic reforms and liberalization could boost SOE performance. The most likely candidates for privatization in the manufacturing sector are smaller, state-owned businesses.

These businesses are very simple for individual investors to purchase. This finding aids in the formulation of practical guidelines and policies pertaining to state-owned firms and their privatization-related difficulties. The study examined 15 central public sector companies' (CPSEs') performance in India's manufacturing, mining, power, and service industries from 2003 to 2012 using the public share offering method. To perform a ratio analysis, it used indicators, such as the calculation of return on assets, return on equity, sales efficiency, net income efficiency, debt equity, dividend payouts, real sales, and employment levels. The findings demonstrated that the public offering mode involves performance modifications in CPSEs that have been divested with the help of retail investors. Additionally, the study analyzed the success and failure of privatization in the Indian setting and asserted that four factors—commitment, competitiveness, transparency, and mitigation—must be taken into account since they have an impact on the privatization yield in India. In the Indian context, commitment and mitigation receive lower rankings than competitiveness and transparency.

### **The extent of privatization**

India has gone a long way since privatization got underway in 1991. 36 of the 188 state-owned businesses have undergone privatization, while 36 have undergone liquidation. Out of the 72 companies, 61 have been privatized in the past ten years, demonstrating the government's rising desire to sell up its businesses in order to reap the benefits that can only be obtained by utilizing the resources offered by the private sector. India's economy is a dynamic one with a lot of room for expansion in global markets. Since the State has learned they can greatly profit from the increased efficiency and greater disposition of funds available to them to carry out other vital operations to strengthen the economy, privatization is now more broadly welcomed than ever before. Significant progress has been made in industries like banking, telecommunications, and insurance. Because less public money is locked up in privately owned businesses and privatization has increased profitability across the board, it is thought that decisions to privatize have contributed to the average yearly growth of 8.5 percent. However, in the future, adjustments would be required to promote foreign investment, which serves as an economic stimulus. Indian bureaucracy, political influence, and corruption have served as barriers that have kept international investors out of the nation. The country's economy will grow and foreign investment will increase thanks to increasing privatization and decreased reliance on the government. The centerpiece of last year's Budget was privatization and asset monetization.

This policy does have certain drawbacks, though. It is challenging to calculate the proper selling price for these assets. In addition, there are some socioeconomic problems, and it is thought that privatizing these public sector banks will lead to social unfairness and the denial of reservations to underprivileged groups in society. Additionally, private banks are being more aggressive in their loan collection attempts, which is causing public anxiety[6]–[8].

Additionally, privatization is occurring at one general insurance firm. Shipping Corporation of India, BEML, Container Corporation of India, and Pawan Hans are further companies slated for privatization. According to the Budget from the previous year, the Indian government is transitioning to a more privatized economy. In order to monetize government assets, Sitharaman said that the government would establish a National Asset Monetization Pipeline and Dashboard. According to this strategy, assets from a range of businesses, including NHAI, Railways, and Airports Authority of India, will be monetized. This year is anticipated to mark the completion of the strategic disinvestment of numerous public sector initiatives. According to Sitharaman, state governments will also be enticed to invest their assets and encourage more privatization because doing so would be better for the Indian economy. The Indian Finance Ministry's main strategy moving ahead is to prioritize privatization in order to strengthen India's economy and increase economic activity to raise the GDP of the nation.

### **The Benefits of Privatization**

Privatization has certain positive aspects. First off, private corporations always have higher incentives than public ones. The managers and authorities of a private corporation typically play it safe because their pay is based on the success of the business, but this incentive is absent from public organizations. As a result, privatization increases the firm's efficiency. A public enterprise experiences a great deal of political meddling, which prevents it from making decisions that will be profitable for the business. Private businesses, on the other hand, typically do not permit political factors to affect their success. Third, all of the objectives may be short-term due to the government's frequent interest in approaching elections and expectation that it would win more popular support. Political choices frequently form the foundation of the organization's long-term objectives. Finally, privatization may increase the firm's ability to compete in the market, which benefits customers.

### **Negative Effects of Privatization**

Privatization can have some drawbacks, though. For instance, despite the fact that India is the second-largest democracy in the world, this approach focuses more on the aim in profit maximization. When compared to SOEs, the social responsibility activities are limited. Transparency is not a priority for private sector businesses, and they hide information from its stakeholders. Private businesses go to great lengths to accomplish their aims, including fostering corruption, using illegal means to accomplish goals, lobbying, and other methods. According to an assessment of the privatized state, privatization results in high staff turnover, layoffs, poor compensation, etc., which upsets the social balance. Price inflation and privatization often go along. Numerous more drawbacks, hindrances, challenges, setbacks, and issues have persisted throughout and following India's privatization of SOEs.

The Indian government committed to give Indian SOEs more autonomy and to enhance corporate governance by changing the boards and giving these boards more authority to make investment and strategic choices. Additionally, it should implement the following recommendations to reform Indian SOEs: first, give SOE boards more authority to make decisions after taking into account all pertinent interests; second, boost their independence; third, minimize government interference with SOE operations; fourth, make SOE ownership simpler by combining it with another entity, similar to the State-owned Assets Supervision and Administration Commission (SASAC) in India.

Privatization is a crucial economic process. Profit maximization refers to a company's principal goal of generating the largest feasible earnings. By doing so, they are certain to operate more productively and cut costs, which boosts earnings. In addition to promoting efficiency and competitive prices for consumers, privatization also encourages rivalry between several private businesses. The quicker acceptance and adoption of new and sophisticated technology by private sector enterprises contributes to the more effective and balanced use of natural resources. As a result, private sector organizations strive to reduce resource waste and promote sustainability. Organizations in the private sector are immune to political meddling.

Political forces frequently force public sector organizations to change the way they operate, which can sometimes prevent them from making decisions that are in their best interests financially. On the other hand, organizations in the private sector do not give in to such political intrusions and strictly act in a way that increases their profits and improves their performance. Organizations in the private sector concentrate on goals that will maximize their revenues over the long term and guarantee the firm's long-term financial stability. But because elected officials in the government frequently change, public sector enterprises may adopt short-term strategies in an effort to win over voters[9], [10].

These short-term measures may have long-term detrimental effects on the economy, but if privatization occurs, these effects won't exist since private company management teams put long-term goals first. Privately held businesses can offer superior client care. Private businesses prioritize providing excellent customer service because they are profit-driven. Private businesses prioritize providing top-notch customer service because it gives them a competitive edge over their rivals in a market that is highly competitive and produces higher profits. State-owned businesses lack the ability to provide excellent customer service since they have no rivals and are not financially motivated. By selling its stock to the private sector, the government can easily generate enormous sums of money through privatization and lessen their financial load.

As a result, the government has the chance to invest money in other crucial sectors that would advance the nation. As a result, governments are able to lower taxes and lessen the burden on taxpayers by using fewer resources to operate public sector companies and generating higher profits from selling them. Governments also receive tax money and license fees from businesses. This is how privatization helps the economy and government. Private sector employees and managers are more motivated because they answer to the business's owners and feel obligated to guarantee the firm operates well. State-owned businesses experience less accountability, which results in less effective operations that hurt the economy.



When a private company performs at its peak, its employees also receive incentives and greater pay, which encourages them to work productively and in a way that benefits the company as a whole. Because expanding private businesses must continually expand their workforces in order to keep up with the growth of the economy, privatization also increases employment.

### CONCLUSION

Nothing is permanent except change, hence reforms are necessary in every area of life, especially in emerging Asia. The business climate is evolving, and policy-making agencies must discuss this and provide recommendations for businesses, including SOEs. Privatizing SOEs is one of the reforms' initiatives. For a developing country like India, privatization offers both advantages and disadvantages. The key aspects of privatization have been discussed in this study. Public enterprises can serve both the agenda of profit-making and the agenda of social responsibility if they operate very efficiently, much like private sector organizations, without really privatization the enterprises. To increase the effectiveness of SOEs in India, the reform process which includes complete and partial privatization must go day by day. In order to implement reforms, social fairness will unavoidably be required. The performance and accountability of SOEs will undoubtedly increase if the general public is included as shareholders.

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