

A person in a dark suit is holding a tablet computer. To the right of the tablet is a large, complex graphic made of many hexagons. Each hexagon contains a different icon or symbol. The icons include: a circular arrow, a cloud, a Wi-Fi signal, a lightbulb, two crossed wrenches, two interlocking gears, a family silhouette, a factory, a world map, a pie chart, a person wearing a hard hat, a chemical flask, a microchip, a gear with the word 'Service', a head with gears inside, an '@' symbol, a handshake, a person on a bicycle, a truck, a monitor, and a robotic arm. Some hexagons contain binary code (0s and 1s). The background is a dark blue grid with white dots and lines, resembling a circuit board or network diagram.

Srinibas Pathi
Divya Vijaychandran



Public Administration Today

Macro and Micro Issues

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Knowledge is Our Business

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION TODAY: MACRO AND MICRO ISSUES

By Srinibas Pathi, Divya Vijaychandran

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CHAPTER 1

BRIEF DISCUSSION ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

It's simple to describe public administration as government in action the management of public affairs or the execution of public programmes. Even if it is correct, a definition this simple is insufficient for such a crucial duty. Think of the incident in *Cyrano de Bergerac* by Edmond Rostand when someone taunts the hero's large nose to get him to engage in a battle. The challenger's remark that he is "rather large" is, however, so cliché that Cyrano gives him a lecture on "the great many things" he might have said if he had "some tinge of letters, or of wit." Even without the accompanying swordplay, defining public administration is a difficult task. Nothing, in the opinion of the book's writers, is more crucial for a general introduction to public administration than the broadest description imaginable. How else can we appreciate its historical relevance, global applicability, and current evolution while exploring its complexity and subtlety? What other way can we understand the subsequent technical Chapters? However, the conversation that follows is fundamentally lacking. There is no way to define public administration in a manner that covers all of its complexities. Therefore, we wrote 18 of them and grouped them into the following four groups: managerial, legal, political, and occupational.

KEYWORDS:

Administration, Agriculture, Food and Drug Administration, Investigating Scientist.

INTRODUCTION

Outside of its political framework, public administration cannot exist. This context is what distinguishes it from private or company administration and makes it public. As a result, the political aspects of public administration are highlighted in our first definitions. What the government does is public administration. A Department of Agriculture inspector is inspecting beef at an abattoir, a White House chef is preparing the menu for a state dinner for a visiting chief of state, and a Food and Drug Administration scientist is figuring out how many rodent hairs food processors can safely and legally leave in chocolate, popcorn and peanut butter. It is a fireman saving a kid from a burning building, a parking metre reader slapping a ticket on your car and a state jail guard injecting lethal substances into the veins of a convicted felon. A CIA agent is deciphering intercepted letters from alleged terrorists, an astrophysicist is investigating the furthest reaches of space, and a sewer crawler is trying to figure out what's blocking a city drainpipe. It provides homeowners with mortgage interest reductions, food stamps for the underprivileged, and hot meals for storm refugees throughout the Gulf Coast.

Government workers take actions that influence their fellow people's everyday lives all across the globe. These things might be either heroic or ordinary. These efforts are often fruitful, but sometimes they are not. Public managers often take care of the public's business in most nations; for instance, they construct bridges and roads, collect trash, and put out fire. Fighting, snow removal, bug spraying, and important social services for the less fortunate are all done by volunteers. However, in certain countries, state servants are allowed to kill children and

torture the defenceless. Who do you believe these governments are that brutalise and violate the civil rights of their inhabitants when Amnesty International releases its yearly report on the subject? It is none other than the regional government officials!

Of course, such evil deeds are often carried out under the guise of some innocent-sounding programme involving "population control" or internal security. As a result, contemporary public relations works to humanize historical crimes[1], [2]. Public administration has established ideals and moral principles as a career. However, as a practise, it lacks values. It simply reflects the social reality of power, cultural conventions, and cultural beliefs. It is simply government acting in accordance with its constitutional powers and the political and cultural environment in which it finds itself.

For the first time, Dwight Waldo argued in 1955 that analysts should "see administration in terms of its environment" because doing so "enables us to understand differences in administration between different societies which would be inexplicable if we were limited to viewing administration analytically in terms of the universals of administration itself". Consequently, various cultures might accomplish basically identical administrative actions in a different way. As a result, a normal customs examination in one state is comparable to a corrupt customs officer in another state asking for a bribe.

The identical conduct could be carried out dishonestly in one state but dishonestly in another. The whole of all bureaucrats' daily tasks, whether they are carried out ethically or dishonestly, legally or unlawfully, skillfully or incompetently, constitute public administration. J. B. S. Haldane, a British physicist, said that the world "is not only queerer than we suppose, but queerer than we can suppose". The same is mostly true of public administration. Not only is it far more comprehensive than most people realize, but it is also so prevalent in contemporary life that not even the most creative among us can fully comprehend it[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Direct and indirect methods of public administration when government personnel supply the general public with services like mortgage insurance, postal delivery, and energy, it is direct. When the government pays for private companies to provide residents products or services, this is indirect. For instance, while private companies created the space shuttle, it was managed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Similar to this, the security guards defending American construction workers in Iraq's oil fields aren't members of the US military but rather personnel for private companies that the defence department has hired. Does the fact that these employees work for private businesses exclude them from the purview of public administration? In no way. Keep in mind that whether they are manufacturing rockets or securing oil rigs, a government agency is required to recruit, assess, and hold all personnel and contractors responsible for the quality of their performance.

Since ancient times, governments have used private contractors. For instance, the executioner who previously managed and maintained the guillotine in France was a freelancer who received payment for each head that was severed. The present tendency, most notably starting in the 1980s during the Reagan administration, is a growing privatization of government operations. Has spread to every country in the globe, including the Thatcher government in the UK and the United States. The expansion of the nonprofit sector, which derives a large portion of its income from government contracts, notably for social services and research, has strengthened this tendency. Government funding makes up a large portion of the budgets of private nonprofit organisations that provide human services.

Nearly 20 years ago, Mario Cuomo, a former governor of New York, observed that the bulk of the money generated by nonprofit charity organisations were often provided by the government. For instance, in the 1990s, Catholic Charities USA, a nationwide network of around 1,400 social care organisations, received two out of every three dollars it spent from government sources. According to a 2013 Non-profit Times study, government sources still made up roughly 55% of revenue in 2012, while the Salvation Army's reliance on government funding decreased significantly from 15% to 10%. While government financing has slowed down recently, it still accounts for about \$10 billion, or 15% of the top 100 biggest non-profits in the US, according to a 2013 Non-profit Times study of these organisations. Therefore, we may draw the conclusion that privatisation has not really decreased the quantity of public administration globally; rather, it has just driven it to adopt new forms.

The term governance now has a new connotation as a result of public administration's growing reach into the nonprofit and commercial sectors. What was originally used to describe the government process is now used to describe interorganizational initiatives to address global issues by using networks of people and organisations. As a result, public administration has evolved from being just indirect to being very complex.

Occupational Definitions of Public Administration

The regular chance to engage in analyses and assessments of public programmes is one of the pleasures of a career in public service. However, not all employees in the public sector wish to participate in the public discussion about laws, regulations, and management techniques. However, they are all enthusiastic about their employment. Let's examine public administration as a profession.

Public Administration Is an Occupational Category

Whatever the world's public workers do, that is it. From brain surgery to street sweeping are included. In this large occupational group, the majority of individuals do not even consider themselves public administrators. They identify with their particular crafts and professions. Even though they may not be managers in the traditional meaning of the word, whether or not they are aware of it, they are ministering to the public by offering services. Only a tiny percentage of the nearly 21 million people who now work for local, state, and federal governments in the United States would classify their jobs as public administration. They only identify as police officers, social workers, teachers, or forest rangers, but they are inescapably public managers as well. Richard Klausner was appointed head of the National Cancer Institute by the federal government in 1995. Later, he resolutely said to the New York Times, "I am not a supervisor." He declared himself to be "a scientist and a physician." However, Dr. Klausner failed to con the Times. He was the subject of a long article with the heading "New Administrator Is 'Not an Administrator.'" Administrators are still administrators, even if they're in denial like Dr. Klausner[5], [6].

Public Administration Is an Essay Contest

Writing ability often determines a person's success or failure in a job in administration. The winner of a game of paper shuffle is the guy whose message comes out on top. Nobody who is excellent writes their own memos, according to a proverb that has become folklore at the US State Department. You may be requested to write your boss's memos if you are deemed skilled enough. Then you recruit a younger writer to write your memo since you're too busy writing the boss's. You go along with your own promotion when your boss receives that significant promotion. Of course, you also bring the writer who has been working for you.

Keep in mind that Thomas Jefferson's reputation as a superb stylist led to the opportunity for him to write the Declaration of Independence. And since he took advantage of this writing chance, he eventually rose to the position of president. A young captain prepared the general's speeches and reports while he was in charge of the US Army in the 1930s.

Because he could write well, Dwight D. Eisenhower's coworkers saw him as an officer on the rise. Although writing is more crucial in choosing whose ideas progress than speaking since more individuals can talk successfully than write, oral presenting abilities are still necessary. All organisations put a high importance on employees who can write clearly under pressure. When a significant opportunity arises, it is the individual who will be consulted. Because your writing reputation shapes your administrative character as a victor or loser, public administration is an essay contest in this sense. The Foreign Service "has prized drafting ability above virtually all other skills," according to a US Department of State study from the 1970s, indicating that this has long been understood.

When hiring, we place a strong emphasis on this ability, and our promotion system generously rewards it. The best positions in the service are in reporting. In his examination of the bureaucracy at the State Department, Donald P. Warwick discovered that "the Foreign Service exalts graceful prose and the well-turned phrase, following the classic model of the gentleman generalist." Other organisations that employ fewer "gentlemen" are just as eager to honour "graceful prose." The most well-known and powerful officials in the George W. Bush administration, including Vice President Richard Cheney, Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice, and Secretary of Defence Robert Gates, all had writing-related career jumpstarts when they were insignificant bureaucrats. The man who succeeded President Bush has been warmly praised for his ability to put words together, despite the fact that most people did not recognize him as someone to whom "graceful prose" came effortlessly. Barack Obama's oratory abilities do, in fact, often get significant amounts of public attention, but it's vital to remember that he frequently writes the script that he is following. He was appointed editor of the Harvard Law Review due to his verbal prowess. That achievement served as the springboard for all of his significant professional and political successes, including his best-selling novels and later public service.

Public Administration Is Idealism in Action

Many individuals want to work in public service because they are idealists who want to promote good values. The adjective "noble" is important here since historically, nobility was obligated to do public duty. Since they belonged to the warrior class, it was their duty to bravely defend the weak and unfortunate, to adopt the idea of a noble duty. Their responsibilities gradually grew to include all aspects of public affairs in addition to military issues. Formerly reserved for the well-born, the financially secure, and the socially connected, high-level government employment is now accessible to people who were gifted at birth but lacked the necessary resources.

People are drawn to public administration by idealism because it gives them fulfilling and interesting things to accomplish with their life. Where else can someone without private money suddenly acquire such immense power? Even the offspring of the extremely wealthy like the Kennedys and Rockefeller tend to join public service for the same reasons that other people do: because it's enjoyable, it provides ego pleasure, and most importantly because it meets their conflicting drives to utilise power and perform good deeds. John F. Kennedy, a multimillionaire and candidate for president, said bluntly, "Because that is where the power is," when asked why he wanted to be in that position.

Public administration is characterised by idealism that extends far beyond the person. The mystical aim is to create "a city upon a hill," a perfect political society that others may look to as an example. The Massachusetts Bay Colony's governor, John Winthrop, is credited with coining this expression. "For we must consider that we shall be as a city upon a hill," he wrote in 1630. The world's attention is focused on us. Kennedy and Reagan both liked to use this well-known passage from Massachusetts history while giving speeches. Additionally, it exemplifies how nondenominational religious components of public administration enable members to feel fulfilled by contributing to something bigger than themselves. When he said that "hope is what led me here today with a father from Kenya, a mother from Kansas, and a story that could only happen in the United States of America," Barack Obama updated the "city upon a hill" idealism during the 2008 presidential campaign. The notion that our future will not be written for us, but by us, all those men and women who are not willing to settle with the world as it is: who have the bravery to rebuild the world as it should be, is the foundation of our country, according to the New York Times on January 3, 2008.

Public administration is a field of study. It is the study of management applied to the public sector in both its art and science. But it often covers all of the political, social, cultural, and legal factors that have an impact on how public institutions are administered as its topic, going well beyond management-specific issues. Because it includes so much of political science, sociology, business administration, psychology, law, anthropology, medicine, forestry, and other disciplines, it is essentially a cross-disciplinary topic of study. In fact, it may be argued that since public administration draws so much from other disciplines, what is left of it at its heart scarcely qualifies as an academic discipline at all. However, the components of public administration have come together around a single point.

The Evolution of Public Administration

The definitions-related conversation that came before it wasn't predetermined. It is the result of the writers' own experiences. It might have been written in a completely different style and yet achieved the same goal. Similar to how private management did not need to change in the manner it did. Similar to every evolutionary process, there were many potential possibilities. In his book on the Burgess Shale, a fossil-rich limestone quarry in the Canadian Rockies, biologist Stephen Jay Gould demonstrates how animal evolution had several beginnings and pauses. No "handicapper, given Burgess Evidence as known today, would have granted very favourable odds" that the invertebrate animals from whom humans developed would have survived, according to Gould. According to Gould, the most unsettling aspect of this kind of natural selection is its randomness; the fact that so much of evolutionary history has the feel of a lottery. The same is true of public administration. The governmental structures that exist now may have been drastically different. It might have happened so simply that the way people first learnt to define and practise public administration took an unexpected turn. For instance, if the Greeks had maintained that administration was just large-scale home management, it may have been gender-specific. And considering how much other Greek knowledge and culture the Romans assimilated, it's possible that it was duplicated in this manner. Women may have built a beneficial administrative matriarchy if the classical world had come to believe that males were primarily suited for physical labour and warfare. Additionally, there is a third option: eunuchs' rule. Not joking!

Eunuchs, or men having their external sex parts severed, were the preferred public officials for more than 2,000 years and into the 20th century. Why? Because of their missing pieces, they could be trusted first with the wives and concubines of the emperors, then with other administrative responsibilities. Eunuchs proven to be very capable and devoted leaders. They understood that the only way to prosper was to treat the only individuals who could enrich

and defend them properly since slaves are often far from any relatives. The eunuchs established a resemblance of a civil service. Entry was often restricted to the thousands of castrated captive slave males from the periphery of the empire. The poor procedure caused a significant number of deaths, but those who survived were used as court eunuchs. There, they may advance to the highest echelons of administrative authority. The eunuchs developed into the servant class that the kings of ancient Syria, Persia, China, and Rome most trusted. They were impervious to such effects at a time when employing family was commonplace. Christian Byzantium used eunuchs extensively in positions of authority, whereas Western Christendom did not.

Only a century ago, imperial China and the Ottoman Empire still had some remaining conventional bureaucrat-eunuchs. Therefore, governance by eunuchs was a "normal" way for governments to run their affairs throughout the majority of recorded history. Absolute devotion and disinterest, two benefits they provided, are not to be laughed at. Thankfully, there are methods available today to establish strong ethical standards in government employees without having to send castration technicians to visit the bureaucrats in Washington, Brussels, Tokyo, Beijing, or anywhere else[7], [8].

A Short History of Public Administration

However, even if public administration had developed in a completely different direction, it would still have had to reveal where it stands in terms of its fundamental principles. Although there isn't agreement on every single aspect, there is wide general agreement over the topic. Thus, with the exception of the presenting style, all introductory textbooks to public administration include Chapters that are comparable to those that follow. However, it is virtually universally acknowledged that a fundamental understanding of the discipline requires knowledge of issues like organizational theory, bureaucratic behaviour, personnel management, public finance and budgeting, policy analysis, programme assessment, and administrative ethics, among others. Everything you need to know is presented here.

This book's basic thesis is that understanding public administration requires an understanding of its political dynamics. The public administration industry's players must all accept their political destiny; they are unable to represent themselves or the public as the industrial management of the public sector. And it's important to approach the political element of public administration with maturity. The first step towards putting public administration operations on a more realistic footing is for public managers to admit that public sector administration is an inherently political process, just as the first step in stopping alcoholism is having the alcoholic admit that he or she is an alcoholic and will always be an alcoholic even after he or she stops drinking.

The profession of public administration is becoming more intergovernmental. However, a disproportionate number of the thorough textbooks offered for beginning courses in the United States are distinctly local in that they emphasise the federal government. When you consider that just a tiny portion of American public manager's work for the federal government, this arrangement seems out of place. Although there is just one federal government in the United States, there are more than 80,000 different state, county, metropolitan, and municipal entities that are run by officials that are both respected as governors and overlooked as the executive director of a mosquito abatement district. In 2013, 2.7 million people worked for the federal government in civilian capacities, compared to slightly under 20 million people employed by state and municipal governments. It should be emphasised that among those 2.7 million government positions are less than 580,000 US postal workers, a figure that is on the decline.

The majority of public administration students in the United States either want to work in state and local government or are foreigners who hope to use their education in their home countries after graduation. Others will work for charitable organisations. The end of the Cold War in 1989 only fueled the growth of a global market for public administration with a Western focus. Since it is acceptable for US students at all levels, this work mostly adopts a unified approach while being sufficiently general to be really helpful to students from different nations and cultures. The majority of the information in basic public administration literature is transferable to other fields. Public administration overall is a cohesive totality that is more effective than the sum of its constituent components. Writing the information in a way that it can be easily applicable to the many political systems inside the American federal system and across the rest of the globe is the central idea of the unified method to teaching public administration. Today, no textbook on public administration can really be considered complete if it is not cross-governmental in the broadest sense. Rarely do national administration authorities, from the president on down, give a significant statement without mentioning politics and procedures in Asia, Europe, and other regions. This is only the most recent illustration of how crucial it is for American public administration students to get a more global perspective.

This won't be a "how-to" manual aimed at those looking to master public administration in 10 simple steps. It will be a "what is it?" book created for anyone looking for or already working in management positions in the public sector who want a basic overview of or introduction to public sector administrative practices. Administrative procedures' "nuts and bolts" differ greatly from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. It would be pointless to describe the "one right way" for each given operation due to the many laws and traditions. The procedural Chapters, which cover topics like people, budgeting, strategic management, etc., focus on the They are unable to represent themselves or the public as the industrial management of the public sector. And it's important to approach the political element of public administration with maturity. The first step towards putting public administration operations on a more realistic footing is for public managers to admit that public sector administration is an inherently political process, just as the first step in stopping alcoholism is having the alcoholic admit that he or she is an alcoholic and will always be an alcoholic even after he or she stops drinking.

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CONCLUSION

From a political, legal, administrative, and professional standpoint, public administration might be characterized. Whatever a government does is included in its enormous reach, whatever it is defined. Outside of its political framework, public administration cannot exist. This context is what distinguishes it from private or company administration and makes it public. A state's responsibility is to administer the public. It is a product of law, subject to it, and controlled by it. It automatically carries out governmental legislation. Every administrative act required to implement a general legislation. Public administration is made possible by its legal foundation, yet little of the public's business would be accomplished without its management component.

Public administration is a career that provides many opportunity for idealistic pursuit of public service, and even for acts of heroism, as we witnessed on September 11. Concerns about a public service that is expanding or becoming more effective ebb and flow with the various governments' evolving political ideologies. However, whether public services are provided by career employees or by outsourced Employees in the business sector or non-profit organizations who continue to embody public management. Along with making sure that public services are offered with Public administration is dealing with new realities of accountability and efficiency adjusting public businesses and services to meet the need for renewable energy sources, resource preservation techniques, green technology, and sustainable design concepts.

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CHAPTER 2

THE POLITICAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PUBLIC POLICY

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ABSTRACT:

A polity, or overall political jurisdiction, is where public activities, such as policymaking or administration, occur. All public managers must struggle with both internal and external polities. The external environment is changing more quickly than the internal environment, exceeding institutional reaction. Public administration is under pressure to create public policies to address these new forces as well as existing social and economic problems and implement programmes to carry out the solutions suggested by governments as the challenges of globalization, technology, marketization, and ecological forces mount. It definitely appears appropriate to use the phrase "Wicked Problems" to describe both the complexity and the difficulties of public policy. Public managers are becoming aware of the fact that outdated solutions often cause new issues.

KEYWORDS:

Comprehensive Policy, Ecological Forces, Marketization, Public Administration.

INTRODUCTION

Policy establishes systematic frameworks and a feeling of purpose. In the absence of policy, public administration cannot function. It has to have management teams who are motivated to act, even if it's only to keep things as they are. Because of this, all forms of public administration are by nature instruments of policy, whether they function well or not. Any choice is a policy. Whatever the government chooses to do or not do is considered public policy. It is the answer a government makes to a political problem. A public programme is made up of all the actions intended to carry out the public policy. Frequently, this entails the establishment of organisations, public agencies, and bureaus. These organisations then require the development of additional policies to instruct their staff members on how to carry out the overall public policy. Hierarchy exists in policy. At the top, the widest, most comprehensive policy is decided. Then, policies must be developed at every level below that are even more narrowly focused.

The American president, for instance, is at the top of the hierarchy for determining foreign policy. Thousands more clerks working in the visa departments of hundreds of embassies and consulates sit at dozens of levels under him, making judgements on who is legally permitted to visit the United States. Of course, rules and regulations have a significant influence on policy at the bottom. But insofar as these low-level employees whom Michael Lipsky refers to as "street-level bureaucrats" have any power at all, they are determining policy. And if you are the target of that policy, whether you are a driver getting a traffic ticket from a police officer or a visa application, the policy is just as real to you as if it were coming from a higher position in the policymaking hierarchy [1], [2].

DISCUSSION

A political community's lawful policy-maker is the sovereign. The sovereign is the sovereign in a traditional society. In the US, the people are regarded sovereign and the government is seen as acting on their behalf. President Woodrow Wilson rhetorically questioned what America stood for in a speech on January 29, 1916, remarking that it is first the sovereignty of self-governing people. Democracy often refers to this kind of government. However, democracy is not a straightforward or continuous idea. Instead, it is a concept that is always changing with reference to how the populace and the government interact.

Like so many things related to governance, it began with the Greeks. Their Democracy consisted of an elite class of male citizens ruling over a sizable slave population and politically oppressed women neither of which were ideal for women. Being a slave was far worse. The emergence of popular or universal democracy in the eighteenth century gave rise to radical notions of democracy that favoured giving the people at first, just white male's totally unrestricted authority. Building a state that could wield that authority not only in the name of, but for all of the people, remained a challenge. In his Gettysburg Address in 1863, President Abraham Lincoln, who had a long history of opposing slavery, expressed his worry that this government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

The current issue with "the people" is that far too many evildoers have committed far too many heinous crimes in their name. As a result of the widespread usage of the word "democracy" by totalitarian regimes and their "people's democracies," what is one person's democratic rule is often another person's totalitarian dictatorship. Therefore, contemporary democracy is subjective, much like modern contact lenses. The word "democracy" has lost its meaning, but not its vitality, in political discourse as a result of being used to represent such a wide variety of institutional alternatives. The so-called "pure" democracy of the free male inhabitants of ancient Athens piqued the suspicion of the founding fathers of the United States, who had a point.

As Aristotle had said, these pure democracies had fallen prey to demagogues many times throughout history, eventually becoming authoritarian tyrannies. However, they also desired a system of government that, unlike the city-states of ancient Greece, could work across a vast territory. The founders expressly desired a governmental structure that was shielded from a pure democracy. In *The Federalist*, No. 14, James Madison said that "In a democracy, the people gather and exercise the government directly; in a republic, the people assemble and administer it via their representatives and agents. Therefore, a democracy will be restricted to a narrow area.

A republic may encompass a huge area. However, the founding fathers were well aware that numerous democracies throughout history, including the Roman republic, had been overthrown by despots. Therefore, when asked what kind of government had been conceived at the Constitutional Convention in 1787, Benjamin Franklin said, "A republic, if you can keep it." He was aware that "keeping it" was not a guarantee. The legislature, whether it be Congress or the parliament, is paramount in a republic. It has the most enumerated authorities after all, and the administrative and judicial departments are responsible for upholding its laws. As James Madison said in *The Federalist*, No. 51, "In republican government, the legislative authority necessarily predominates." In other words, "It is the duty of the president to propose and it is the privilege of the Congress to dispose," was how President Franklin D. Roosevelt said it during a news conference on July 23, 1937.

However, from World War II until very recently, this system was corrupted. The president has been exceptionally assertive towards the Congress since it was necessary to do so during both the cold and the hot wars. The power relationship seemed to be reverting to its "normal" state after the Cold War ended and there was no longer a need to support a wartime leader at least until September 11, 2001, and the war on terrorism[3], [4].

Executive Powers

Many political leaders, including mayors, governors, and presidents, have attempted to assume greater control over policymaking than may be allowed by the constitution often for excellent reasons related to the welfare of the people. In a republican administration, how far may the executive go from the wishes of the legislature or the wording of the constitution? This often depends on the political clout of the president, which is shown by a large election mandate, legislative dominance by the executive's party, or public opinion poll ratings.

Strong CEOs are better equipped to implement the policies they support. But how much power, if any, should an executive have or be permitted to have? The restricted view, the prerogative theory, and the stewardship theory are three well-known statements on executive power that were all made by former presidents of the United States and are all equally applicable to any political executive, whether president, governor, or mayor, in any constitutional system.

The Prerogative Theory

President Abraham Lincoln endorsed this view of the executive branch, and John Locke agreed with it in his *Second Treatise of Government*. They felt that the president had special authority to protect the country under specific circumstances because "many things there are which the law can by no means provide for; and those must necessarily be left to the discretion of him that has the executive power in his hands. Lincoln believed that this authority may not only go beyond what the Constitution allows, but also go against it. This theory holds that a president might even temporarily gain totalitarian authority.

The obligation to protect the government the nation of which the Constitution was the basic law was forced upon me by my pledge to uphold the Constitution to the best of my abilities. Was there a way to use the country while yet upholding the Constitution? According to general law, life and limb must be safeguarded; but, it is often necessary to amputate a limb in order to save a life; a life is never sensibly surrendered to save a limb. I believed that by becoming essential to the preservation of the Constitution via the preservation of the country, otherwise unlawful acts may become legitimate.

Lincoln's outlook was admirable enough throughout the Civil War. The Supreme Court has, however, "checked" previous presidents when they have asked for unprecedented powers, despite justifications based on executive privilege and national security. For instance, the Supreme Court rejected several of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's attempts to increase the size and reach of the federal government during the Great Depression because they were seen to go beyond the Constitution's restrictions on executive authority.

The judicial branch resisted President Harry S. Truman's efforts to use presidential authority over labour and industry during the Korean War. Truman issued an executive order instructing the Secretary of Commerce to assume control of and run the country's steel mills due to a labour dispute that threatened to halt the manufacturing of weapons for the Korean War in the 1950s. In reaction, the president exceeded his constitutional authority.

Twenty years later, in *United States v. Nixon*, the Supreme Court rejected President Richard M. Nixon's argument that the Constitution gave him an absolute and unchallengeable executive privilege, especially the right not to testify in response to a subpoena in connection with a legal proceeding. The Court said that "without more, neither the doctrine of separation of powers nor the need for the confidentiality of high-level communications can sustain an absolute, unqualified, presidential immunity from judicial process under all circumstances." The Supreme Court acknowledged that there was a limited executive privilege that may apply in matters relating to the military, diplomacy, or security and where discretion was necessary for the president to carry out his constitutional duties. This was the choice that compelled Nixon to turn over audio recordings of illegal activity in Oval Office sessions to the Watergate special prosecutor, thereby forcing Nixon to resign as president in 1974.

The prerogative strategy is not a universally applicable idea. Presidents have only been able to "get away with it" during times of war, when Congress has been cooperative or kept in the dark, since it is only applicable in situations of extreme national emergency. The Congress and the public were deeply divided about how much prerogative President Bush should be permitted to use during the War on Terror and in Iraq. Similar criticism of President Obama's handling of the economic crisis in 2009 included claims that he was going too far. Despite the fact that the economy is said to be "the worst since the Great Depression," Obama's detractors said that he was acting beyond the bounds of the president's constitutional authority. The crucial point to keep in mind is that this idea of executive authority is subtly reserved to back a leader who leads the country through a difficult moment, or, alternatively, it lurks in the hands of an unethical opportunist or demagogue to strangle republican opposition. Institutions. Who were the effective leaders and who were the political opportunists is a decision that can only be made by historians[5], [6].

The Cultures of Public Organizations

Administrative institutions cultivate and support their own organizational cultures while also being a part of the larger culture of their society. Since we are little children, we almost automatically learn how to navigate these many worlds. Our behaviour differs from that of others in the outside world while we are on the street or at home, both of which are rather closed organisations. This acknowledges the fact that various cultural expectations for behaviour exist. We converse in a different manner with our street companions than we do with our parents or instructors. This acculturates us to the reality that every time we join a new group, whether it be for business, religion, or weight lifting, we anticipate to acquire the new lingo and customs of the new group's culture and are typically ready to do so. The idea that public organisations have "two cultures" is a major simplification. The cultural diversity within public organisations is practically unlimited. They all engage with the outside world and the larger culture, however, which unites them all. All public organisations must cope with two cultures, their own internal culture and the prevalent external culture, it might be stated.

The Outside Cultural Environment

The context in which public administration is often evaluated is incorrect. It is mistakenly thought of as an alternative to industrial management systems in the public sector. Only a subset of the entire public management function may be compared to the private sector, and the size of that component depends on how politicised the jurisdiction's administrative functions are. Therefore, it is impossible to comprehend or assess public sector activities without taking into account the political environment and political culture of the host jurisdiction. Any community's perceptions about the strength and effectiveness of its

governing institutions are determined by the political climate of the local region. A community's opinions about the calibre, fashion, and vigour of its political processes and government operations are influenced by the political culture, a subset of the larger social culture. The cultural backdrop of the host jurisdictions must be examined in order to understand the great variances in public bureaucracies.

For a multitude of reasons not the least of which is the wide range of opinions on what really qualifies as a high-quality operation the quality of bureaucratic operations as judged by measures of public pleasure, effectiveness, or corruption varies. Critics and public officials, however, only have a minor role in determining the activities' quality or style; the community's political will plays a major one. It specifies the standards of behaviour that an official may engage in and decides the principles and means to be used to address any given public issue. It also helps define the responsibilities of citizenship.

The political culture determines the bounds and scope of such dishonesty, even when it is rampant. For instance, James Q. Wilson shows in *Varieties of Police Behaviour* that police operations in eight towns were conducted in a way that mirrored the explicit and/or inferred aspirations of the community rather than an arbitrary benchmark of professionalism or excellence. Therefore, depending on the perceived level of community concern, the police were either too lenient or excessively harsh with minor legal offences. If order maintenance is viewed as the department's primary duty, Wilson deems the police force to have a "watchman" style of performance. Law offences that do not include "serious" crimes, such as minor traffic infractions, bookmaking, and illegal church bingo, are often ignored by such a police operation. Of course, whether there are any of these activities or not, there will sometimes be crackdowns. Occasionally, the police shut down illegal gaming establishments in response to the mayor's or police chief's political demands. The basic goal of the "watchman" approach is to preserve order and guarantee the efficient, unobtrusive operation of the community or bureaucracy. Only when the "heat" is on are legal issues and official operational directives prioritized. Of course, in societies with a legalistic bent, police processes will likely to be more legalistic [7], [8].

Cultural Values and Administration

The political culture of a community may be defined even if it is seldom stated. The political culture guarantees that the decision-making process is filtered via its value system before administrative action is done by deciding the values to be applied to each particular challenge. George is an example of how values impact administrative activities. "Shooting an Elephant," a 1936 essay by George Orwell. When Orwell served as a police officer for the British colonial authority in Burma in the 1920s, trained elephants were used to haul huge logs. The local officer on duty, in this instance Orwell, was tasked with shooting an elephant that suddenly disdained his tamed labours in the forestry sector and went on the rampage. The issue was that the elephant described in the article was happily munching on grass and posing no threat to anybody when Orwell and the local bystanders finally caught up with it. But a growing number of people anticipated that this one officer, a representation of the imperial presence, would act forcefully. According to Orwell, "A sahib [a master] has to act like a sahib; he has to appear resolute, to know his own mind, and to do definite things." The dominant society expected Orwell to shoot the elephant. According to Orwell, he felt like "an absurd puppet" being "pushed to and fro by the will of those" folks. He shoots and kills the elephant "solely to avoid looking a fool," despite the fact that there was no cause to do so for the sake of the public's safety. He had to because of the culture.

Of course, sentiments now are quite different, and it is very impossible to imagine that a police officer today would feel forced to kill any endangered animal, much less a non-threatened elephant, anywhere in the globe. Due to the size and geographic diversity of the country, local political subcultures in the many states and regions often have more influence than the national political culture. The distinctive political cultures of, for instance, the Rocky Mountain West or the Deep South are the result of the interaction between many elements of political culture, such as race, ethnicity, and religion, and historical patterns of political behaviour. Different political cultures evolve at different rates. Today's political cultures of Germany and Japan are significantly different from those of the countries when they served as the paragons of fascism before and during World War II. Following the end of the Cold War, the formerly communist governments of Eastern Europe very immediately adopted new political ideologies. With the significant exception of the 1861–1865 Civil War, American politics have historically been extremely consistent.

The Inside Cultural Environment

A similar but scaled-down form of a society culture is an organisational culture, or the culture that exists inside an organisation. It is composed of immaterial elements like values, assumptions, ideas, and perceptions. These ideas and attitudes, which remain through time and permeate all aspects of the organisation, are what drive members' behaviours both inside and beyond the organisation. A network of rituals and interaction patterns are used to sustain and transmit an organisational culture, which is then imposed and reinforced by group norms and the organization's system of incentives and controls. An organisational culture is also passed down to new members via socialisation processes. Those organisational operations that can be seen are constantly being driven by an invisible, unobservable force. The dominating or early organisational "shapers" and "heroes'" attitudes and behaviours, the nature of the organization's activity, and the attitudes, values, and "willingness to act" of new members all contribute to the formation of organizational culture.

It is communicated via often repeated tales and legends, as well as formal and informal the socialisation process. The culture of an organisation establishes behavioural expectations, serves as a motivator and focal point for members' commitment, and functions as an organisational control system. However, although a strong organisational culture helps manage behaviour, it can also prevent an organisation from taking the necessary actions to change with the times. Because it enables us to comprehend or foresee how an organisation will act in various situations, organisational culture is a particularly helpful conceptual construct. A cultural pattern is comparable to a genetic inheritance in that if you are aware of the trends in fundamental presumptions, you can predict how the organisation will respond to certain situations. Most significantly, it becomes crucial to discover strategies to dismantle the problematic aspects of that culture if it can be shown that an organisational culture contributed to bad performance by an agency. A similar situation occurred when researchers looked at the intelligence failures that contributed to the 9/11 terrorist attacks' success. The FBI came under fire in 2002 during joint Senate and House hearings for promoting an organisational culture that devalued collaboration across the bureau's many departments. The hearings notably drew attention to a culture at the FBI and a culture like it at the CIA that discouraged communication between intelligence agents and law enforcement authorities.

Every organisational culture is unique, much like a snowflake. The fundamental presumptions vary since what has consistently worked for one organisation may not work for another. Every organisational culture is also influenced by a wide range of variables, including the social culture in which it exists as well as its technology and rival organisations. Stronger cultures are present in certain organisations, whereas weaker cultures are more

common; "subcultures" often develop in various functional or geographic locations. The more formal culture of a headquarters office as opposed to the informality of a field office is the most prevalent illustration of this final phenomena[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

A policy's tool is public administration. However, the sheer structure of republican institutions places limitations on public policymaking under republican administration. Executive leadership is fundamentally constrained, both in terms of the leader's philosophies of how to use authority and in terms of the legal restrictions imposed by constitutional checks and balances. Making public policy happens in cycles. Critique in the form of feedback places new choices on the policy agenda as decisions are made and implemented. By doing this, the process of creating policies is restarted. Although choices might represent significant changes from the status quo, they are more often gradual. Last but not least, just as public policy and administration coexist in two polities, so does it as a culture. At the same time as it creates and supports its own organisational cultures, it also contributes to the larger culture of its society. Recognising that a culture might be resistant to change is a bigger difficulty since many organisations choose minor, incremental changes as a way to go ahead. Public administration must do more than just adapt in a highly dynamic environment well-intentioned reform will fall short when innovation is required.

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CHAPTER 3

STRUCTURAL ARRANGEMENTS OF FEDERAL, STATE AND MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS

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ABSTRACT:

All of the structural arrangements used by the federal, state, or municipal governments to carry out the policies and services that are required by law make up the machinery of government. The central management structures of the government must necessarily be included in this. The establishment and subsequent reorganization of executive branch agencies is a perennial problem for the workings of government in all jurisdictions. The whole machinery of government is composed of the structural arrangements made feasible by a constitutional provision or a statute requiring the provision of public services. These arrangements might be modified. Public organizations' duties may and should sometimes alter to meet fresh needs and evolving perspectives. The three main organizational categories that make up the executive branch machinery are executive office agencies, executive departments, and autonomous public organisations. The federal arrangements are mirrored at the state and local levels.

KEYWORDS:

Constitutional Provision, Municipal Governments, Public organizations', Structural Arrangements.

INTRODUCTION

It took Alexander Hamilton the trouble to quote these two passages from his *An Essay on Man* in *The Federalist*, No. 68, denounce the sentiment as "political heresy," and then admit, "Yet we may safely pronounce that the true test of a good government is its aptitude and tendency to produce a good administration." Since then, Hamilton's ideal of "good administration" has served as a gauge of a government's effectiveness. A government's apparatus for enforcing its policies must be evaluated by the standard of the public administration it produces. However, a lot of political experts from Hamilton's day and now would contend that number, not quality, is what matters most. A government large enough to give you everything you desire is a government big enough to steal from you everything you have, warned Senator Barry Goldwater often during his losing 1964 presidential campaign.

"Society in every state is a blessing, but government, even in its best state, is but a necessary evil; in its worst state, an intolerable one," argued Hamilton's contemporaries Thomas Paine and John Locke in *Common Sense*. This undoubtedly represents the beliefs of the American Republican Party in the present. In fact, this party won the US Congress in the midterm elections of 1994, standing on a programme that only slightly deviates from Paine's assertion. All of this may be summed up by the axiom "government is best which governs least." This phrase, which has also been ascribed to Thomas Jefferson, Thomas Paine, and many other sceptics of government, was used by New England author Henry David Thoreau to start his well-known 1849 essay *Civil Disobedience* [1], [2].

But if so many intelligent and honourable individuals firmly felt that the size of government should be "least," how and why did it do so? Has the apparatus become too huge to do its

most basic function, creating Hamilton's "good administration"? This Chapter's goal is to look at how the political system works and how it affects both successful and unsuccessful administrations. Keep in mind, however, that the majority of discussions on reinventing government and the greatest public management techniques do not centre on substantially altering the makeup of governmental institutions. About adjusting the equipment. To use a mobile example, it's not about recreating the car; it's about utilising fewer, less costly components to achieve more miles per gallon of gasoline[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Every time the government tries to solve a big problem, more apparatus follows. Thus, the civil rights movement that got its start in the 1950s left behind the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and the Commission on Civil Rights. The Environmental Protection Agency was abandoned by the environmental movement that emerged in the 1960s. The Department of Homeland Security was established as a result of the war on terrorism that got its start in 2001 at the World Trade Centre. We also have the Recovery Accountability and Transparency Board and the Automobile Recovery Task Force thanks to the economic crises of 2008 and 2009. Once formed, governmental organisations have a tendency to endure for a long time and resist change. They create supporter groups for their cause. They often take on new issues, which strengthens their support. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, for instance, originally primarily handled employment discrimination lawsuits. In addition to being the nation's top enforcement of laws against sexual harassment in the workplace, federal courts now redefine what constitutes discrimination.

The government's machinery functions according to gravity. What ascends may also descend. As economic deregulation gained popularity, the Civil Aeronautics Board, which the federal government established in 1938 to oversee the airline sector, was disbanded in 1985. In an effort to save expenditures, a newly elected Republican-controlled Congress eliminated the Office of Technology Assessment, a support organisation of Congress founded in 1972 to serve as an unbiased source of information on policy choices for technology-related concerns. The Department of the Interior's Bureau of Mines, an 85-year-old institution, was eliminated in 1996 by a Congress more concerned with large-budget savings than with the concerns of powerful labour unions, giving 1,200 of its workers the shaft.

However, even when a portion of the government apparatus is cut off, it is seldom fully discarded. Workers from the Bureau of Mines who were responsible for coal mine safety, for instance, were moved to the Department of Energy's Fossil Energy Division. The National Weather Service and the Bureau of the Census should be kept around, even in scaled-down incarnations, according to even the most ardent opponents of the Department of Commerce. Even very recent government initiatives may fall under this. Consider the Recovery Accountability and Transparency Board as an example. This is the nonpartisan, apolitical organization that the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 initially established with two objectives:

1. To provide transparency of ARRA-related funds
2. To detect and prevent fraud, waste, and mismanagement of those funds

The Board's power was later increased by the Consolidated Appropriations Act of 2012 to include monitoring of all federal funds for the post-economic recovery initiatives sponsored by the federal government. The Board was then required by Congress to utilize its resources to provide oversight of Hurricane Sandy money under the Disaster Appropriations Act of 2013. In comparison to many other similar, if smaller, democracies like Britain, Australia, and

New Zealand, the American government apparatus is considerably more fundamentally conservative and, as a result, far more resistant to change. The components of the governmental apparatus are changeable, notwithstanding how challenging it may be. As society demands evolve, they may and need to be modified.

There is one question about the legislative branch that is often asked. "When you see a large government bureaucracy, is it an inevitable relic of the past that can't be changed, or is it an opportunity for an extraordinary transformation to provide better services and better opportunities at lower cost?" was the question Rep. Newt Gingrich posed in a December 1994 speech accepting his party's nomination for Speaker of the House. One of those queries where there is just one viable response is that everyone wants "better services" and "lower costs." However, are you prepared to mess with your government apparatus to get them? One simply has to consider the recent attempt by French President Francois Hollande to cut the number of administrative regions in France from 22 to 14, which was received with vehement opposition and harsh condemnation[5], [6].

The Administrative Architecture of the Us Government

A constitution offers the fundamental architecture political and legal that establishes the guidelines under which a government must function. "The aim of every political constitution is, or ought to be, first to obtain for rulers men who possess the greatest wisdom to discern, and greatest virtue to pursue, the common good of the society," wrote James Madison in *The Federalist*, No. 57. "And in the second place, to take the most effective precautions for keeping them virtue while they continue to hold their public trust." Even though Madison said that the primary goal was to locate suitable "men," he would undoubtedly reevaluate that term if he were writing today. He would definitely choose a phrase that is sexually neutral, like people, individuals, or folks. However, this does not go far enough since administration is the main responsibility of all contemporary constitutional systems' rulers. Because administrators are those who oversee a constitution, "administrators" should take the place of "men" in Madison's political theory. There is a resounding echo of Woodrow Wilson's well-known remark that "it is getting harder to run a constitution than to frame one" Madison is often regarded as the Constitution's principal framer. But if he had lived to see the results of his labour, he would have been far more worried about managing it.

With its well-known opening phrase, "We the people," the Constitution declares that the people, not the states, are the source of its power. Then it assigns the government is organised by distributing authority to the several branches. By using a system of checks and balances, it restricts the authority that each branch may use. Most importantly, it reserves some powers for the states and the people while denying them to the federal government. The Constitution served as the foundation for American politics, which has been "constitutionalized." Many domestic political concerns, including civil rights, crime, pornography, abortion, and impeachment, to mention just a few of the more prominent situations, are ultimately dealt in constitutional terms. Only foreign policy has significantly resisted this trend, while the war on terror has increasingly brought legal concerns about prisoners' rights back before American courts. The first question that Americans are likely to ask when discussing issues of government and politics is "Is it constitutional?" The advantages of certain policies and governmental systems are only afterwards taken into account.

"Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the Constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consist with the letter and spirit of the Constitution, are constitutional," the Supreme Court stated in the 1819 case of *McCulloch v. Maryland*. The American government's apparatus was

established at a single point in time for a single purpose, in contrast to the British parliamentary system, which developed over hundreds of years. The world's first initiative to create a new form of government was the Constitutional Convention in 1787. Additionally, the government it established was intended to be ineffective. Due to their experiences under British rule, Americans have generally been wary of a too efficient government, believing that such a government may inevitably erode democratic liberty.

In *Immigration and Naturalization Service v. Chadha*, Chief Justice Warren Burger wrote for the Court and stated the following: "It is crystal clear from the records of the [Constitutional] Convention, contemporaneous writings and debates, that the Framers ranked other values higher than efficiency.... The choices we discern as having been made in the Constitutional Convention impose burdens on governmental processes that often seem clumsy, inefficient, and unnecessary."

In the *Chadha* case, the modern US Supreme Court declared that "there is no support in the Constitution or decisions of this Court for the proposition that the cumbersomeness and delays often encountered in complying with explicit Constitutional standards may be avoided, either by the Congress or by the president." This statement was a confirmation of the value of inefficiency. The Court unanimously affirmed its support for bureaucracy, the cherished procedural protections that keep us secure even when we don't want to be, and the slow pace of the law. And they have done this, as they claimed in the *Chadha* case, because we have not yet found a better way to preserve freedom than by making the exercise of power subject to the carefully crafted restraints spelt out in the Constitution, despite all the obvious flaws of delay, untidiness, and potential for abuse.

Executive Branch Machinery

The executive branch of the US government is clearly the most complicated component of the government apparatus, with the legislative and judicial branches seeming to be smaller in contrast and having fewer subdivisions. Although the protection of fundamental rights provided by the division of powers is to be highly cherished, this does not give individual agencies a pass for being ineffective as organisations. In fact, the main goal of American public administration reform over the last century has been to build effective parts of an ineffective total.

The other two branches are equally interesting from the perspective of the government's machinery, even though the executive branch has the most intricate organization. For instance, the US Supreme Court is in charge of all federal courts' administrative decisions. And while the majority of people are aware that the legislative branch is home to the Senate and the House of Representatives, fewer people are aware that it also houses a number of significant institutions, including the Library of Congress, the Government Accountability Office.

The Architect of the Capitol, the US Botanic Garden, and others. This final organization is crucial because it enables Congress to exert budgetary control on the executive branch. If the GAO's duties were housed in the executive branch, as they commonly are in democracies based on the British parliamentary system, their effectiveness would be significantly reduced. The apparatus that helps to carry out national policies set by both constitutional and legislative methods is found in the executive branch, which is led by the president. The executive branch's organizational structure is divided into three major categories: Executive office agencies, executive departments, and autonomous public entities are listed in that order[7], [8].

Executive Office Agencies

The key presidential staff agencies come under the umbrella of the Executive Office of the President, which aids and advises the president in carrying out important duties. The Office of Management and Budget, the Council of Economic Advisers, and the National Security Council are a few of the institutions that are involved in "head office" duties of policy, planning, and resource allocation. However, others, like the Council on Environmental Quality and the Office of National Drug Control Policy, exist to represent significant national objectives.

Executive Departments

15 executive departments are present. They make up the president's cabinet collectively. Despite the fact that its top officials, the secretaries of the federal executive departments, need Senate approval, this institution's existence is based more on tradition than on a constitutional mandate. President George Washington considered it beneficial to meet with the heads of the several executive departments, which is how it evolved to be one body. Even though every succeeding president has thought it vital to meet with the cabinet, there has been a wide range in how they feel about the group as a whole. While some presidents depended on their cabinet for guidance and assistance, others just met with it for the most formal and customary things. Different from the president's cabinet unlike the cabinet in the British parliamentary system, the president in the United States has exclusive constitutional authority over the executive branch, unlike the cabinet in the British system. A well-known example of this is a tale involving Abraham Lincoln. He gathered his cabinet for a critical discussion on military strategy during the Civil War. He asked for a vote so he could gauge their emotions. They all cast "nay" votes.

The secretary of Homeland Security is the newest member of the cabinet, which currently includes the secretaries of 15 executive departments. The cabinet, however, is mostly absent from the executive branch. Presidents have granted individuals the right to attend and participate in cabinet meetings from the beginning of time. The US ambassador to the UN and the director of the Office of Management and Budget, among others, have received cabinet status in recent years to signify the significance of the roles they play. All cabinet members are not created equally, either. The federal departments of State, Defense, Treasury, and Justice are referred to as the "inner" cabinet since they often have greater prominence and influence in each administration than the other departments do. The responsibilities of those in the inner cabinet often provide them an edge in prestige, access, and visibility denied to those who lead the remaining cabinet, even if all cabinet secretaries have the same rank and income. For better or worse, political scientists Edward Weisband and Thomas M. Frank stated that "Cabinet meetings in the United States have, at least in this century, been characterised as vapid nonevents where there has been a deliberate nonexchange of information as part of a process of mutual nonconsultation." Never has the president's cabinet worked together as a cohesive one. That is practically impossible due to the American system of government, which mandates that cabinet secretaries answer to both the president and the Congress. The organisation of US government departments is a rather shrewd choice of issues that are likely to need a national emphasis by government. However, these are not the only subjects that might be covered at this level. They stand for decisions between conflicting agendas. For instance, because there is no federal Department of the Environment, environmental concerns must be raised via other agencies. Although the Clinton administration advocated for the creation of such a department, the Republican opposition in the Congress not only opposed it but also worked to have most of the environmental protection laws that the agency would be responsible for enforcing repealed.

State Government

The governor is a state's elected top executive officer. The duties of a governor often resemble those of the president of the United States on a lesser scale, although each governor is only given the authority specified in his state's constitution. Some jurisdictions severely restrict executive authority, while others provide their governors more authority than the US president, including the right to veto specific legislation. Except for Arkansas, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont, all states have a four-year governor term; the other states have a two-year governor term. The number of terms a governor may serve is now limited in 38 states, with the majority allowing two or three four-year terms and a few, like Virginia, only allowing one. To refer to a governor as the state's top executive is misleading in certain ways. Since governors, in stark contrast to the US president, typically have to share authority with a variety of other independently elected executive branch officers, such as a secretary of state, an attorney general, a treasurer, and an auditor, the majority of state constitutions actually provide for what amounts to a plural executive. As a result, a governor's informal influence as the leader of his or her party and a lobbyist for his or her projects may sometimes be considerably more effective than the official authority that comes with the position. However, in terms of responsibilities, a governor's managerial position is comparable to that of the highest-paid corporate executives. Over 30 states have more than 200,000 workers, placing them in the top 20 when compared to the largest enterprises in the world. California would come in second with just over 2.1 million employment, behind Walmart as the top employer with over 2.2 million workers.

In the event that the governor is unable to serve out his or her full term, the lieutenant governor is the elected state official who would take over. The position is similar to that of the vice president in the federal government, but varies in that the lieutenant governor is often chosen independently from the governor and may belong to a different political party. While the two officeholders are political competitors, this may sometimes lead to a lot of conflict—especially in states like California where the lieutenant governor takes over part of the governor's responsibilities while he or she is away from the state.

There are no lieutenant governors in Arizona, Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oregon, West Virginia, and Wyoming. In four of these states, the governorship would be succeeded by the state senate president; in the other three, it would be the secretary of state. Calvin Coolidge, who was Massachusetts' lieutenant governor at the time, is famous for meeting a lady at a dinner party. "What do you do?" she enquired. As an answer, he said, "I'm the lieutenant governor." She said, "How intriguing, you must tell me all about it." Then Coolidge said, "I just did." Despite Coolidge's reputation for secrecy, his summary of the restricted duties of the position of lieutenant governor was grounded in truth.

County Government

The county serves as the fundamental administrative unit for state government decentralisation. Despite being normally run by an elected board or commission, is currently moving towards a county executive or administrator. The equivalent unit is known as a parish in Louisiana and a borough in Alaska. In 2011, there were 3,033 county governments in the United States. Each state chooses how many counties it will have on its own. There is a dizzying diversity of positions held by county elected officials. Harvey Ruvin, a commissioner for Dade County in Florida, said in 1989 that county officials "are supervisors in California, judges in Texas, jurors in Louisiana, freeholders in New Jersey, county legislators in New York, and commissioners in Dade." People from New York mistake me for the dog catcher when I tell them I'm a commissioner. It makes sense why the public and

media are so interested in governors and mayors. A county's administrative and judicial centres are situated at the county seat, which serves as the county's capital. Near a large portion of the United States, the county seat was placed near the county's geographic centre so that it would only take one day to go there on horseback from the counties farthest point. There are so many counties because of this. It would appear to make a lot of sense to unite numerous counties and thereby realise significant savings from having fewer county clerks, county sheriffs, county courts, and so on. Fewer people nowadays still ride horses to government buildings. But who among the judges, sheriffs, and clerks will quit covertly? "You can't get there from here!" is a common way to sum up the challenge of restructuring the legislative and executive branches of government. Of course, the diversity of governing bodies facilitates more democratic oversight by keeping the government closer to the people. Reformers still continuously question whether the advantages of divided governance outweigh the additional expenses. In recent decades, there have been a lot of consolidations between county and city administrations. One notable instance is the recent creation of a single metropolitan government by Jefferson County, Kentucky, and the city of Louisville.

The Micromanagers

In his well-known 1887 essay "The Study of Administration," Woodrow Wilson stated that "administrative questions are not political questions" and that "the field of administration is a field of business... a part of political life only as the methods of the counting-house are a part of the life of the society." The Brownlow Committee's proposals for enhancing the executive's managing skills institutionalized this. However, as Professor David H. Rosenbloom has noted, Congress reacted to this more powerful and competent in terms of managing the executive branch president "in 1946 by establishing the legal and institutional bases for its contemporary role in federal administration." Thus, a split government under Republican-controlled Congress and Democratic-led President Truman produced these four laws, which planted the seeds of micromanagement:

- 1. Administrative Procedure Act of 1946:** The fundamental legislation guiding how federal agencies function in order to protect the public and agency customers. According to the APA, administrative agencies must a) make information about their activities publicly available, b) set regulations, c) participate in adjudication, and d) be subject to judicial review. As a result, agencies start with some kind of legislative directive and then transform it into policy choices, regulatory details, and assertions of penalties and enforcement procedures. The APA mandates that agencies provide any interested party the opportunity to petition for the issue, revision, or repeal of a rule and that regulations be published 30 days prior to their effective date. In practise, the APA grants administrative rule-makers the same prerogatives as legislators in adopting legislation, so long as the rule is compatible with the enabling statute, even if it sets a procedure of notice and opportunity for discussion.
- 2. Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946:** A law that promoted the creation of a professional, nonpartisan staff for committees as well as more staff for individual members, drastically reduced the number of standing committees in the Senate and House, allowed for a significant expansion of the Legislative Reference Service, and significantly reduced the number of standing committees. This was the first effort by Congress to create a productive staff structure to lessen its reliance on information from executive agencies.

3. **Tort Claims Act of 1946:** The enacted a legislation holding government agencies accountable for their torts/legal injuries committed against another person that may give rise to a civil lawsuit.
4. **The Employment Act of 1946:** which established the Council of Economic Advisers in the President's Executive Office and said that it was the duty of the federal government to protect economic stability and encourage full employment.

These rules worked together to unleash a horde of micromanagers. Congressmen now have the ability to examine the finer points of administration on behalf of their people, as opposed to previously being mostly confined to policy supervision. The APA established a rule-making procedure that provided many opportunities for pork barrel-related rule-making influence. Act Reorganising the Legislative Branch provided Congress with the personnel it needed to continuously meddle for their own political ends. With the use of the Tort Claims Act, Congress might successfully influence government organisations to make amends with their people. Additionally, the Employment Act provided almost limitless rationale for funnelling government funds into certain congressional districts.

Every time the Department of Defence has been pushed to purchase more weapons than it needs only because the business that creates them is located in a powerful member's congressional district, this procedure has taken place. Turning pork barrel politics into a moral national economic strategy was no minor accomplishment, as Rosenbloom humorously observed. Despite the fact that pork is not kosher by definition, bringing home the bacon is the very meaning of a member of Congress for many Americans. However, this could be altering. The significance of all of this is that, despite the Brownlow Committee's wishes, Congress never distinguished between politics and administration because they are inextricably linked. What led anybody to believe that the reinventing government movement, the most recent attempt to remove politics from government by converting disgruntled people into satisfied clients, would bring about a change in the situation?

The executive branch may now make a lot of changes on its own. It may prompt the Social Security Administration to return calls in a timely manner. It could compel IRS auditors to behave nicely. However, this is little in comparison to Congress's authority to set tax rates and Social Security benefits. Congressmen aren't inclined to give up their power to micromanage and all the pork for voters and reelection opportunities it entails for ill-defined ideals of increased efficiency. Members thrive on the chances for constituent service that bureaucratic red tape provides. Because of this, the ombudsman/ombudswoman movement in the US hasn't made much progress. The elected representatives cheerfully, even joyfully, carry out this duty. Because it is essential to winning reelection, it is, in fact, what their staffs spend the majority of their time on. In essence, the conclusion is pretty straightforward and obvious: in order to reinvent government, Congress must as well. And the state legislature has to be modernised if you want to recreate state governance. Few things in the study of public administration are as evident as the fact that an executive branch's and a legislature's organisational structures are closely related to one another. "One could as well ignore the laws of aerodynamics in designing an aircraft as ignore the laws of congressional dynamics in designing executive branch structure," said administrative expert Harold Seidman. Because of this, "what may seem to be structural oddities and abnormalities inside the executive branch are often nothing more than mirror copies of jurisdictional issues within the Congress. The organisational structures of the Congressional and Executive branches are interconnected and make up one system. Because they do not have this issue, parliamentary systems like the British and others have been able to reinvent themselves for further. For the sake of policy, the administration and legislature are practically one in that place [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The structural arrangements made possible by a constitutional clause or a law mandating the provision of public services make up the whole apparatus of government. These agreements may be changed. In order to reflect new demands and shifting attitudes, public organisations' roles might and should sometimes change. Executive office agencies, executive departments, and autonomous public entities are the three primary groups of organisations that make up the executive branch machinery. The arrangements at the state and municipal levels mirror those at the federal level. The emergence of the reinventing-government movement in the 1990s brought back the vogue for reorganisation. However, this continued a long history of appointed organisations tasked with making recommendations for enhancing governmental frameworks.

The National Performance Review of the 1990s came after the Hoover Commissions of the 1940s and 1950s and the Brownlow Committee of the 1930s. However, because of the micromanagers in Congress, changes for the executive branch can never take precedence over the legislative agenda. There are two sides to privatisation: the private supply of services for those with the means to pay for them, and the return to previously performed private sector activities. Executed by the government. The numerous facets of privatisation are essential to attempts worldwide to reinvent government.

The United States has been able to privatise via the use of its very large nonprofit sector. Marketization, which more particularly refers to having government take into account the whole spectrum of market-type processes to generate or provide public services, is replacing the word privatisation, which has strong political connotations. This might include diverse contracting or outsourcing arrangements, fresh PPPs, co-investment projects, or novel grant or voucher arrangements.

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CHAPTER 4

ANALYSING THE STRUCTURE OF INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

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ABSTRACT:

The mechanisms by which federalism is practiced are intergovernmental relations. It consists of a vast network of regular communications between the many federally coordinated administrations. The distribution of revenue and other resources to lower levels of government is done by higher levels of government via political, financial, programmatic, and administrative processes. In order for lower levels of government to be eligible for funding, these processes often come with requirements that they must meet. The US constitution set down the fundamental principles that regulate intergovernmental interactions permanently. Contrary to common assumption, the federal government is not structured such that each level precisely sits on the one before it. Because of the collaborative relationships between the many levels of government, reality is more like a marble cake, with activities merged rather than layered. The core tenet of the contemporary American movement for decentralization or devolution is mandate: one level of government must insist that another level provide or pay for a programme as a matter of law or as a prerequisite to partial or full funding of the programme in question or other programmes. Orders are prerequisites. Governments and constituencies that are becoming more displeased with being subject to such instructions are the ones driving the trend towards devolution.

KEYWORDS:

American Movement, Authority, Intergovernmental, Governments.

INTRODUCTION

Finally, federalism, a form of government in which a national, overarching authority shares power with subnational or state governments, emerged when there was a need for even greater bonds among governments. Federalism in action is represented through intergovernmental interactions. It is the intricate web of regular interactions between the governments under a federal system. Higher levels of government share revenues and other resources with lower levels of government through political, fiscal, programmatic, and administrative processes. Typically, these processes are accompanied by unique requirements that the lower levels of government must meet in order to qualify for the assistance.

Intergovernmental relations are essentially a collection of rules and procedures that regulate how several governmental tiers interact with one another while servicing the same region. Such relationships represent both the fundamental constitutional structure that connects the various levels of government and dynamic modern variables like relative authority, financial prowess, racial and ethnic divides, geographical considerations, and so on. The famous words of William Pitt the Elder in the British House of Lords from 1763, "The poorest man may in his cottage bid defiance to all the forces of the Crown," perfectly sum up this constitutional structure. It may be weak, its roof might tremble, the wind might blow through it, the storm might enter, the rain might enter, but the King of England cannot enter all of his forces dare not step foot inside the collapsed tenement! Unless this "poorest man" commits the typical "federal offence" and federal agents get a search or arrest order, the "crown" the federal

government cannot intervene in the United States today. And the only people who can get warrants for local offences are local authorities. This is why the Dallas, Texas, police department launched an inquiry into the 1963 killing of President John F. Kennedy[1], [2].

Kennedy was merely a local murder victim in the eyes of the authorities. In 1963, killing a president was not a federal felony, but robbing a bank that was insured by a government agency which is the case for the majority of banks was. The local police mishandled the case so badly that they unintentionally gave rise to a conspiracy theory industry. As a result, Congress passed legislation making it illegal to threaten or harm the president, vice president, or any member of their immediate family. In a federal system, several levels of government often carry out overlapping but legally distinct tasks, such as law enforcement in this instance. There are constitutional restrictions on each level.

Every public administrator must have a working knowledge of intergovernmental relations since it establishes the boundaries of the administrative environment in which they operate. In spite of the fact that laws, constitutions, and agreements, the study of which is essential to interstate relations, define the borders of all political entities, this issue goes beyond mere geographical divisions. Because most nations have found it essential to differentiate between national, regional, state, and local concerns and to assign them in a variety of ways to different levels of government, it is also a subject of functional allocations. Intergovernmental interactions are fundamentally centered on this allocation, or the issue of who is responsible for what tasks and with what resources[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

The basic settlement or agreement by which the government was founded is the most important aspect of intergovernmental relations since it creates and sets the framework of every administration. Such agreements must always require a settlement between many groups; they can never be unilateral in the end. Like other institutional structures, federalism seeks to address a particular issue via political organization. Successful federal systems take into account regional or subsystem variety, strengthening the larger federation. The United States and the European Union both provide examples of agreements whose provisions specify the character, extent, and authority of the governments involved.

The Constitution

The United States' 1789 Constitution, the oldest continually operating written constitution, serves as a lasting example of the advantages and efficacy of a well-drafted constitution to the rest of the world. Its well-known opening, "We the people," declares that the people, not the states, are the source of its power. The government is then structured by distributing authority among the several branches. It restricts the authority that each branch may exercise while enabling each branch to balance the others. Most importantly, it rejects giving the central government certain authority while keeping others for the states and the people. The US Constitution is the most important representation of American freedom and government, but that is in addition to its status as a binding legal document and its material presence as a deteriorating parchment at the National Archives. Above all, it symbolises the nation's political determination to uphold the republican system of governance throughout a two-century period. However, due of the nature of judicial review, the Constitution is ultimately "what the judges [of the Supreme Court] say it is," as New York Governor Charles Evans Hughes said in 1907. It is, in the words of Thomas Jefferson, "a mere thing of wax in the hands of the judiciary, which they may twist and shape into any form they please" in a letter to Judge Spencer Roane dated September 6, 1819. The Federalist, which was published in 1787–1788, contains 85 articles that are considered the standard analysis of the US

Constitution and the ideas that underpin it. They are regarded by many political scientists as the most significant work of political theory ever produced in the United States and the only book by an American author to be included in the canon of political philosophy. Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay first published the papers as newspaper pieces under the pen name Publius to persuade New York to accept the new Constitution.

Jay only contributed to a small number of the Federalist writings, but he served as the country's first chief justice a position he thought was so unimportant that he left to take the governorship of New York. The good thing about his retirement was that it made place for John Marshall, the third chief justice of the Supreme Court, who is nearly universally credited with having done the most to establish the Court's independence. Marshall was a Revolutionary War veteran. Through sheer force of will and legal skill, he transformed the federal court into a real check on the authority of the other two departments from 1801 to 1835. He spearheaded the fight for the Court to be the last arbitrator of the Constitution.

Marshall contributed to the development of the American form of federalism via a number of significant rulings. In *McCulloch v. Maryland*, for instance, the Court upheld the supremacy of the national government in carrying out duties assigned to it by the Constitution, established the doctrine of intergovernmental tax immunity, and upheld the implied powers granted to the Congress by the necessary and proper clause of the Constitution. The Court determined that the Bank of the United States was not subject to taxation by the State of Maryland by asserting that "the power to tax is the power to destroy." The Maryland State Legislature's goal for the bank was to "destroy" it. It deliberately approved a legislation taxing the bank's activities in Maryland in the aim of crippling it since it saw the "Monster Bank" as the weapon of the privileged elite and the still-hated British interests[5], [6].

The European Union

Sometimes the essential agreement is reached all at once, as was the case when the US Constitution established the American federal government. It may sometimes develop across a number of agreements, as it did with the European Union, which is currently developing. Winston Churchill predicted in 1946 that it might one day turn into a "sort of United States of Europe," but it may also ultimately split into rival camps. So often throughout the 20th century. Keep in mind that the federalist experience in the US was not a smooth trip. Undoubtedly, the Civil War was a failure. Of course, the Union was stronger than ever after the war. In his book *Battle Cry of Freedom*, historian James M. McPherson points out that "before 1861, the two words 'United States' were often expressed as a plural noun: 'the United States are a republic.' The United States became a single noun as a result of the conflict. We were not, as the Pledge of Allegiance declares, 'one nation under God, indivisible,' until after the Civil War. The division debate had already been settled by the war.

The Structure of Intergovernmental Relations

There are enduring concerns with regard to how intergovernmental interactions are organized: Which level of government will be in charge of each function's overall management? How will each function be distributed among the federal, state, and local governments when powers are shared amongst levels of government? Should the government that will use the taxes raise them, or should it be the higher level of government that has the best success in tax collection? Should a national government aim to narrow the gap between the wealthiest and poorest areas of the country by allocating revenues? As we have said, the greatest source for these answers is the Constitution itself. For instance, the Constitution's Article I, Section 8, grants the central government the power to control commerce "among the several states." In a similar vein, Article I, Section 9 of the Constitution clearly defines the

limits of federal interference in state affairs, including limitations on the power of the federal government to tax interstate trade. Such guidance offers a framework for what nations may and cannot do in their interactions.

Despite the fact that the Constitution offers a framework for intergovernmental interactions, it does not include all the information on how governments should operate. Connect with one another. In truth, the Constitution's description of the distribution of power among the several levels of government may be somewhat ambiguous. The Tenth Amendment is the only place where this is clearer. "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people," the final amendment to the Bill of Rights declares. Numerous discussions about the distribution of power between the federal and state governments have been staged on this provision, also known as the reserved powers clause.

Structures for intergovernmental interactions are often created to suit various socioeconomic, ethnic, and political groups of interest since the borders of governments frequently have symbolic connotations for the people who identify with them or soon will. It doesn't matter whether we're talking about what it means to be a European or an American, a Luxemburger or a Texan, a Londoner or a San Franciscan this holds true for all of them. For instance, communities in the US frequently establish fire, library, and school districts that, for obvious economies of scale, serve the residents of small general-purpose jurisdictions, such as boroughs or towns. A strong sense of identity that is centred on high school sports teams or volunteer fire departments may emerge in these areas.

The Effects of Pluralism

There are instances when one ethnic group dominates a town to the point that it affects its relationships with other levels of government. As a result of their strong French cultural identity, the people of Quebec have been able to get particular benefits from the federal government of Canada. On the other hand, ethnically dominant populations in other nations have argued that since they are minorities, their national governments provide them less support. National policy may sometimes even promote political ghettoization. For instance, gerrymandering the practise of changing an electoral district to benefit the political fortunes of the party in power rather than drawing a district with geographic compactness has long been used in the United States. Elbridge Gerry, the governor of Massachusetts, grudgingly approved a redistricting plan in 1811 that resulted in a district with a salamander-like form, which gave rise to the phrase.

Partisan gerrymandering is unlawful "when the electoral system is arranged in a manner that will consistently degrade a voter's or a group of voters' influence on the political process as a whole," the Supreme Court decided in *Davis v. Bandemer* in 1986. This sparked a wave of positive gerrymandering, or redistricting to increase the likelihood that a member of a minority group would win the next election. As a consequence, there are now more minorities particularly African Americans in the US Congress than ever before.

This has the result of giving them representation in numbers that roughly reflect their share of the population. They engage in political battles to provide funding to the various governments within their parliamentary districts, just like all other members. However, the Supreme Court seemed to severely restrict this in the 1995 decision of *Louisiana v. Hays* when it declared that the creation of congressional district borders is unconstitutional if race is the "predominant factor" in doing so. However, the Court did not rule out the possibility of race playing any role at all [7], [8].

Intergovernmental Management

Similar to how we can't normally "see" other parts of the government apparatus, intergovernmental ties are invisible to us. However, sometimes intergovernmental management rises to the surface and is made public. Unfortunately, these eras are sometimes marked by terrible disasters like the bombing of the federal building in Oklahoma City or the enormous earthquake that struck California, or hurricanes and floods like those caused by Katrina in New Orleans. The many levels are really present in each situation. Local police and fire workers are among the first to arrive. They have the support of the National Guard and other pertinent state organisations. The Federal Emergency Management Agency, which plans and coordinates emergency preparedness and response for all levels of government and for all kinds of emergencies both civilian and military, represents the federal government when a crime is suspected, such as in a bombing. The FEMA organisation makes decisions about what each government should do after a disaster. The political discourse in American politics is always replete with concerns about intergovernmental administration. Nothing makes candidates for president or Congress happier than to outline their plans for tackling crime or improving education for the public. But the federal government has only minor worries about them. Law enforcement is the responsibility of the state and municipal police. Despite being well known in the public's perception of crime-fighting organisations, the FBI is little by contrast. More than 500,000 uniformed police officers work for state and municipal governments. The FBI employs little under 35,000 people overall, but only has around 13,000 special agents. Local school boards are in charge of educating the public. The basic truth is that the federal government can essentially do nothing about these challenges on its own, other than providing financing for particular programmes. However, talk is only as good as the money supporting it. It can and does speak. However, because federal officials, and would-be federal officials, spend so much time discussing such contentious issues, the public frequently believes that the federal government can take action usually something straightforward, like requiring third-graders to complete more homework or advising teenagers to delay starting a sexual relationship until marriage. There are no easy solutions to the complicated problems of intergovernmental administration, despite what politicians may believe about the public's naiveté.

Councils of Governments and Intergovernmental Agreements

The term "council of government" is often used to refer to any multi-jurisdictional cooperative structure that enables a regional approach to planning, development, transportation, environmental issues, and other issues that impact a whole area. Typically created by governments, COGs are substate regional planning organisations. They are often in charge of developing regional plans and other regional special-purpose structures, as well as conducting regional evaluations of projects that are asking for federal funding. They are made up of designated policymakers from each regional government that is a participant. Since the 1980s, several COGs have taken on a more entrepreneurial role by working as service providers and contractors for their local governments. In order to negotiate a single landfill contract with the private firm that owns the landfills they utilise, the COG for Lee and Russell counties in Alabama assisted in the formation of a waste management authority. Journalist Eileen Shanahan asserts that COGs often transform into "regional entities" that are effectively multifunctional special districts with actual financial authority.

In the field of land-use management, the importance of councils of government and other forms of cooperation amongst local governments is becoming apparent. State governments are moving to utilise incentives to cooperate with counties and municipalities to regulate expansion as suburban sprawl has become a big problem in many areas of the nation. In

Wisconsin, for instance, local governments may only get planning funding from the state if they sign intergovernmental agreements with their neighbours. It may be easiest to simply consolidate local governments or transfer land-use regulation entirely to the county level to tackle sprawl-related issues, but such alternatives are often politically unviable. States will so probably continue must depend less on forcing local governments together and more on gently encouraging them to cooperate. Last but not least, even if states are able to persuade municipalities to join councils of government, the voluntary character of the partnerships limits their function to consultative. There aren't many, if any, independent sources of income for them. The actual difference is whether taxing, borrowing, or some other method of generating income via user fees or charges is used [9], [10].

The Devolution Revolution

Critical challenges in democratic federations have always been the impasses of intergovernmental relations, which are so starkly exemplified by the question of federal-state financial interactions. The states' addiction to intergovernmental financing is the only thing we can say with confidence in this situation. It remains to be seen whether their political leaders would gradually wean them away from it or continue to support their habit. There are both good and bad news on this front. The good news is that a large number of state governments seem to be really embracing the devolution movement. All of the Republican governors and governors-elect gathered at Virginia's historic capital, Williamsburg, in late 1994. They published the "Williamsburg Resolve," which advocated for reversing the authority that had been moving to Washington since the New Deal, representing a resounding majority of the states and an overwhelming majority of the people. They made bold statements that befitted the location where Patrick Henry famously said, "Give me liberty or give me death," in 1775. According to Pete Wilson, governor of California, "the states are not the federal government's colonies." According to Wisconsin Governor Tommy Thompson, people shouldn't have to go to Washington "on bended knee to kiss the ring."

Unfortunately, this is quite hypocritical. After all, their "resolve" simply demands government funding without any conditions. However, these "strings" have significant ramifications for public policy, such as guaranteeing that all individuals are treated roughly equally regardless of where they may dwell. The contemporary devolutionary movement is comparable to the Sagebrush Rebellion. This phrase, originally used in the 1980s, refers to a variety of complaints barely a rebellion that some residents of the American West have against how the federal government manages and utilizes the lands within their boundaries. They believe that the states need to have greater authority over the lands and their usage in general. The argument in opposition is that since these lands are national trusts, only national government officials have the authority to deal with them. The American West is "archetypally the place where Big Government is distrusted, the land of the independent man going it alone," according to historian Robert Hughes in *The Culture of Complaint*. However, a large portion of its states like Arizona, for example has always and completely relied on federal funding from Washington for its economic survival. In light of this, "the Southwestern states could never have been settled at their current human density without enormous government expenditure of funds." the engineering of water. They are more like the Welfare Queen of American growth than John Wayne.

However, these western states most of which are Republican do not want to have their creation and economic development by Washington recalled to them. They belong to the whole country, including the federal lands that are included within them. While the politicians in these western states are ready to claim their "rights" to federal lands, other people in other states are just as quick to point out that the whole nation paid for and even

fought for these properties. Reviving Gifford Pinchot's idea of conservation as the "wise use" of resources is the most recent development in this Sagebrush Rebellion. But this contemporary wise-use movement serves as a front for those who want a larger degree of commercial development of public lands rather than traditional conservation. They want to repeal the current environmental regulations by arguing that numerous uses of public lands are legitimate. Using municipal land-use rules to claim county supremacy is one legal method to accomplish this reversal. This has caused a great deal of tension between local government representatives and federal property managers. The only thing that is definite in this situation is that, when one looks out over the huge stretches of federal territory in the West, a lot of litigation is visible.

The natural desire for devolution cannot be easily satisfied since the web of intergovernmental connections is so complex. It will be challenging to give back authorities and lands to the states, even under a central government that is wholly pro-devolution. A Williamsburg Resolve and a Sagebrush Rebellion will not be enough to find, much less overthrow, two centuries' worth of centralizing laws. In certain instances, it may even be the states themselves leading movements to prevent the dilution of centralized power. A number of state governments in the northeastern United States have banded together to fight against the lack of federal effort in the area of environmental protection, which is an interesting reversal of the dynamics of the Williamsburg Resolve and Sagebrush Rebellion.

Angered by the EPA's mercury emission standards announced in March 2005, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts reportedly filed a lawsuit against the federal government on the grounds that the new regulations are insufficiently stringent to fulfil the Clean Air Act's objectives. Just two years before, nine northeastern states joined together to oppose EPA regulations that would have exempted thousands of industrial sources of air pollution, such as coal-fired power plants, from the new Clean Air Act emission restrictions. In these two cases, the states banded together to push the federal government to tighten its control over state and local activity.

The federal government is now required to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 40% from 2008 levels and to increase the percentage of its energy consumption from clean energy sources to 25% by 2025, per President Obama's executive order, which was issued in 2015. As a result, the EPA has pushed further. According to the Clean Power Plan put out by the Environmental Protection Agency, states must reduce carbon dioxide emissions from existing power plants by 30% by 2030. The EPA rules have been put on hold by the Supreme Court pending the hearing of the states' lawsuit since the effects of this are so severe for many states[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Federalism is practised via the process of intergovernmental interactions. It is the intricate web of regular interactions between the governments under a federal system. Higher levels of government share revenues and other resources with lower levels of government through political, fiscal, programmatic, and administrative processes. Typically, these processes are accompanied by unique requirements that the lower levels of government must meet in order to qualify for the assistance. The US Constitution established the enduring characteristics of intergovernmental relations in the country. The common misconception that the federal government is organised like a layer cake with each level perfectly on top of the next is false. The financial ties that exist between the various governmental entities in a federal system are referred to as fiscal federalism. Why can't the people of the states simply retain their money instead of giving it to the federal government so that it might be returned in

grants and services is a fundamental issue concerning fiscal federalism? The only thing that is known in this situation is how dependent the states have become on intergovernmental money. Public health care spending is causing this trend to pick up speed. It remains to be seen whether their political leaders would gradually wean them away from it or continue to support their habit.

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CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL AND MANAGEMENT THEORY

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ABSTRACT:

A management philosophy that represents the fundamental cultural presumptions governs all businesses. Without such guiding principles and the appropriate behavioural skills to put them into practice, no management initiative can be successful. The first concepts were authoritarian and mirrored the rigidity of military discipline. Since ancient times, the military has developed management techniques for its authoritarian organisations. The components of the management idea that affect society as a whole have been covered. As a consequence, ideas like unity of command and wide control, which were formerly seen as military, are now firmly civil. The prevailing paradigm that is in use at any particular time, rather than the collection of data and facts, is the foundation for advancements in organizational theory. Instead of contradicting earlier paradigms, each new paradigm advances the corpus of pertinent information and hypotheses. Only until it has gained widespread acceptance and for as long as it is beneficial can a paradigm persist. In the end, a more suitable and practical paradigm takes its place.

KEYWORDS:

Authoritarian, Conventional, Dominance, Implications.

INTRODUCTION

The conventional form of military rule used for civil reasons is authoritarian or traditional management. An authoritarian management philosophy values accuracy, uniformity, order, and compliance. For them, structural power is the ultimate kind of power. Relationships are built on dominance and dependency and are hierarchical. This authoritarian management style gradually gave way to less centralized, more participative management styles, not because management had a benevolent desire to be nice to the workers, but rather because participation had shown to be more effective than authoritarianism when dealing with sophisticated workers.

Nothing about this transition diminishes the reality that authoritarianism used to be the most effective management style. In order to assess an organization's competence at any given moment, you must determine if its level of competence is high or low in comparison to others in the market. The military has developed management ideas for its authoritarian organisations since antiquity. The fundamental components of the principles of war are present in all of their iterations, which vary according to regional circumstances. The aspects of management concepts that have civilian implications have been included. Thus, ideas that were once military like breadth of control and unity of command are now firmly civil [1], [2].

The Principles Approach

The creation of the principles-based management strategy, whether it be of the civilian or military form, was crucial for the evolution of management as a profession. Why? Because it aims to turn something that was previously thought of as art into a science. The Napoléonic

period commander Antoine-Henri Jomini was a Swiss bank clerk who also penned a number of books explaining why certain generals, namely Napoléon, and some armies, primarily the French, continually outperformed their competitors. Science-based strategic concepts held the solution. Jomini demonstrated in literally dozens of important books that those who instinctively adhered to the rules that he had drawn from historical accounts and his extensive campaigning experience with Napoleon won the day. To put it another way, the general who employed massive forces in an offensive action against a pivotal point won the day. Jomini, however, was well aware that art was crucial to this science. It is usually always simple to identify the critical point in a field of combat, but not so with the decisive time, and it is exactly here that genius and experience are everything, and mere theory is of little use, as he said in *The Art of War*.

Jomini's beliefs were very influential while being straightforward and essentially common sense. Jomini, who developed the first military theory in the nineteenth century, His ideas were extensively shared. His fundamental belief, or ideology, was that anybody could learn how to conduct a war by studying the guiding principles and how they are applied in certain circumstances. It was not much of a stretch to apply comparable ideas to management since so many wartime activities planning, training, logistics, and so forth are more management than combat. The time was perfect because big-scale industrial enterprises, particularly railways, whose scope was comparable to controlling a massive army, began to emerge in the middle of the nineteenth century.

By the time business administration became a recognized academic discipline around the end of the nineteenth century, it was only logical to approach management education from a principles perspective. However, these early attempts at formulating and disseminating principles were authoritarian in that they were founded on the idea that all direction and innovation came from the top that the individuals in positions of authority, while not necessarily possessing a monopoly on brainpower within the organization, had the only brains that mattered. Success or failure so depended on how intelligent the boss was. Although adopting principles might make bosses more successful, they were still constrained by their own capacities. Early in the 20th century, the number of management textbooks, self-improvement, and "how-to-succeed" books that use a principles-based approach exploded, and it hasn't stopped since. Because the authors of these best- and would-be best-sellers all base their works on the idea that management is a skill that can be taught, keep this in mind the next time you come across a best seller that proposes a new management system. While the author may never admit it, he or she is an intellectual disciple of Jomini[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

An "organisation" is a collection of individuals who collaborate to accomplish at least one shared objective. The term "theory" refers to an assertion or series of ideas that aim to explain or predict something. How people and groups act in various organisational settings is the something in the case of organisation theory. For every manager or leader, this knowledge is of utmost importance. To argue that organisation theory's fundamental tenets govern the world is not an exaggeration. Since humans first organised themselves for hunting, warfare, and even family life, this has always been the case. The study of organisation theory is, in fact, its most recent development.

A sector that was the instinctively aesthetic province of daring businesspeople and clever politicians has only recently acquired philosophical depth and tradition. It was artistic in the sense that it was created purely out of instinct and without instruction. Organisation theory was a skill that leaders in every era used as effortlessly as their oratory skills. They didn't

need to consider it intellectually in either situation. Thus, the revolutionary in eighteenth-century colonial America, the pirate captain in the Caribbean, and the suffragist leader in late nineteenth-century America were all organisation theorists because none of them could have succeeded as leaders without knowing, even inadvertently, how to organise and inspire a group.

Organisational theory has always been included in the authoritarian military paradigm. While many of its tenets were understood by the ancients, it wasn't until society found a use for it to help manage the constantly expanding national industries and institutions brought about by the industrial revolution that it came to exist as a self-conscious field of knowledge. The search for advice on how to manage and organise large-scale organisations became as noble a quest as the secular world of business could provide as the issues of managing an organisation got to be more than one brain could handle.

If there were ever prophets in a commercial culture, they were those early industrial engineers who insisted that the pursuit of the "one best way" was the key to increasing wealth. They were presenting a theory to society, providing general direction for those who understood where they wanted to go but were unsure of how to get there.

Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist, would later claim that "There is nothing so practical as a good theory", and they already understood this. It has been remarked of the first atomic bomb and the first US mission to the moon that they were both equally impressive feats of organisation and engineering and science. Have our more recent organisational ideas kept up with our advancements in science and technology? Maybe. However, when they are contrasted with "primitive" authoritarian management, undoubtedly. However, many of the fundamentals are constant and taken for granted.

The fundamental social and physical qualities of individuals do not alter with intellectual trends or technological advancements, and neither do the laws of physics and gravity. Similar to how people who want to create spacecraft must first understand Isaac Newton's laws of physics, those who want to design and lead organisations must first understand Frederick Taylor, Scottish economist Adam Smith, and French executive engineer Henri Fayol. The past will always serve as a foundation for the future.

The same, or possibly twice as true, may be stated of organisation theory: given 4,000 years of precedents, we have no justification for not organising properly when we do so. Even though exploring the wisdom of the past is always fascinating, most experts on the history of organisation theory believe that the development of the factory system in Great Britain in the eighteenth century marked the beginning of complex economic organisations and, consequently, the discipline of organisation theory [5], [6].

Classical Organization Theory

As its name suggests, classical organisation theory was the first of its sort, is regarded as traditional, and continues to serve as the foundation for subsequent schools of organisation theory. But its fundamental principles and presumptions, which have their roots in the 1700s industrial revolution as well as the fields of mechanical engineering, industrial engineering, and economics, have remained constant. They were merely developed, improved, and raised in level of sophistication. Therefore, it is crucial to grasp classical organisation theory not just because it has historical significance but also because later analyses and theories rely on it. Following is a succinct summary of organisation theory's core principles:

1. Economic and production-related objectives are the main reasons why organisations exist.
2. The optimal approach to organise for manufacturing may be identified via methodical, scientific research.
3. Specialization and the division of labour increase production.
4. Rational economic principles are followed by both individuals and organisations.

Any theory's development must be examined in its whole context. Early management theorists' views on how organisations functioned or ought to function were a direct reflection of the social values prevalent at the time. And those were difficult times. Industrial employees in the US and Europe didn't start to have even basic "rights" as organisational citizens until far into the 20th century. When it was impracticable to create them out of steel, workers were seen as interchangeable pieces in an industrial machine rather than as unique people. Our present ideas of economic organisations and production organisation were born by the development of power-driven machines and the contemporary industrial system. Equipment that was powered was pricey. Since they previously owned their own tools, production employees were unable to acquire and utilise their own equipment. The catchphrase "get the sack" for getting fired dates back to the early stages of the industrial revolution, when a discharged employee was actually handed a bag to collect his tools in. Workers who lacked their own tools and often lacked specialised skills were forced to congregate for employment in factories, where the machinery existed. Costly machinery needed to provide enough production to cover its purchase and upkeep expenses.

In the factory system, efficient production processes that kept equipment busy and expenses in check were the key to organisational success. Production depended on mechanical and industrial experts and their equipment. To make the most of the machines, organisational frameworks and production methods were required. It was believed that businesses should operate like machines, employing money, labour, and equipment as their constituent elements. Industrial and mechanical engineering-style thinking predominated notions about the "best way" to organise for production, much as industrial engineers attempted to create "the best" machinery to keep factories busy. As a result, the formal organisations' anatomy or structure was the main focus of the early theories of organisations. The concepts of classical organisation theory were moulded and impacted by this milieu, or environment, or way of thinking[7], [8].

The Origins of Scientific Management

The fundamental issue with the conventional hierarchical structure was that its effectiveness depended on each level's supervisors being properly enculturated. Military commanders with the appropriate training and manufacturing managers did well in stable environments. However, throughout the French Revolution, the Age of Napoléon, and the Industrial Revolution, military affairs and factory output grew more unpredictable, necessitating the development of compensatory mechanisms to offset the inherent rigidity of the old hierarchy. Individual cops and supervisors who were capable under stable circumstances lost that ability during a revolution. They were unable to compete with the organisations that had embraced the staff idea, the greatest structural innovation of the day, whether it be on the "field of honour" or the manufacturing floor. Traditional hierarchical structures enabled leaders to expand their influence, but the organisation was still reliant on the naturally constrained intellectual capital at the top. However, even the smartest person with the finest advisors has limitations. The idea of a staff emerged to get over the constraints imposed by a single intellect and the passing of time.

The Staff Concept

The term "staff" refers to two concepts that have progressively developed in both military and non-military situations. Managers began utilising assistants as the management role became more sophisticated and differentiated first secretaries and clerks, then personnel and buying experts. The staff principle, which established a distinct unit inside the wider organisation with the main role of thinking and planning, pondering innovations, and planning for their implementation, followed this conventional usage of personnel.

Business success in the factory system that followed the industrial revolution depended on well-organized production processes that kept machines busy and expenses in check. Production depended on mechanical and industrial experts and their equipment. Organisational frameworks and manufacturing methods need ongoing tweaking and improvement. To benefit most from developing technologies. The belief was that businesses should operate like machines with employees serving as their component pieces. Industrial and mechanical engineering-style thinking predominated beliefs about the "best way" to organise people for their position as a component of the larger industrial machine, much as industrial engineers strove to create "the best" machinery to keep factories busy.

The staff idea first appeared during the industrial revolution. It has since become more prevalent in both the public and commercial sectors. The ancient Greek forces of Alexander the Great are where the idea was first publicly adopted by the military. Although generals have always had aides-de-camp, the contemporary military general staff mostly derives from the Prussian military reforms that, by the middle of the nineteenth century, had turned an ineffective army into the most effective military machine in Europe. Military analysts have long praised the Prussian, then German, general staff for its effectiveness, yet they have seldom entirely duplicated it.

The general staff was made up of a small number of the most intelligent officers who were selected from the main officer corps very early in their careers and spent the rest of their professional careers there. Next, Germany's general staff planned the methods and tactics it would use in subsequent conflicts. All of the major military nations, including the United States and Japan, had adopted a variation of the German general staff by the end of the nineteenth century.

Growing industrial and governmental organisations embraced the general staff idea more often once it was adapted to account for local circumstances. American industrial engineers started arguing that if factory employees' jobs were planned properly, they might be far more productive in the second half of the nineteenth century. And who are these designers, exactly? They would be the general staff of the armed forces' civilian equivalents. It was their responsibility to perform the research and establish the plans necessary to increase the organization's competitiveness in comparison to other organisations.

As a result, engineering gave rise to scientific management, which makes another link to our good buddy Jomini. The one institution, West Point, where the ideas advanced by Jomini were taught and are still taught, was and continues to be the largest single source of the American engineers of the nineteenth century who constructed the railways, canals, harbours, and bridges. The Engineer as an Economist, a professional presentation written by Henry R. Towne and given at the 1886 American Society of Mechanical Engineers convention, is regarded by management historians as the first appeal for scientific management. Whether they received their education at West Point or not, those nineteenth-century engineers had a tendency to recognise sound ideas.

Systems Theory

The social sciences have employed systems analysis more and more since World War II to evaluate their claims on human behaviour. There has been no exception in the discipline of management, which may be considered a social science to the degree as it works with human resources. According to systems theory, an organisation is made up of a complex web of dynamically interlinked and connected components, including its inputs, processes, outputs, feedback loops, and the environment it functions in and with which it interacts constantly. Any modification to one component of the system affects the other components as well. The linkages are often unknown, complicated, and dynamic. Therefore, unintended consequences often arise throughout the whole organisational system when management takes choices regarding one organisational component. Systems theorists investigate these relationships, usually focusing their research on organisational decision-making processes as well as information and control systems.

Systems theories tend to be multidimensional and complicated in their assumptions about organisational cause-and-effect interactions, in contrast to traditional organisation theory, which has a tendency to be one-dimensional and rather straightforward. While systems theorists consider organisations as dynamic processes of interactions between organisational and environmental factors, classicalists saw organisations as static structures. Organisations frequently change their states of dynamic equilibrium because they are not static. The Functions of the Executive, a 1938 classic by Chester I. Barnard, refers to the duty of maintaining this dynamic balance. Barnard considered businesses as cooperative systems in which "the executive's function" was to maintain a dynamic balance between the requirements of the company and those of its workers. Management required to be aware of how the formal and informal organisation were interconnected in order to do this. The theoretical underpinnings for a whole generation of empirical study were supplied by Barnard's understanding of the importance and function of informal organisations[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

A management theory that represents the fundamental beliefs of the cultural setting governs all organisations. Without such guiding principles and appropriate behavioural approaches to put them into practice, no management programme can be successful. The first theories were autocratic and mirrored the harshness of military discipline. Since ancient times, the military has developed management ideas for its authoritarian organisations. The aspects of management concepts that have civilian implications have been included. Thus, ideas that were once military like breadth of control and unity of command are now firmly civil. American industrial engineers claimed that factory workers could be much more productive if their work was designed scientifically in the latter half of the nineteenth century. It was their responsibility to carry out the research and make the plans that would increase the organization's competitiveness in comparison to other organisations. Engineering therefore became the foundation for scientific management. The main justification for the progressive reformers' request for the separation of politics and administration came from scientific management. The classical authors have been revised and expanded upon in all succeeding viewpoints on organisation theory, including neoclassical, "modern" structuralists, and systems theory. Regarding the definition of knowledge in organisation theory, there is no agreement. Anyone who studies this topic is free to enrol in the school of organisation theory of their choosing and is also free to choose one group of serious thinkers' philosophic bounds over another. No one viewpoint may be deserving of your allegiance since they all provide valuable knowledge and insights that may be used in various situations.

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CHAPTER 6

AN ANALYSIS OF ENTERPRISE BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT:

Individuals, groups of people, and teams of people working together are all connected to organisationalbehaviour. When contextual elements interact, the investigation becomes more difficult. The study of organisational conduct concerns an individual's anticipated behaviour inside the organisation. Researchers, management experts, psychologists, and social scientists need to comprehend a person's history, social context, educational level, the influence of social groupings, and other contextual elements that may affect behaviour. This essay focuses on and offers insight into the meaning of organisationalbehaviour, numerous business prospects, possibilities and problems encountered by them, challenges that stand in their way, and tactics that may be started to assist them.

KEYWORDS:

Comprehending, Organisational Conduct, Research, Social Context.

INTRODUCTION

The behavioural sciences areas that concentrate on comprehending human behaviour in organisations are included in the study of organisationalbehaviour. The behaviour of individuals in governmental organisations has long piqued the curiosity of public administration students. Micro problems, such as how people behaved and how choices were made inside organisations, were also a major source of worry in those early days. Significant contributions were made by Mary Parker Follett to the field of public administration's study of organisationalbehaviour. She was, in fact, a prominent advocate for what is now known as participatory management. She discussed the benefits of using "power with" rather than "power over." Her "law of the situation" was the rudimentary form of contingency planning. Follett was one of the pioneers in emphasising the idea of people in organisations, which is, of course, the foundation for comprehending organisationalbehaviour.

However, until a few decades ago, basic presumptions about how these individuals behave at their jobs had not much changed from earlier organisational initiatives. Using the standard authoritarian, militaristic, and paternalistic framework HugoMünsterberg was a pioneer in the practical application of psychological discoveries from laboratory research in regards to attitudes towards work organisations. He attempted to favourably affect employees' attitudes towards their job and the organisation, to match the skills of new recruits with the needs of the workplace, and to comprehend the effects of psychological issues on worker productivity.

The pre-World War I methodology used by Münsterberg was representative of how the behavioural sciences were often used in organisations well into the 1950s. In the 1960s, a new school of applied behavioural science developed in opposition to Münsterberg's conventional view of organisationalbehaviour. It focused on attempting to provide answers to issues like how businesses should support the professional development of their staff members. The idea was that staff growth and development would automatically lead to organisational innovation, flexibility, and profitability. Codependence has replaced dependence as the fundamental nature of the interaction between an organisation and its constituents. The "right" connection

between a company and its workers, in contrast, was not one of codependence, according to managers in Münsterberg's day. The way individuals behave inside bureaucracy has always piqued people's curiosity. After all, the whole goal of organisation theory, as covered in the preceding Chapter, is to provide controls for managing employee behaviour. The Human Side of Enterprise by Douglas McGregor was published in 1960, but it wasn't until then that our fundamental beliefs about how organisations and people interact started to alter. This innovative method of studying organisations placed a strong emphasis on the environment of the organisation as well as the individuals and groups inside it. It was created based on the following presumptions:

1. Human aims are the reason why organisations are formed.
2. People and organisations are interdependent; people need careers, pay, and employment prospects; organisations require ideas, talent, and energy.
3. Individuals may be exploited, may attempt to exploit organisations, or may do both when there is a poor match between the requirements of the person and the organisation.
4. When people and organisations are a good match, both parties win because people find work that is meaningful and gratifying and organisations get the talent and energy they need to succeed.

It is important to compare these presumptions to the authoritarian paternalistic attitudes that came before them. Previously, fresh orders were issued for its installation and use whenever new technology was to be implemented. Concern about what the employees would think of such adjustments was unfounded. They just had no voice. Some Luddites may sometimes show themselves, but they were promptly put down. Contrast the way contemporary organisational behaviourists handle the introduction of a new technology with this "orders is orders" philosophy. They quickly begin formulating and preparing a certain strategy:

1. Reduce resistance to change by including individuals at all levels in the process of creating the changes.
2. Reduce the effects of the change's unfavourable effects on at-risk worker categories.
3. Coopt leaders, both official and informal, particularly those who may become hostile.
4. Provide choices for workers who do not feel the adjustments align with their own objectives.

Employees get the most accurate information possible so they may decide what path they want to take in life since the contemporary viewpoint puts a great priority on the individual. In many less sophisticated organisations, where it is still believed that individuals should be adapted to the organisation, the presumptions of the Münsterberg traditional viewpoint are still very much alive and thriving. With the aid of the applied behavioural sciences, organisations might discover and mould individuals to act as human replacement parts for the organisational machine, according to the classical organisation theory of Frederick Taylor and others. However, when conditions are ideal, both individuals and organisations may develop and thrive. People and organisations don't always oppose one another [1], [2].

DISCUSSION

The French Foreign Legion used the motto "march or die" when it controlled much of the North African desert in the early 20th century. This meant that a legionnaire could not live unless he maintained his position in the advancing column. "Change or die" should be written on the walls of every organisation. The takeaway from this is that this social organism will perish without ongoing alteration, restoration, or even reinvention, much like the lone legionnaire of old. Planning organisational transformation is organisation development.

Internally and externally, organisations operate in a dynamic environment to which they must adapt or lose effectiveness. Specialists in applied behavioural science, such as OD advisors, are charged with facilitating change and using their understanding of the behavioural sciences for organisational advancement. These consultants may be independent external consultants or inside advisors who currently work for the company.

Installing a helpful management philosophy is a commonly wanted adjustment. A more modest objective may be the development of participatory procedures to boost productivity or the establishment of a trusting environment to enable conversations. Any organisation that wants to thrive or just stay healthy has to regularly purge itself of the elements or traits that are the cause of its ills. As a concept, OD is not a philosophy. This method or strategy aims to improve organisational effectiveness. It is often connected with the notion that efficacy is discovered through fusing a person's drive for personal development with organisational objectives, despite the fact that the process itself is free of value biases. There isn't a single OD model that can be quickly implemented in a struggling company. The primary responsibility of the OD consultant is to modify the necessary parts of the widely accessible OD technology to meet the urgent needs of the organisational issue at hand. For this reason, the OD consultant must be well up to speed on the behavioural technologies of contemporary management. These advisors must be ready to improvise as no textbook will have a case study of the precise organisational issue that needs to be fixed. OD advising includes a significant amount of art, much like most of the rest of public administration.

Because senior management in the public sector is fragmented and consists of political and career executives, legislative committees, client organisations, and other groupings, it is much harder to apply the OD process there. Also to be anticipated is hostility from line management. It could take some time before personnel's agitation in this area is seen as constructive rather than threatening since an OD role for the personnel department means a higher connection with management's conventional line prerogatives. There would likely be a significant deal of shock and mistrust among workers if top management decided to abruptly replace a highly controlled, authoritarian organisational environment with one that encouraged more employee engagement and cooperation. Every change in the culture or atmosphere of an organisation requires be carefully thought out in advance and put into action gradually. OD is not something you can finish in a single afternoon. It is a long process that, at the absolute least, takes several months to complete and needs the collaboration and dedication of all the key players in the organisational drama. Almost all OD approaches start with educating senior management on fundamental OD goals and tactics. The process of OD must work from the top down. Without unrestricted collaboration from the top down, it is impossible to alter the speed and quality of organisational life since leadership sets the tone for it.

OD is concerned with significant, long-lasting improvements or changes throughout the whole organisation, not just in a few small, isolated organisational pockets. Long before organisational culture became a popular management issue in the 1980s, OD practitioners were interested in it due to their concern for broad-based and long-term transformation. Many methods and tactics for enhancing organisations have been developed by OD advisors; the majority of these make use of interventions led by outsiders. Organisational diagnosis, process consulting, team development, action research, data feedback, job expansion, job enrichment, and conflict management are some of the most popular tactics. However, every advisor has a set of favoured strategies. The Hawthorne investigations, which are covered later in this Chapter, are largely credited with inspiring the organisation development movement. However, the sensitivity training movement, which got its start in 1946 when

Kurt Lewin and colleagues jointly conducted a training workshop to help improve racial relations and community leadership in New Britain, Connecticut, is where the specific understandings of organisational behavior-oriented change processes originated. They examined the dynamics of events and the behaviour of workshop attendees during their staff meetings in the evening. The findings of the procedure finally resulted in the introduction and institutionalization of T-group technology after many workshop attendees sought to participate in the late-night talks. Although the first T-groups were mainly concerned with the development of the individual, they were swiftly modified for organisational usage. T-groups evolved into the mechanism through which organisational members learnt how to speak truthfully and openly about emotions.

As a result, T-groups emerged as a crucial approach for enhancing interpersonal contacts, lowering defensiveness, and generally assisting organisations in becoming more successful via the development of coping mechanisms. Coping has two meanings in this context: dealing with the job and dealing with coworkers[3], [4]. However, the T-group has to be a component of a more comprehensive overall technique. The action research model of organizational change the basis of OD practitioners and theorists was created as a consequence of the use of survey research methodology, feedback/communication methods, and planned organisational transformation. Through the use of external consultation as well as through encouraging psychological ownership of issues and solutions by organisational members, the action research model is a method for determining the requirements for organisational change. Action research includes the following, in brief:

1. Gathering information for organisational diagnostics, often via written surveys or interviews.
2. Consistently providing information to the organization's contributors.
3. Talking about what the data means to members and how it affects the organisation helps to establish if the "diagnosis" is correct and fosters psychological ownership of the need for remedial action.
4. Working together to design an improvement plan, using the consultant's expertise as well as the members' insider knowledge.
5. Reiterating the aforementioned steps as necessary.

The Impact of Personality

Chris Argyris originally rose to prominence with the release of his 1957 book *Personality and Organisation*, which established him as a leading observer of organisational phenomena for more than four decades. He said therein that the mature adult personality and the demands of contemporary organisations are inherently at odds. Simply expressed, the issue was that the majority of organisations treated people like children. As the validity of this conclusion became more and more clear, approaches to addressing workers altered. Organisations should assign their people as many tasks as they can manage, and then some, according to a new philosophy that has emerged. Although this fit in well with concerns about increased productivity and efficiency, the fundamental personality issue was more often than not simply overlooked. After all, attempts to address the influence of individual personalities on organisations in the age of equal employment opportunity and worker diversity might be risky. Who needs legal actions alleging that a company's culture is being "attacked" by a manager who is unaware of the nuances of operating in a multicultural setting?

Nevertheless, organisational analysts are starting to reexamine the importance of personality despite the complexity of the diversity problem. Additionally, they are starting to say things that may be unsettling to some. They do not disagree with what Argyris stated regarding

organisations and adults. However, they argue that various adult types suit organisations in different ways, and that people who would have been heroes in a previous era due to their innate aggression and contempt for established authority are far too often misfits in the current bureaucratic culture. Inherent temperament is the problem here. There is still a lot to be argued about the validity of the four fundamental human temperaments that Hippocrates originally identified in ancient Greece, according to journalist Winifred Gallagher. His four "humours" are still often used to jokingly categorise various personality types today. Everyone has seen individuals who exhibit sanguine, melancholic, choleric, and phlegmatic traits. In fact, many individuals have at some point demonstrated all of these "humours" or moods.

It is basic sense that a "Dirty Harry" should not be in command of the police department's computer system, even if we disregard Hippocrates' "humours" as a categorization system. A soft-spoken, very bashful person would not typically make the finest radio or television spokesperson for your company. Additionally, a person who is prone to ongoing worry and anxiety is unlikely to function effectively in a high-stress environment. However, these inconsistencies happen so often that they constitute a major factor in organisational ineptitude[5], [6].

The Impact of Bureaucratic Structure on Behavior

People's individual personalities interact with the organisational structures they must work inside to determine how the bureaucratic structure affects the behaviour of its inhabitants. Each organisation has specific organisational structures that specify how labour is allocated in a particular way, how specialised roles and functions are coordinated, how information is shared among individuals and groups, and how the controls system is to operate. The duties, expectations, and resource distribution for individuals and groups within any particular organisation are established by these structures, which are often represented by an organisation chart. Organisational behaviour emerged as a distinct topic of research within the applied behavioural sciences because structure is a major factor in how it varies from behaviour in daily life. However, structure is only one of many factors that influence how individuals behave in organisations. Peer pressure, established group standards of conduct, the social and technical demands of the workplace, as well as the internal and external cultures of the organisations, all have an impact on attitudes and behaviours.

Large bureaucracies have structures that are naturally conservative because they change slowly. As a result, one of the ongoing criticisms of bureaucracy is that it is slow to adapt to changing circumstances. But this infamous resistance to change is often a result of its statutory requirements. In a democratic democracy, no public agency is allowed to do any action that is not authorised by the laws that give it authority. From a different angle, this perceived delay is really just its compliance with the law. The power brokers in the legislature often retain bloated and inefficient what a chief executive would simplify and make more efficient. Additionally, efficiency and economy in government suffer even more if the employment of their constituents in government are at risk. Every time the Department of Defence attempts to shut military facilities, members of the US Congress must deal with this. When the employment of the people in their constituency are at jeopardy, congressional doves suddenly become defence hawks.

The bureaucratic structure emerged as the best organisational shape when businesses and organisations expanded from tiny offices and stores to major companies and governmental institutions. This building permitted the top of an organisational pyramid to exert omnipresent control. However, tight control is a mixed-news tale. The good news is that it is

feasible to centrally oversee and control employee behaviour. The bad news is that there are significant costs associated with excessive control, and it may be difficult to distinguish between tight control and excessive control. Employees who are constrained by their organisations are unlikely to take initiative. They carry out their assigned tasks like human robots or automatons unless the proper administrative authority instructs them differently. Even if none of its bureaucrats are particularly remarkable people, a well-designed bureaucratic organisation may function with astonishing efficiency. Even when operated by average individuals, these industrial or governmental devices may function in ways that are really astounding. Honoré de Balzac, a French author, described bureaucracy as "the giant power wielded by pygmies." In this sense, bureaucracy isn't just competent—it's super-competent, with an overall level of performance considerably beyond what could normally be anticipated from its many human components.

Bureaucratic Dysfunctions

Unfortunately, bureaucracies often carry within them, like a terrible genetic heritage, the seeds of their own incapacity. Modern authors like Robert K. Merton and Victor A. Thompson contend that bureaucracies are inherently dysfunctional and pathological, which renders them ineffective in their daily operations. Bureaucracies, according to Merton, have a "trained incapacity." This is used to describe a situation in which one's skills act as blind spots or insufficiencies. Under different circumstances, actions based on training and abilities that have been effectively employed in the past may produce wrong results. Merton asserts that bureaucracy always puts pressure on individuals to follow rules and regulations, be systematic, and be disciplined. People ultimately succumb to these pressures and follow norms out of mindless conformity rather than as a means to an aim.

The bureaucracy's *Catch-22* characteristic, its taught inability to react to conflicting mandates, is a result of this mindless conformity. According to this "catch," which was taken from Joseph Heller's 1961 book of the same name about American bomber crews in World War II, you may opt out of flying combat flights if you were mad. You just needed to ask. However, if you inquired, you proved that you were not mad as trying to avoid conflict was a reasonable, not insane, action. A pilot "would be crazy to fly more missions and sane if he didn't, but if he was sane, he had to fly them," according to Heller. He was insane and didn't have to fly them, but he was sane and had to if he didn't [7], [8].

The "catch" is perversely circular in a lovely way. The phrase "catch-22" became a slang term for the core of bureaucratic dysfunction—being caught between incompatible bureaucratic regulations because the book was such a huge smash seller. This double bind is a classic example of a catch-22: you can't obtain a job without experience, but you can't gain experience without first having a job. Depersonalised relationships, power earned by organisational position rather than through intellect or deed, and depersonalised relationships are all stressed by bureaucratic structures. As a result, rank determines the worth of ideas and views rather than their inherent excellence. This would be OK if the bosses were genuinely always in charge. Intelligent than the employees. According to Robert Merton, organisational behaviour and thought are not the only things that bureaucratic structure influences; it also decides and exercises control. It decides that some of the organization's intellectual resources won't be employed and that those who are objectively less worthy of authority could nonetheless hold that position. Of course, there will always be the intelligent, ambitious bureaucrat who keeps his or her thoughts to themselves while moving up the bureaucratic career ladder. However, the risk here is that he or she experiences "evaporation." In *Why Don't We Learn from History?*, historian B. H. Liddell Hart noted that ambitious officers would decide to keep their ideas and thoughts to themselves until they reached the

top and were able to put them into action. When the bottle was ultimately opened after years of such self-repression for the sake of their desire, the contents had unfortunately disappeared. Bureaucracy offers several benefits as a method of organisation, including order, predictability, stability, professionalism, and uniformity. However, bureaucratic organisation often has negative behavioural effects. Victor Thompson used the words "bureaucracy" and "pathological" together to describe the all-too-familiar "bureaupathic official" to demonstrate this. Such a person "typically emphasizes the formal, non-technical parts of interactions and downplays the formal and technical. Being insecure, he or she "may be expected to insist on petty rights and prerogatives, on protocol, on procedure in other words, on those things least likely to directly affect the goal accomplishment of the organization. He embodies the traditional image of "the bureaucrat." As a result, a reviewing officer who is otherwise ineffective may often insist vehemently on his right to review and cry like a wounded animal if his request is denied. Moreover, "if he has a counterpart at a higher organizational level, he would presumably insist on exclusive interaction with that higher clearance point. He maintains his power and influence by maintaining control over this specific communication route. This stereotype has really existed for a very long time. Shakespeare calls the "petty officer," a "proud man, dress'd in a little brief authority, most ignorant of what he's most assured," in Measure for Measure Act II, Scene 2[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The study of people, groups, and the interactions they have within their organisational surroundings is known as organisational behaviour. People tend to congregate in work groups, and when a group, like a branch office, is institutionalised in a company, it develops common standards that form the basis of both an organisational subculture and a cohesive group. A bigger organisation formally establishes formal groupings. Informal groupings are created as a result of naturally occurring interpersonal connections. Because organisations operate in a dynamic environment, both internally and internationally, to which they must adapt or lose effectiveness, organisation development is intentional organisational transformation. Because senior management, which must initially be committed to the process, is so disjointed, implementation is challenging in the public sector. Although bureaucracy has numerous benefits as a method of organisation, it often has adverse behavioural effects. Due to the structure's emphasis on depersonalised relationships and position-based authority, individual opinions and views

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CHAPTER 7

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Total quality management initiatives seek to change the organizational culture such that permanent, long-term effectiveness is prioritized. All employees must participate in activities to enhance quality under these schemes. The push for workplace excellence naturally places a strong emphasis on offering top-notch customer service. This necessitates not just giving exceptional service right away but also always striving to provide improved service. Governments are increasingly relying on technology, particularly social networks, to better serve their citizens. By creating various forms of e-government, public authorities want to improve efficiency while simultaneously increasing accessibility to the government. Innovations like one-stop government have helped to reduce the complexity of vast bureaucracies by using the possibilities of contemporary information technologies like the Internet.

KEYWORDS:

Bureaucracies, Contemporary Intellectual, Technology, Total Quality Management.

INTRODUCTION

Public administration's intellectual growth and technological capacities significantly increased during the 1960s and 1970s. The effectiveness and value of long-running public programmes, particularly those relating to social services and education, have been brought into question by the modern methods of programme assessment and policy analysis, which use quantitative precision. Political executives and lawmakers could better monitor, if not better control, where money was spent thanks to new budgeting strategies like zero-based budgeting and PPBS. The conventional management focus has been widened to place more emphasis on internal control, strategic planning, and ethical responsibility. Despite these developments in the art and science of public administration, the 1980s were a time of decline for the public service due to diminishing budgets, productivity, service quality, and the public service's overall reputation. As a result, managerialism, a new philosophy, would appear and ride, if not to the rescue, then at least into the battle.

Sociologists have long used the word "managerialism" to describe the financial and administrative elites that control industrial societies. The world was in transition "from the type of society which we have called capitalist or bourgeois to a type of society which we shall call managerial," said James Burnham in his 1941 book *The Managerial Revolution*. The new ruling elite in society, according to Burnham, would not be the conventional wealth owners but rather people with the professional skills to manage and lead such vast organisations as management of major corporations passed from the original owners to professional managers. Around the same period, a similar phenomenon emerged in the communist world. In his 1957 book *The New Class*, Milovan Djilas claimed that the communists had created a new class structure made up of party leaders, executives of the nationalised companies, and bureaucrats rather than a society devoid of classes. In the communist nations, only these individuals particularly those at the top had any real influence.

To achieve complete loyalty, they used the state's oppressive apparatus, particularly the secret police. Because of this, they were able to live far better than the average member of society. And they were able to give their offspring this advantage. Despite the fact that they were only able to legally own a little amount more than the average citizen, their children received the same status as they did, thanks to their easy access to elite positions and high-quality education. They made up an elite social class, albeit an unconventional one[1], [2].

Managerialism, now a well-established sociological "ism," acquired new meanings in the 1980s. When Margaret Thatcher took office as the British prime minister in 1979 for an 11-year term, she immediately set out to shift the civil service's emphasis from policy to management. She therefore made an effort to make the bureaucracy more receptive to the demands of its clients. The prevalent public sector theory is managerialism, an entrepreneurial form of management that goes beyond participatory management to unleash the creative powers of public managers at all levels. It aims to stop a company from ever sliding into incompetence as a philosophy of ongoing improvement. By optimistically assuming that a managerial elite can drastically alter and control the course, culture, and goals of organisations, managerialism paradoxically represents a retreat from participatory management. If there were no heroes to romanticize, managerialism would be impossible to romanticize. Who are these heroes of the modern age? The managers themselves, who have arrived to resurrect the public sector by killing the dragons of self-serving unions and wasteful bureaucrats, are the solution. With these contemporary philosopher-kings, Plato would have felt completely at home[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Managerialism's central tenet is management rights, or allowing managers adequate latitude to pursue their objectives. The rank-and-file must obviously lose out on this extra management space. The hunt for the "one best way" has been updated to the continual installation of the most cutting-edge behavioural and mechanical technology, thus managerialism is perfectly at ease with authoritarian management styles and a fresh iteration of scientific management. Managerialism aims to contract out as much of the public's business as it can to the private sector in an attempt to acquire the most control possible over human expenses and minimum issues with deploying labor-saving technology. The managerialist methods of administrative reform, such management audits and programme assessments, are comparably ineffective. What's new is that a new ideology or guiding philosophy is reviving these tried-and-true tactics, much like the tried-and-true tanks.

The conventional role of a public manager as a "neutral gun for hire," obediently carrying out the orders of political masters, is no longer adequate. Charles G. Dawes, the US government's first modern budget director, "is to the next revolution of business what the specialization of labour was to the last." The question "What would this company look like if I were to recreate it today, given what I know and given current technology?" is what this method entails. Reengineering, to use the term in its official definition, is the "fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service, and speed." Reengineering is therefore the pursuit of fresh organizational paradigms. By attempting to completely rethink and refocus how programmes are handled and to take full use of new technology, particularly computers, reengineering goes beyond the usual emphasis of reorganization. Excellent ideas, for sure! Reorganization and reengineering do not, however, take place in a political vacuum. In *Politics, Position, and Power*, Harold Seidman cautions prospective reengineers to be cognizant of the close connection between a legislature's structure and that of its executive branch. "Building an aeroplane without taking into account

the principles of aerodynamics is equivalent to building the executive branch without considering the dynamics of Congress. Many times, what can seem to be structural oddities and abnormalities in the executive branch are really reflections of congressional jurisdictional issues. Organisations in the legislative and executive branches are "interrelated and constitute two halves of a single system." The most well-known admonition about reorganization also holds true for reengineering. It is commonly believed that the first-century Roman author Petronius Arbiter said this: "I was to learn later in life that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganising; and what a wonderful method it can be for producing confusion, inefficiency, and demoralisation." Be aware that what was previously known was reformulated in Hammer and Champy's best-selling book. Do you recall the tale of the Trojan horse, in which the Greek besiegers eventually overcame the Troy defences in Asia Minor? The Greeks used traditional siege techniques for years, but to no effect. Then Ulysses said that the Greeks needed to reevaluate all they were doing. Ulysses redesigned the siege with the assistance of Minerva, the goddess of knowledge no less. The new strategy was to pretend to leave the siege while yet leaving behind a wooden horse big enough to hold a group of Greek warriors. The Trojans carried the horse within their city walls and celebrated, believing it was a gift from the escaping Greeks. The Greeks who were hiding inside the horse emerged later that evening and unlocked the gates for their reuniting colleagues. Then they conducted a traditional siege and looting of Troy. There is no greater illustration of "fundamental rethinking and radical redesign" of a commercial endeavour than what Hammer and Champy provide. Since then, Ulysses the reengineer has kept up his image as a shrewd character [5], [6].

Empowerment

The lifeblood of an organisation is power. It is what propels events. Obtaining the typical authoritarian dominance capabilities that provide managers the ability to control and discipline employees is not difficult. Getting the power necessary for good success is significantly more challenging. This sort of authority is often acquired via the empowerment of others rather than being publicly granted. Hence the paradox that managers often become more powerful by delegating authority. Leaders actually gain greater "productive power" the kind of power genuinely required to achieve organisational goals by empowering others. Managers who are unable to delegate, who won't trust or empower subordinates, and who progressively strive to hoard authority, become less and less powerful and, in turn, more and more inept. Just like money, which is a kind of power, keep in mind that in order for power to be effective, it must be distributed. The way managers are penalised for not using all of their allotted cash is perhaps the most prevalent illustration of the dysfunctional withholding of authority. The usual penalty consists of taking away the money via fund reallocation and, to make matters worse, budgeting less money during the subsequent budget cycle. It makes sense that managers have mastered the art of essentially spending every single cent of their budgets. Not only is this wasteful, but it also dissuades people from making cost-cutting efforts to really save money and increase productivity. One of the primary tenets of the entrepreneurial management movement in the United States is giving managers the authority to manage their budget savings. Universities are not exempt from this issue either. When academic departments decide to grant tenure to professors who are just slightly qualified, university executives sometimes seem astonished. This often occurs when the administration maintains a policy of immediately stripping departments of their professional position budget power whenever a post opens up. Therefore, from the department's perspective, having a faculty vacancy filled by a mediocre person is preferable than having too few faculty members. Therefore, all too often, the department will decide whether to give someone tenure based on their ability or merit rather than anything else [7], [8].

Entrepreneurialism

Entrepreneurship is the last and maybe most significant component of the revolutionary philosophy. Managers are required to seek to alter the organisational culture as transformational leaders. Each must create a fresh vision for the company and then bring that vision to life.

The leadership cannot and should not have exclusive authority over entrepreneurial vision. Managers need to have goals and aspirations, be able to analyse the current and make plans for the future, at every level of the organisation. Anyone incapable of doing this, of visualising and planning for change, is by definition inept. After all, even in the public sector, organisations that do not evolve ultimately perish. In addition, how can you ever know whether your dream or vision comes true if you don't have it? But keep in mind that the ardent adherents of any philosophical system or ideology are often doomed to failure. This is particularly true when it comes to management theories. Until we realise that, for instance, Socrates in ancient Greece espoused the virtues of generic management, Aristotle anticipated the underlying assumptions of organisational culture, and Niccolo Machiavelli in the Italian Renaissance wrote *The Prince*, the first of an endless series of "how-to-succeed" books of management advice, we constantly deceive ourselves into thinking we're onto something truly new. Too many businesses fall head over heels for every brand-new management trend and slick-talking consultant that appears. They provide their managers with books, enrol them in training courses, and then want them to manage using acronyms like MBO, OD, TQM, BPR, and a plethora of others buried in a bowl of alphabet soup.

However, take caution not to consume any of this soup whole. Extreme management philosophy is one of the main contributors of ineptitude, thus you might end up with a terrible case of dyspepsia along with your company. For instance, Frederick Taylor's scientific management was based on the idea that there is only "one best way" to do any given work. Once the "one best way" had been determined by the workforce, it was the line manager's responsibility to enforce this process on the company. Traditional scientific management has a paternalistic "Papa knows best" mentality, which is a concern. It assumes that managers have exclusive access to knowledge and that worker input should be avoided as a distraction. However, every employee has a brain. Only a weak organisation would squander or disregard this resource. Thus, scientific management, although in theory a nice notion, devolves into scientific ineptitude when practised to the nth degree.

Public administration and management in general are now preoccupied indeed, they are now obsessed with a problem that has been dubbed quality, competence, getting more value for your money, or satisfying consumer requirements. The goal of this managerialism tendency is to provide organisations a renewed feeling of competence so that they can combat the negative effects of ineptitude. Incompetence and competence are, regrettably, two sides of the same coin. It is a trick coin since there is no general agreement on what qualifies as competence or incompetence, making it impossible to determine which side would prevail. This issue reminds me a lot of the famous pornographic definition quandary faced by Supreme Court Justice Potter Stewart. He said that while not being able to articulate it, he still recognised it when he saw it. A comparable perception issue plagues competence. After instance, although one individual may see obstructive red tape, another person may see a prized procedural protection while looking at the same item. During the 1990s, Orange County, California, provided perhaps the best illustration of the risks connected to the entrepreneurial spirit in public administration. In the heady days of the stock bubble, Orange County Treasurer Robert Citron tried to profit from the booming market by investing public money in derivatives, a particularly dangerous kind of investment. Citron made the choice to

invest in derivatives, but he did so with the county government's implicit approval. Citron has a proven track record of making significant returns on his investments. Since the late 1970s, such profits have played a bigger role in the Orange County budget. It seems sense that the regulations governing how funds may be invested were relaxed after such success at generating money without increasing taxes. The consistent flow of investment income enabled local government officials to "have their cake and eat it, too." However, Citron's investment tactics started to falter in 1994, which ultimately resulted in a loss of \$1.6 billion and the insolvency of one of the richest counties in the country. In effect, the county was depending on Citron's business acumen to generate revenue while neglecting the hazards associated with such behaviour[9], [10].

Toward a Competitive Public Administration

The rationale managerialism uses to approach change is one of its major flaws. The mechanisms that they must operate under are the issue, not the excellent individuals that make up the public sector. Bring in some tough managers with presumably extensive experience in the private sector, and they will quickly get everything in order. Although it is always true that public service operations may be improved, this does not always mean that all private sector strategies should be adopted. Does the job. What the would-be reformers often overlook is the fact that inefficient government operations result from the legislature's decision to balance the conflicting goals of politics, representativeness, and due process rather than from the stupidity of the individuals who work there. Efficiency must take a back seat to these other considerations. These other criteria are just as much a part of the agency's legislative purpose as efficiency is, so no upstart CEO most recently from some hotshot business will try to force them out of line.

This is why conservative or right-of-center governments like the Reagan and Thatcher administrations of the 1980s were the primary progenitors of the managerialist tendency. Both of them spoke a better management game than they really did. Although they have had a long-lasting and ultimately nonpartisan impact on administrations that lean left or right, respectively. For instance, in the early 1990s, the United States, Australia, and New Zealand all embraced managerialism in its entirety. "Managerialism is the 'acceptable face' of new-right theory concerning the state," according to managerialism guru Christopher Pollitt. "[It] provides a label under which private sector disciplines can be introduced to the public services, political control can be strengthened, budgets can be cut, professional autonomy can be reduced, public service unions can be weakened, and a quasi-competitive framework can be erected to flush out the 'natural' inefficiencies of bureaucracy."

The public has generally supported the numerous managerialist initiatives due to its dislike of "the bureaucracy," its growing resistance to paying higher taxes, its widespread belief that privatisation will save the public money, and the fact that reform of any kind is frequently good for politics. Almost all of the managerialists' objectives may be fulfilled via competitive public administration, as it has come to be called. Self-standing bureaucratic elements like building maintenance staffs or trash collection operations are being forced to compete in price with private sector contractors who are ready and willing to move the in question jobs into the private sector at all levels of government under regimes of vastly different political philosophies. This similar approach may be used for housing, public education, and even free meals for the homeless thanks to various voucher programmes. The "survival of the cheapest" Darwinian environment is in fact enforcing private sector discipline, strengthening political control, reducing spending, and reducing unionism and professionalism. Previously right-wing, this is now mainstream. Following the publication of David Osborne and Ted Gaebler's book with the same name in 1992, this is often referred to as the "reinventing-government"

movement in the United States. The idea that the government's administrative issues will be resolved as soon as some successful business executives teach those bureaucrats what's what is a recurring motif in American politics. However, when applied, managerialism's notion of transferability, this Socratic genericism, has often had far less success than expected. A comparable genericism has proved as harmful inside private enterprises. As more and more financial managers took over of manufacturing companies, sales and ultimately product quality worsened. The issue of a top-management cadre adept in maths but unaware of how their goods are manufactured has become so bad that it calls into question the fundamental tenets of genericism. In fact, Robert Samuelson, an economist, describes this as the idea that a manager with an MBA degree "should be able to manage any enterprise, anywhere, at any time" has died. This is known as the "death of management."

Information Technology

Public administration in many respects mirrors the larger society in which it functions. There are startling parallels between the job of government and the greater world it inhabits, from the women and men who carry out the laws to the kinds of equipment that they use. Therefore, it should not be surprising that many of the characteristics that characterise modern American life make their way into the formulation of public policy and its implementation. Most significantly, it can be predicted that technology will play a significant part in the work of individuals who carry out the laws of the country in a country where the presence of technology in its residents' everyday life is becoming more important. It is difficult to escape the nation's connected environment given that our cars have GPS and our houses have high-speed Internet.

It is hardly unexpected that government officials have embraced technology to enhance their effectiveness in providing services to residents. Government officials have completely embraced the technology-dependent American people, with GPS devices in police vehicles and Blackberries in the hands of everyone from road crew members to the president. As we'll see in the discussion that follows, the proliferation of technological tools in government has improved its ability to carry out its primary duty of serving the people, but it has also resulted in significant costs for both the general public and public officials themselves.

Social Networks and New Media: Government 2.0

When was the last time you sent a text message? How long has it been since you last updated your Facebook page? How often do you watch YouTube content? Did you text someone while you were reading this book? The answers to the preceding questions certainly imply that you engage with the most prevalent technology of the day quite a bit, if you're like most people of college age. Americans are becoming more and more connected, or should we say wireless, thanks to things like texting and tweeting. Government often falls behind the general public and commercial sector in implementing new information technology, but it ultimately catches up.

Therefore, it shouldn't come as a surprise that government organisations have their own Facebook sites, post stuff to YouTube, and tweet and SMS the whole globe on a regular basis. Such activities come from the government's desire to connect with the people it serves, not from a drive to appear hip or fashionable. Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and texting are some of the technological innovations that have captured the attention of government leaders the most. These technologies are swiftly emerging as important communication resources for government organisations looking to connect with a wide range of citizens, as the next sections will show.

From E-Commerce to E-Government

E-commerce is becoming a reality. The fact that you can now purchase nearly anything online, from cars to zippers, is a clear indication of this. Additionally, research may be done on items that cannot be purchased directly online, such as real estate, to ensure that whomever makes the final purchase is a more educated consumer. E-commerce is also wholesale—business to business as well as retail. There are differences of opinion over which e-commerce initiatives and particular firms will succeed and which will fail, but there is no denying that e-commerce is HUGE and here to stay.

The simplicity with which the Internet makes it possible to update clients about their accounts is another significant component of e-commerce. Millions of people have daily access to their accounts with a variety of suppliers, allowing them to see the precise status of their purchases, including when they were sent, what was on backorder, and how much was charged to a credit card. Clients may also access their bank and retirement accounts to check on the status of cleared checks and to monitor the performance of their 401 stock holdings in a tumultuous market. This technological marvel raises a very important question: if a mutual stock fund holding hundreds of different securities can add up the values of its assets at the end of each business day and within a few hours tell each client the value of his or her accounts to the penny on the Web, why can't governments do the same with their numerous accounts? Naturally, they could, is the response. But as we all know, they often don't. The issue that has to be addressed is, "Why don't they?" Governmental organisations are naturally and appropriately conservative not necessarily in the sense of leaning to the political right, but rather in the sense that they have a fiduciary duty to manage government resources and programmes wisely. Governments are thus unable to take the same types of risks with developing technology that corporations do on a regular basis. Governments are unable to "bet the firm" on emerging technologies since doing so would not be wise. Because they have to wait till the newest technologies have proved themselves, government will always have a preference for providing older technology in terms of customer service. A "prudent" public manager may only then install and pay for them. Because of this, e-government has taken significantly longer to develop than e-commerce. Therefore, the response to the question "Why don't they?" is that they will it simply takes some time for innovations in government to become institutionalized.

Technology, Productivity, and Innovation in Government

Budget restrictions are a regular occurrence for public administrations. Public managers are always under pressure to accomplish more with less because elected officials oppose tax hikes while yet seeking top-notch government services. Government workers have often resorted to technology solutions because of these restrictions in order to maintain service quality without generating more income. Just think of the money that might be saved if people paid their taxes and user fees online. A jurisdiction may drastically reduce its staff expenditures by using fewer front-office workers at the windows where customers come to pay their bills and fewer back-office clerks to process checks and open envelopes. Additionally, if you require fewer clerks, you'll also need fewer workers to assist them, such as fewer security guards and cleaners. Additionally, fewer employees need less office assistance, which increases savings.

However, online bill payment is really the tip of the iceberg. In a wide range of other sectors, there are also significant savings to be achieved. For instance, it is possible to renew occupational licences online. Building designs may be reviewed architecturally without having to transmit them across town. In order to save on shipping and handling, health and

building inspection reports may be emailed to individuals who are interested as soon as they are written. Human contact cannot, will not, and cannot be replaced by electronic governance. However, less engagement leads to higher productivity gains and savings. And as the government becomes more productive, taxes remain the same or even decline. For this reason, President George W. Bush requested \$20 million as the first payment on a \$100 million fund for an intra-agency e-government effort to be overseen by the General Services Administration in his 2002 federal budget plan. Bush wanted to lower taxes and shrink the size of the government, but he also understood that this increase in expenditure was a little investment that would provide large dividends. The E-Government Act of 2002 was passed in part thanks to the president's proposals. This Act legally created the federal infrastructure needed to support the growth of e-government throughout the country. The E-Government Act was reauthorized in 2008 thanks in part to gross cost savings of \$508 million in fiscal year 2007, according to the Office of Management and Budget.

Municipalities have followed the federal government in using technology more and more. Technology has been seen as being especially important for increasing productivity in the law enforcement sector. Technology has been a significant way of support as law enforcement officials in US cities have faced the high demands of rising levels of violent crime and the ongoing danger of terrorist strikes. Police officers scan the urban environment using surveillance equipment including cameras at major junctions and live streaming from public parks. There are approximately 3,000 cameras scouring New York alone for criminal activities. And the cameras are not only present in large cities like New York. Surveillance cameras are being lauded as essential components in small areas like Allentown, Pennsylvania, where limited resources and rising crime have tested the capabilities of police departments. In the field of community security. The installation of public surveillance cameras has undoubtedly angered civil liberties organisations like the ACLU, who see the cameras as an invasion of privacy. However, it looks that video surveillance cameras will become a more pervasive feature of the American environment until the Supreme Court issues rulings ordering them to be taken down from the streets[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Sociologists have long referred to the financial and administrative elites that rule an industrial society as managerialism. This well-known sociological "ism" acquired new meanings in the 1980s when the British government attempted to reorient the civil service away from policy and towards management. Today, attempts to make the bureaucracy more receptive to the requirements of its clients are referred to as "managerialism" in all parts of the globe. Therefore, public administrators may no longer simply act as the classic "neutral guns for hire." They must now proactively propose innovative answers to challenging challenges as policy entrepreneurs. The main duty of an organisational leader is performance management, which is the methodical integration of an organization's activities to accomplish its goals. All facets of organisational performance are thoroughly controlled, audited, and evaluated. This is closely related to the idea of contracting, since organisational or individual objectives are often reflected in quasicommercial agreements. The difficulties in identifying outputs and quantifying metrics of efficiency, effectiveness, and influence make measuring the productivity of any jurisdiction, organisation, programme, or person extremely challenging.

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CHAPTER 8

STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNMENT REGULATION: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Using apparatuses to realize an objective is what we call procedure. These assets are utilized in portion as methodologies to reach parts of the in general objective. Key administration is being utilized to adjust this old-fashioned strategy to modern company and legislative administration. Since formal vital arranging isn't continuously fundamental, the words "vital administration" and "vital arranging" ought to not be used traded. Key arranging, be that as it may, is inconsequential within the nonattendance of key management. Strategic administration has advanced into a basic point of view for numerous directors within the public sector. Such viewpoints do not supplant conventional administration problems; rather, they give a new point of view. Regulation could be a foundation of modern open approach within the Joined together States and one of the foremost efficient apparatuses open to open chairmen for empowering the vital administration of government targets (such as clean discuss and secure streets). Direction gives the capacity to form particular directions implied to form perfect social conditions, giving open chairmen the specialist to actualize comprehensive authoritative orders.

KEYWORDS:

Government Regulation, Legislative Administration, Old-Fashioned Strategy, Strategic Management.

INTRODUCTION

The use of the management total resources (often troops) to achieve a purpose is strategy, the age-old art of generalship. A portion of these resources are used as tactics to achieve a portion of the total goal. Strategic the current application of this age-old practice to modern business and government administration is management. In order to direct organizational efforts towards the accomplishment of predetermined goals, managers consciously choose policies, build capabilities, and interpret the environment. These goals must all be different. In the private sector, it may be the yearly dividends paid to investors tripling in a certain number of years. A repertory theatre opening up in the nonprofit sector or a sharp rise in symphony orchestra concert attendance are two examples. In the public sector, it may be a decline in crime, an increase in the graduation rate from high school, the fall of communism around the globe, or a triumph in the fight against terrorism. Planning where an organization wants to be by a future goal date is done using a strategy that is fundamentally the same in all strategic management initiatives. The following six characteristics distinguish a strategic management approach from a nonstrategic one:

1. The determination of future goals to be accomplished (they are often stated in a vision statement).
2. Choosing a time range (or "planning horizon") for when these goals should be accomplished.
3. A thorough evaluation of an organization's existing situation, particularly its capabilities.
4. An evaluation of the organization's immediate and long-term external environments.

5. The choice of a plan for achieving desired goals by a future date, often after weighing several possibilities.
6. Coordinating organizational efforts using this tactic.

The overall strategy is essentially the collection of activities chosen after considering alternatives, evaluating the external environment, and estimating an organization's internal capacity to accomplish certain future goals via the coordination of organisational effort. A strategic planning unit inside the organisation often runs the strategic management process. In the end, its conclusions are outlined in a strategy known as the strategic plan. When applied to organisations in the public sector, several of the previously mentioned key components of strategic management need special considerations[1], [2].

The Planning Horizon

Where do you see yourself in ten years? Is a question that a hiring manager or selection committee may sometimes ask you when you apply for a job? Regarding the way women's jobs are set up, this is often seen as a foolish question and may even be discriminatory. The selection committee is attempting to determine, however, if the job candidate has a personal career strategy or is drifting in an opportunistic manner without a strategy, without personal aspirations, and without a career plan by asking this question.

When addressed to organisations in the public sector, the same question is most definitely not absurd. It is crucial to determine whether or not they have strategic purpose, which is the desire to create their own future rather than passively responding to changes brought about by others. The planning horizon of any organization the period of time beyond which organizational planning is regarded too uncertain or insignificant to devote time on is crucial in determining both its short- and long-term survival while private firms have the freedom to choose their own planning horizons, those who support the most logical planning in the public sector face significant barriers.

Public administration is essentially political, which might favor short-term thinking. The late British Prime Minister Harold Wilson is credited with the phrase "A week is a long time in politics." By doing this, he was making a point about how the public's attention can change quickly and how something that is important one week may be forgotten the next. Political leaders may abruptly and quickly lose their positions of authority and even their jobs. The career possibilities of individuals who would run the political barnyard are described as "today a rooster, tomorrow a feather duster." Therefore, the ruling elites in mature democracies believe they must pay close attention to the findings of relatively recent public polls. These A short-term emphasis on public policies is a factor that, together with any other, actively hinders strategic management attempts.

The yearly structure of public budgeting processes feeds into this propensity for short-term thinking. Legislators at all levels national, state, and local are used to using their oversight power during the yearly rituals of budget creation and review. Biennial and multiyear budgets, in their eyes, pose direct dangers to their political clout and patronage privileges. This issue was covered by Aaron Wildavsky in his well-known essay from 1978, "A Budget for All Seasons: Why the Traditional Budget Lasts." It continues because so many politicians' political influence is based on it. If not, sensible changes that result in multiyear budgets are inherently contrary to their own political interests. Longer budget cycles have been attempted several times throughout the years, but only with sporadic success. Thus, short-term budgeting continues to support short-term decisions and impede strategic planning's naturally long-term character.

Despite the limitations mentioned above, long-term planning is unavoidable in certain activities conducted by the public sector. There are certain projects that obviously demand long-term planning horizons since they call for both steady development and significant financial expenditure. This is how all publicly owned utilities such as water, electricity, and transportation must function. To build a new transportation system, power plant, or water purification facility, they must have extensive forward planning and multiyear lead periods.

The limitations of conventional short-term government planning are inapplicable here. Such utilities are often put under semiautonomous public organisations or commissions, if they are not already in the private sector. Instead of functioning as typical government departments, they have greater flexibility to think, plan, and act in this environment. Government-owned utilities serve as an excellent example of a sector of the public sector where long-term strategy and related long-term planning are vital[3], [4].

Rational decision-making is chosen when strategic management is implemented in a company, municipality, agency, or presidential initiative. In this regard, American institutions are today more committed than ever to logical planning. For instance, "federal agencies must prepare and submit strategic plans to the Office of Management and Budget and Congress," according to the Government Performance Results Act of 1993. Similar legislation is progressively being passed by the states. For instance, all state agencies must utilise strategic plans as the foundation for making their "requests for legislative funding, and gauge agency success by the results and outputs they obtain, as per House Bill 2009, approved by the Texas State Legislature in 1991[5], [6].

DISCUSSION

The emphasis of political analysis should it be the individual political actor, a local government, a national government, or the whole world political system? This is one of the age-old questions in the study of politics. Single-level analysis is, at best, challenging due to the forces at work and the connections created both within and between these levels. Because a political actor is never acting alone, there is no purpose in doing a political study of that actor in isolation. Always a resident of a state and/or a part of other sizable organisations. Therefore, there are a lot of them. Numerous connections and interactions between the different governmental levels and other social groups.

A comparable level-of-analysis issue is presented by strategy. It has a hierarchy by nature. From the top, the broadest ideas are executed at numerous levels that go to the bottom. When a soldier pulls the trigger on his gun and delivers a full measure of such justice to a real person, the president's order for "justice" for America's adversaries has already passed through the chain of command. The methods and procedures by which individuals are finally killed by firearms, given food stamps, or given medical treatment are put into action by strategy.

Whether the end result is bullets or bedpans, the strategy will follow a similar path to implementation, moving from the grand strategic level (the creation of national policy) to the strategic level (the highest organizational level), to the operational level (the creation of plans or administrative procedures), and finally to the tactical level (the provision of services). Each level accepts the strategy from the level above but exercises discretion to develop level-specific or sub-strategies that make execution easier. Each level creates measurement and reporting methods concurrently to evaluate how well the entire plan is being carried out. The management scorecard, benchmarking, and best practices are three of these instruments for gauging effectiveness.

Best Practices

The first strategy in conflict and management may be to observe what your rivals are doing and copy their innovative successes. Organisations, whether industrial or military, would often just steal, borrow, or duplicate the greatest ideas of others well before the era of patents and copyrights. Always keep in mind that the goal of the scientific management movement was to identify the "one best way." But "best" is always ephemeral. A period of greater effectiveness follows a successful invention by reformers, at least until other organisations implement comparable changes. But as time goes on, new technologies and shifting environmental conditions cause the invention to degrade in comparison to competing arrangements, first becoming less competent and finally incompetent. As a result, implementing and sustaining best practices actually determines the viability of an organisations.

Benchmarking

Is this organisations effective by market standards? This is a crucial issue that must constantly be posed. Because public organisations may lose their legitimacy or even their right to exist if their managers are unable to run them in a manner that demonstrates acceptable levels of competence, the task of maximizing operational efficiency is crucial for public sector managers. In the past, managers had the ability to obscure discussions about the effectiveness of public sector organisations by making allusions to peculiar traits, measurement challenges, and the complexity of daily life in the public sector. All of these reasons for why evaluating the effectiveness of public sector organisations is challenging have some validity, but it is also true that we now have a lot more data to take into account thanks to benchmarking and studies of comparative performance, especially in those areas of the public sector where measurements and comparisons are most straightforward, i.e., where "hard," measurable outputs exist. An objective baseline is essential if any management or government wants to improve performance, despite the challenges and complexities of assessing performance and productivity in the public sector. A methodical approach to evaluating your performance in relation to that of others engaged in similar endeavours is almost as essential. All managers deal with the latter issue; it is not exclusive to management in the public sector. Benchmarking is a method of comparison that was created specifically for this use in the private sector. It is currently extensively utilised in the public sector and has expanded around the globe[7], [8].

Government Regulation for Health, Safety, and Economic Equity

One of the most important functions of the government is to control society in order to protect and advance the general welfare. Public administrators have a lot of authority to establish and uphold laws that control many facets of life in America since they are the guardians of the public interest. Just consider the impact that government regulation has on your day-to-day existence to drive this point home. Take the straightforward action of visiting McDonald's to get a salad or cheeseburger. You depart from your home or flat, which was constructed in accordance with regional construction regulations. You get into your vehicle, which is equipped with several safety measures that are mandated by federal law. At a junction, you must stop your car this is the law. When you arrive to McDonald's, you see a label from the neighborhood public health office on the door, stating that the restaurant has been examined and is in compliance with regulations regarding insect and rodent infestation. A framed certificate from the nearby municipality stating that the building has a business licence is displayed on the wall. Then you give your orders to someone whose minimum pay and maximum hours are determined by law, whose boss is required by Equal Employment

Opportunity Commission guidelines to maintain a sexual harassment-free workplace and whose wages are subject to mandatory deductions for income tax and Social Security. If you feel the urge to use the loo after your meal, you can discover one big cubicle that is intended for those who are physically disabled regulation.

Regulation is present in every aspect of your life, whether you are aware of it or not, as the situation above illustrates. This shouldn't be a shock to anybody. Regulation is one of the most effective instruments available to public administrators for facilitating the strategic management of government goals (e.g., clean air, safe roads), and it forms the basis of current public policy in the United States. However, when regulation fails, as it did in 2007 when the Minnesota Interstate 35 Bridge collapsed, the public rapidly takes notice and demands an explanation. It could be most beneficial to think about regulation as you would a baseball umpire. When a call is made during a game, you hardly ever see the ump. When a play is blown, your team suffers on the pitch. In a similar vein, we seldom give rules much thought until they start to fail.

Regulation is always a component of a more comprehensive strategic endeavour, such as enhancing public health, even if we often encounter it in its numerous elements, such as restaurant inspection and zoning enforcement. How the different regulatory components match the strategic management approach covered earlier in this Chapter. A rule is always a component of a wider strategic purpose; it does not exist for its own sake. The other sections of this Chapter examine some of the important individuals, procedures, and instruments that make up regulatory activities at the national, state, and local levels. This inevitably necessitates an analysis of the tactics and shortcomings of various regulatory measures used by the various levels of government.

Independent Regulatory Agencies

Regulation in the modern day is so prevalent and ordinary that we are used to seeing it and just accept it. A common rule of thumb is that a location will have more restrictions the more populous and economically developed it is. Society requires regulations so that individuals don't unintentionally collide with each other's vehicles, live in homes that collapse from structural instability, or get food poisoning from tainted meat. Before government restrictions, at least in the developed world, rendered such calamities relatively unusual, they were prevalent. Consider the fact that similar-sized earthquakes occurred in southern Iran and central California in December 2003. However, tens of thousands perished in Iran whereas just two individuals perished in California. According to Iranian authorities, "poor design, primitive materials, and widely disregarded building codes were prime causes of the high death rate," according to Erik Kirschbaum. Authorities in California saved lives by enforcing laws that called for architectural review, rigorous respect to building rules, and building inspections.

Legislation is where regulation first emerged. However, as no piece of legislation can ever cover every aspect of a topic in full, regulations are often required to cover the specifics left out of the written law. As a result, administrative agencies must utilise rulemaking authority since it is a legal right. In order to make policy choices, regulations-specifications, assertions of fines and enforcement measures, and other actions, agencies must start with some kind of legislative mandate. The federal Administrative Procedure Act (APA) very briefly describes the precise procedure to be followed when creating rules. The APA does make a distinction between regulation that requires a hearing and rulemaking that just necessitates notice and a chance for public comment. The enabling statute determines whether the formal or informal process is to be used; the Supreme Court held in *United States v. Florida East Coast Railway*

(1973) that formal rulemaking is only required when the enabling statute expressly calls for an agency hearing before rule formulation. The APA also mandates that agencies provide any interested party the opportunity to petition for the issuance, revision, or repeal of a rule and that regulations be publicized 30 days prior to their effective date. In practice, the APA gives administrative rule makers the same rights as legislators when adopting laws, even though it sets a procedure of notice and a window for discussion. That is Of course, there is also the additional need that the rule be in accordance with the enabling law guiding the rulemaking.

The Federal Register, a daily publication that has been in existence since 1935 and is used to make public upcoming rules and regulations of federal agencies as well as other legal documents of the executive branch, such as presidential proclamations and executive orders, is required to publish all new federal rules. The mainstream media will undoubtedly rapidly learn about any contentious new regulations, particularly given that the Register started publishing online articles in 1992. Every state follows similar rule-making processes that include publishing draught regulations, soliciting comments, and taking action[9], [10].

State Government Regulation

Although the federal level often receives the majority of the public's attention, state governments also play an important role in regulation. State governments have a dominant influence in many areas of policy due to the Tenth Amendment's reservation of powers to the states. The states are in charge of numerous areas of regulatory policy, from transportation to education, including many of the rules governing the delivery of services to the public by professionals like physicians, dentists, teachers, and accountants.

Occupational Licensing

Do you believe your physician? A chemist or a dentist, perhaps? You likely have a connection with these people due to your personal interactions through time and contact. But who validates the legitimacy of these experts for the people in general? The state government often provides the licencing and rules that control the majority of professions. Keep in mind that a certified public accountant (CPA) may only be considered "certified" by a state after proving that they have the necessary training and work experience, as well as passing a state test. Similar to how the US Constitution speaks specifically about the responsibility of the federal government in promoting the general welfare, practically every state constitution does the same. While you would first assume that safeguarding the public's welfare entails police officers apprehending criminals, it also requires taking precautions to keep the public safe from the same persons who are being paid to assist them. States define the requirements for granting licences to people to practise certain professions, from big-rig truck drivers to brain surgeons, via its regulatory authority.

And although though the fact that states licence accountants, physicians, and nurses may not come as a surprise to you, there are many more professions that are also regulated by the governments. For instance, you may not expect to see jobs like sports trainer, interior designer, or massage therapist on a list of regulated professions, yet you can find such a wide range of jobs controlled by the government in many states. Professionals are regulated throughout their careers, not only once they are licenced. State regulators determine the terms under which services may be provided in order to safeguard the general public. States establish the operational rules for numerous professions, from forcing massage therapists to preserve transaction records to requiring chemists to transfer prescriptions at a customer's request.

Service providers face the regulatory fury of administrative bodies when they flagrantly flout the laws of business. Now that the regulations have been broken, you may be asking what kind of punishment a government body may exact on a massage therapist. A licence suspension or revocation, taking a required continuing education course, or paying a fine are all options. And before the massage therapist touches another patient, the regulating hand of the government must grant the therapist permission to go on with his or her assistance.

Local Government Regulation

Local governments have a significant role in delivering many of the most evident types of government services, as we observed in Chapter 4. Local governments often provide essential public services, such as clearing snow from the roads after a storm and teaching maths to kids. But in addition to providing services, county and municipal governments also control a wide range of areas of their residents' lives. On a typical day, local governments control things like how big your backyard pool can be, what you may eat at the Chinese restaurant down the street, and how fast you can drive home from work. Although there are many ways that local government may control your life, we have chosen three in particular to focus on in greater detail in the following section.

Public Health

Public health policies are perhaps the one area of government regulation that best reflects the time in which we live. The topic of public health has a major position in American culture in a world where health hazards are constantly broadcast into our homes. There is no lack of public health issues confronting the country, from the spread of the avian flu to hamburgers contaminated with *E. coli*. When roach-infested eateries are closed or hazardous food items are prevented from reaching customers, the necessity for government engagement in public health is sometimes evident to everyone. The function of government regulation, however, is less apparent and far more debatable in other contexts. To help make the argument clear, let's examine an example.

Over the last 25 years, obesity has emerged as one of the biggest health issues facing Americans. About 33% of people living in the US are clinically obese, according to the Centres for Disease Control (CDC). This rate of obesity is more than twice as high as the 13% figure attained in 1960. Numerous facets of American society are greatly impacted by the high incidence of obesity. According to the CDC, obesity causes more than 112,000 more deaths and adds close to \$100 billion in additional health care costs each year in the United States. Although it is obvious that obesity is a serious danger to the country's health, controlling the issue is very challenging. Similar to how it regulates other health concerns like alcohol and cigarettes, the government has put restrictions on access to these items and imposed sin fees.

However, these regulatory measures are difficult to apply to the overeating and sedentary lifestyles that are the main contributors to obesity. Could you picture Burger King requiring a minimum age to purchase a Whopper or imposing a \$1 fee on every order of McDonald's French fries? Since these possibilities are unworkable from a political standpoint, public health professionals are forced to come up with more inventive solutions.

Requiring restaurants to provide nutrition information next to pricing on menus is one way to control obesity. For instance, the King County, Washington, board of health established a rule in July 2007 that mandates that any restaurant with ten or more outlets display nutritional information next to the name and price of the item on the menu in the same font and size as the price. Additionally, municipal governments have started to control the unhealthiest

ingredients used in fast food, even though it may be politically challenging to outlaw the sale of French fries and deep-dish pizza in restaurants. In order to reduce consumption of one of the main causes of obesity and heart disease, local governments in areas like New York and Seattle have outlawed the use of Trans fats in restaurants. Restaurants and some residents who believe that these laws are an attack on people's liberties and choices are outraged by these prohibitions. Nobody wants to take away your French fries and hamburgers, but if you can create them with something that is less harmful to your health, we should do that, said New York City Mayor Michael Bloomberg in response to complaints. Some people don't like the mayor's attitude; they think it is an instance of the "nanny state" getting in our faces, to be more precise, in our mouths[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Strategy is the use of tools to accomplish a goal. A portion of these resources are used as tactics to achieve a portion of the total goal. This ancient technique is being applied to modern business and governmental administration via strategic management. Strategic management often takes place without formal strategic planning, hence the two terms should not be used interchangeably. But without strategic management, strategic planning is useless. For many managers in the public sector, strategic management has become an essential viewpoint. Such viewpoints instead contribute a new dimension rather than replacing conventional management issues. Regulation is one of the most effective instruments available to public administrators for facilitating the strategic management of government goals (such as clean air and safe roads) and is a pillar of modern public policy in the United States. The capacity to develop particular rules that are intended to produce ideal social circumstances is provided by regulation, which gives public administrators the power to adopt broad legislative directions.

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CHAPTER 9

EXPLORING THE NOTION OF LEADERSHIP: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

The notion of leadership is one that people use to both their personal and professional life. The individuals must have an awareness of the meaning and importance of leadership in order to execute this notion in an efficient and useful way. They will put it into practise after they comprehend its significance and how it will help them to effectively carry out their work responsibilities and accomplish their intended objectives. The major purpose of the leaders is to help their subordinates carry out their work responsibilities in a well-organized and regimented way and to accomplish the intended goals and objectives. Leaders must instill moral and ethical qualities that promote kindness and wellbeing as they carry out their jobs or collaborate with others. The leaders must also be knowledgeable about the strategies and tactics available to deal with change and ensure that they are effective and beneficial to both the individual members of the organization and the overall. Therefore, it can be said that before performing their work obligations, those in leadership positions need to get a thorough understanding of this notion.

KEYWORDS:

Framework, Interactions, Intergovernmental, Management.

INTRODUCTION

There are many aspects of public sector management that need knowledge and abilities that are slightly different from those needed in the private sector. As we've seen, there are restrictions and frameworks for decision-making in the political environment and governance structures that exist in the public sector. These frameworks and constraints must be understood and, in many cases, "managed" by public officials.

We've spoken about the unique challenges of turning managerial demands and political programmes into a coherent course of action in public sector strategic management. We've looked at how intergovernmental interactions and the administrative structure of government provide an internal and external framework that public sector managers must recognise and operate within if they're going to function well. Even though they are all vital, these topics all contribute to the environment that the public sector management will work in. It's like if we looked at a theatre, with its lighting, marketing strategies, ownership, and hiring and firing practises for the supporting performers and dancers.

However, we must now change. Getting down to the point, how excellent will the performance be? What must the director and producer the managers do to demand the greatest performances possible from the cast? The managerial and theatrical industries, as well as sports, all share the term "performance" in this context. The goal is to get an athlete to perform at their absolute peak or for a team to provide their utmost effort. Training, teamwork, leadership, comparison to the best, overall quality in the sense of striving to never miss a trick, and of course strategy are key concepts also here. Performance primarily refers to the exhibition of expertise and the showing of a skill. The word is increasingly used in several contexts in public sector management.

There are a lot because public sector executives' primary priorities are understanding what sort of performance we are receiving and creating opportunities for people and teams to perform better. Thus, leadership is where performance management actually starts[1].

Defining Leadership

One of the writers of this book took a mediaeval history undergraduate course when they were young and foolish. This student asked the professor, "How do they get large numbers of men in real life to storm castles and the like when it appears to be, and indeed often is, certain death?" after seeing dozens of films in which castles were besieged by a cast of thousands. It was a remarkable response from the professor: "That's leadership for you!" So that is as well. Any organization's leader must persuade followers to take risks, do things outside of their comfort zones, and sometimes even give their lives for the greater good. One for all and all for one is the three musketeers' motto, which the group must adopt before being considered to have been led and shaped into an organization. To make people more competent as a coherent group than they are as disorganized individuals, in essence, is the most fundamental responsibility of a leader.

Leadership is the official or informal use of power to plan, direct, and coordinate the efforts of others. The finest leaders are those who are able to wield both formal leadership based on the authority of rank or office and informal leadership based on others' readiness to lend a helping hand to someone whose unique traits of authority they appreciate. It is well recognised that leaders who are restricted to formal authority are at a disadvantage compared to those who can also tap into the unofficial power of a group or country. Shakespeare noted this when he had Angus explain Macbeth's declining capacity to inspire the devotion of his soldiers in Act V, Scene 2 of Macbeth:

1. Those he commands move only in command,
2. Nothing in love: now does he feel his title
3. Hang loose about him, like a giant's robe
4. Upon a dwarfish thief.

Macbeth had evolved into the poster child for a bad leader. His organisation was doomed as soon as he lost the respect and admiration of his supporters. The authority a leader wields suggests a ladder of power where stronger people govern lesser people. In "The Bases of Social Power," J. R. P. French and B. Raven propose that there are five main sources of power: expert power, based on the belief that the leader has special knowledge or expertise; referent power, based on the follower's admiration for or identification with the leader; reward power, based on the leader's capacity to mediate rewards for the follower; legitimate power, based on the belief that the leader has the legal right or authority to exert influence over him or her; The first two power bases expert and referent power are more positively correlated with subordinate performance and satisfaction than the final three reward, legitimate, and coercive power, according to subsequent studies on these power bases[2], [3].

DISCUSSION

We must differentiate between management and leadership. The two jobs and responsibilities are closely related. Management entails the exercise of power granted to a job holder by a higher organisational authority. Responsibility and accountability for the use of organisational resources come along with managerial authority. On the other hand, no one can be given leadership by a higher power. Although many leaders go on to become managers and effective managers must also be leaders, the two jobs and responsibilities are distinct. The study of leadership poses a number of intricate problems that have dogged the

behavioural sciences for decades. What, for instance, lends authority to a manager or a leader? Simply expressed, legitimacy is the quality of a social entity, like a government, a family, or an organisation, that allows it to be both legally and widely believed to have the authority to make choices that have consequences. Because of the legal and perceived privileges that come with their organisational positions, managers supposedly have legitimacy. Contrarily, discussing the legitimacy of a leader as different from the legitimacy of a manager requires introducing the idea of charisma, which refers to leadership based on the charismatic personality of the leader rather than on formal status.

The idea of charismatic power was initially put out by Max Weber, who contrasted it from the conventional authority of a monarch and the legal authority one is granted by virtue of the law, such as the authority that gives organisational leaders legitimacy. Greek words meaning heavenly grace are the source of the English term charisma. If charismatic leadership is to endure, it will ultimately need to become routine or institutionalised. As a result, although a movement or organization's originator may be a captivating spellbinder, his or her successors are often, and inevitably, somewhat uninteresting bureaucrats. Despite the disagreements and unanswered concerns, two things are clear: first, leadership requires a relationship between individuals in which authority and influence are legitimately allocated unevenly, and second, a leader cannot work alone. Someone must follow in order for there to be a leader. Chester I. Barnard's concept of the role of organisational leadership is perhaps the most widely recognised. He outlines three crucial roles that leaders or executives must fulfil in his 1938 essay. The Functions of the Executive:

1. To provide a communication system.
2. To encourage the protection of crucial initiatives.
3. Outlining and defining the objectives and goals of an organisation.

Note how he was decades ahead of his time in stating that the establishment and dissemination of an organisational value system among organisational members is the chief executive's most important responsibility. Therefore, the formulation and defining of purpose is a widely dispersed activity, of which the executive performs merely the broader portion. The requirement of educating people at the lower levels with broad aims is the most significant inherent challenge in the management of cooperative organisations. Here, Barnard is referring to the need for senior management to create and implement an organization's strategic vision. Broad choices and broad aims are only cerebral processes in an organizational vacuum, shielded from reality by layers of misunderstanding, without the up-and-down-the-line coordination of purposeful decisions. It takes sensitive communication systems, expertise with interpretation, creativity, and delegating responsibilities to formulate big aims and provide for their redefinition. Because Barnard was a true executive, he was aware that if the organisation had a strong and clear set of values, the day-to-day issues would be resolved on their own.

Trait Theories

The attribute approach to leadership makes the assumption that leaders have traits personality traits that fundamentally distinguish them from followers. Trait theory proponents contend that certain individuals possess special leadership traits and personality traits that allow them to take on duties that not everyone is capable of handling. They are "born" leaders as a result. It is no longer acceptable to argue that someone will be a good leader because they have particular attributes, without also taking other factors that affect leadership effectiveness into account. Persuasive arguments are made against trait theory from a variety of perspectives. First, since reality never matched the theory, characteristic theory has mostly

lost favour. Instead, since the late 1950s, it has been accepted practise to think of leadership as a relationship, or as the interaction of two or more people. The contact was referred to as a transaction, and the phrase transactional leadership has since evolved to refer to a variety of leadership ideas. Second, the environment has a significant impact on leadership. The environment is increasingly acknowledged as having a significant impact on the qualities, traits, and competencies required of a leader. There is even a situational law that addresses this.

However, the most devastating critique of trait theory has been its inability to pinpoint the characteristics of a successful leader. There is disagreement among research even on the characteristics that have been most often mentioned, such as intellect, vigour, success, reliability, and socioeconomic level. The fact that a leader may be successful in one situation and ineffective in another is the clearest direct evidence that leadership includes more than just having particular attributes. Everything depends on the circumstances.

Transactional Approaches

As opposed to transactional methods, which focused on how leadership was developed and exercised, trait approaches aimed to answer the issue of who was a leader. The renowned K. Lewin, R. Lippitt, and R. K. White investigations of the impact of leadership styles on the group efforts of 10-year-old children engaging in hobby activities set the standard for all leadership-style-oriented transactional methods. Each group's leader was assigned one of three orientations: authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire. All rules were decided upon, all tasks were assigned, personal criticism was used, and the focus was on the end result. Democratic leaders engaged in group activities without monopolising and distributed decision-making authority to subordinates. They also left choices regarding assignments up to the group.

They showed a great deal of regard for other people. Laissez-faire leaders did not engage in the group until they were asked to do so, gave information only when asked for, and permitted freedom for both individual and collective decision-making. They mostly served as facilitators. The most contented and effective groups were those that had democratic leaders. The authoritarian-led teams were the most combative and unsatisfied, yet they produced a lot of work. Poor output, poor satisfaction, and hostile behaviour towards group members and other groups were all characteristics of the groups with laissez-faire leaders. The results have largely been reported in thousands of following investigations. Democracy, or participatory management, is effective. Managers with authoritarian personalities and management philosophies place a high importance on organisation, rules, law, and order. For them, structural power is the ultimate kind of power. Relationships are built on dominance and dependency and are hierarchical. Authoritarianism, or structure-based control, is steadfastly unyielding. However, authoritarian regimes cannot last over the long run, although often succeeding at first.

Authoritarians, whether on a grand scale or in miniature, will inevitably fail because "democracy is inevitable." It is unavoidable not just because it is excellent but also because it is more efficient, particularly in the contemporary day with its workforce of highly skilled technologists. However, authoritarians often maintain authoritarianism in the external polity while inflicting significant emotional harm on people and resulting in lost productivity in the organisational internal polity. Authoritarian personalities must be fought all the more due to their innate propensities for destruction since it is so simple and alluring for them to gain power. Individuals, teams, and organisations must change and adapt to their surroundings. Authoritarians do not readily adjust to new situations or concepts. In the worst sense of the

term, they are conservative. Thus, organisational rigidity and incompetence are caused by their desire to defend and maintain the past as well as to prevent positive change. Authoritarians rule; their followers follow. Organisational authoritarianism and democracy are incompatible; they oppose one another.

Democracy stands in stark contrast, whether it takes the form of participatory management or representative administration. It permits orderly progression and change. The use of dissent as a creative force results in better effectiveness and less ineptitude rather than its suppression. Because its authoritarian command economy was becoming more unable to provide its inhabitants a living quality that was appropriate, the Soviet Union and its Communist Party fell apart in 1991. Because democratic institutions let faults to be fixed in an evolutionary way rather than leading to revolution, they are more competent.

Organisational ineptitude has a significant structural root caused by authoritarian rigidity. It hinders an organization's capacity to pick up new skills and adjust to its surroundings. It concentrates authority and accountability in far too few locations and people. Others are denied the chance and the right to develop as persons and as workers. In spite of colonial sharpshooters reducing their numbers, the British force of troops continued to march in formation between Lexington and Concord, Massachusetts Colony, in 1775, serving as an example of rigidity. Why did the committed targets continue to march in formation? Because that is how battles were supposed to be fought and troops were supposed to act, according to the system. In all facets of its interactions with its American colonies in the eighteenth century, Britain's structural rigidity not only sparked the American Revolution but also contributed to their loss in their efforts to put it down.

Approaches to transactional leadership made the assumption that leaders could be taught to behave appropriately in accordance with the needs of their organisations. As it turns out, this is wishful thinking. After attending leadership training courses, leaders seldom ever show any behaviour changes when they return to their organisation. However well-trained, department heads if their own bosses do not behave in a supportive manner towards them, they may not always act considerately towards subordinates. The need to introduce changes to an organisation as a whole, rather than simply to specific personnel, is one clear conclusion. In reality, leaders use several approaches depending on the circumstance. Therefore, the focus on "pure" leadership style has made way for contingency methods[4], [5].

Contingency Approaches

We've all seen heroic leadership in action: the supervisor who leads from the assembly line is the management relative of the general who commands soldiers from the front lines. Each finds it almost hard to assign blame, and by attempting to handle everything alone, they both end up failing. When an Alexander the Great would be the first to attack the enemy with a sword in hand, this naturally theatrical style of leadership was fitting for ancient armies. By the mid-20th century, this lead worker strategy had lost its credibility. There will always be organisational heroes, it's true, but their bravery will be more situational, a response to an emergency or crisis rather than a way of doing business.

Heroic managers are chronic stressors. They subject themselves to excessive amounts of stress and spread it to others around them. These bosses often offer a secretary a handwritten letter to type as they stand by and watch with escalating anxiety. He will offer instructions on how to do a task to subordinates before giving them the task. She will be adamant about controlling and being at the centre of all internal communications, which will lead to information bottlenecks and organisational ineptitude. Lower-level managers are encouraged to emulate and reinforce heroic leadership when it is permitted by the organization's senior

managers. No organisation would support damaging leadership philosophies, but tolerating them is the same thing. Leadership in contemporary organisations is fundamentally less heroic and more situational or dependent. Contrary to trait theory and transactional leadership, contingency methods take into account a wide range of variables that might affect a leader's style. A successful leader in one sort of organisation may not be successful in another since it is different from the first one, as is well acknowledged. Its scenario is unique, thus the choice of a style must take it into account. According to leadership expert Ralph Stogdill, the contingency theories emphasise:

1. The organization's nature, structure, size, and goal.
2. The environment outside of which the organisation operates.
3. The leader's direction, beliefs, objectives, and expectations of subordinates and superiors.
4. The level of expertise or professional knowledge needed for the job.

According to the contingency methods, the outcomes of various leadership philosophies will vary depending on the circumstance. The effectiveness of a leadership style or a specific leader depends on the circumstances, not on their inherent qualities or characteristics. Thus, contrary to Frederick Taylor's scientific management, contingency theorists contend that there is no "one best way" to lead effectively. Consider Ulysses S. Grant, who ended up winning the American Civil War. He was chosen president in 1868 based on his military prowess, but despite his excellence as a commander, he performed poorly in that role. He is regarded as one of the greatest generals in American history, but virtually all historians agree that he was one of the worst presidents ever.

Other American generals, most notably George Washington, Andrew Jackson, and Dwight D. Eisenhower, were able to transition from military to civilian leadership. But poor President Grant simply lacked the capacity. As a civilian leader, he wasn't able to consciously restructure his thinking. Grant was a kind man, but he often exhibited blind allegiance to his dishonest pals. One of the first studies that truly demonstrated the need for leaders to assess the situational elements before implementing a certain leadership style was carried out by Professors Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt. They came to the conclusion that "the successful manager can best be described as neither a strong leader nor a permissive one." He or she "maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behaviour at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly," in other words.

Although Tannenbaum and Schmidt believe that leaders should modify their philosophies to suit followers, Professor Fred Fiedler of the University of Washington discovered that the contrary was often true. Sometimes it is simpler to alter the workplace or the circumstance to suit a leader's approach. The fundamental leadership stance is influenced by personality. A leader's personality is unlikely to alter as a result of a few lectures or a few weeks of rigorous training, claims Fiedler. As a result, an organisation should alter the circumstance to meet its leader's approach rather than selecting a leader who fits the situation. However, it is simpler said than done. The new manager explains the options to the workforce, saying, "We can do things my way, your way, or the company's way. We can work things out perfectly well if you follow my instructions."

Transformational Leadership

A transformational leader is one who can alter the organisational culture by developing a new vision for the company and mobilising the workforce. The necessary assistance to turn that vision become the new truth. The most well-known transformational leader is General

George S. Patton Jr., who, in North Africa during World War II, took command of a beaten and disheartened American Army and turned it into a victorious squad. When Lee Iacocca took over a Chrysler Corporation that was on the approach of bankruptcy and dissolution in the late 1970s and brought it back to profitability, the mission was different but no less challenging. When AT&T transitioned from a monopoly public utility to a business that needed to modify its corporate culture to compete in the free market in 1984, the company's leadership confronted comparable difficulties.

When he was elected mayor of Philadelphia in 1992, Edward G. Rendell was confronted with a comparable issue. In the viewpoint of workers, future employers, lenders, suppliers, and residents alike, Philadelphia was a "loser" in pretty much every respect. It was only considered that the city couldn't directly compete with other cities of a similar size. Rendell had to alter not simply the organisational culture but also how almost everyone saw it. In essence, he warned the municipal unions to either accept the idea or "kiss off." They began the strategy after a short strike that was noted for its lack of support from the general people. Philadelphia required and received in Rendell a transformational leader, one who changed an established organisational culture by conceiving of and presenting a new vision for the organisation, and by mobilising support and devotion to make that vision a reality.

Noel Tichy and David Ulrich, social scientists, define transformational leaders as those exceptional people who can guide colleagues through their doubts and anxieties to the realisation of a new vision. This calls for strategic leadership that effectively alters how people see the company. A reasonable, technical, gradual approach to change is not what is meant by transformational change. The leader's main job is to guide and assist followers through carefully planned change phases while serving as a positive role model and cheerleader, vocally and nonverbally demonstrating conviction in the positive effects that will result from the changes. Transformative leadership is about leadership to alter a culture, while transactional theories of leadership largely pertain to leadership positions, responsibilities, and behaviour within an existing organisational culture. Incremental transformation is the main objective of transactional leadership. Radical transformation is what transformative leadership is all about.

Radical changes can need co-optation, the introduction of new, potentially dissident group members into a company's policy-making procedure to stop such components from endangering the company or its goal. It happens more often when a new strategic concept is put into action. It's fascinating to note how transformational leadership theories and leadership characteristic theories are quite similar. The "great man" idea, which holds that leaders are born, not manufactured, is closely related to transformational leadership. In many respects, the search for the root of leadership in qualities rather than in social and cultural circumstances is a recurrent theme in leadership theory [6], [7].

The Importance of Optimism

The Americans were suffering from a German offensive at the start of the Battle of the Bulge in World War II, and the situation seemed fairly hopeless. General Dwight D. Eisenhower, who would eventually become president, summoned a conference of his top commanders as things continued to deteriorate and declared: "The current situation is to be considered as one of opportunity for us and not of tragedy. Only happy people will be seated at this conference table. His recently "cheerful" commanders went on to triumph in the conflict. Eisenhower believed it was imperative that he maintain an image of complete confidence, regardless of his sentiments at the moment, according to historian Stephen E. Ambrose. He understood that a culture of confidence, or "cheerleading," at the top would filter down to every level of his

enormous organisation. Eisenhower intuitively understood that a confident organisation is significantly more likely to succeed than a dubious one even if its leader in actuality has reservations. This is now supported by social science. Positive thinking or optimism are effective, even when the leader needs to fake it.

Throughout history, the most effective leaders have been the most upbeat, whether they were generals, managers, or football coaches. Was a leader ever more upbeat than President Franklin D. Roosevelt, who in 1933, at the height of the Great Depression, said to his country that "the only thing we have to fear is fear itself"? Here was a guy who had polio in his prime and was paralysed. However, he merely passed away from physical paralysis. He overcame his illness to become the governor of New York and later the president of the United States. His positivity was contagious. Nearby people noticed it. This contagious "disease" proved advantageous for the nation [8], [9].

Effective leaders have long understood how critical it is to foster in their people a winning optimism. It may not be justified by the situation, yet it is a considerably more effective force in leading than reason would suggest. The reverse of optimism, pessimism, despair, or what social psychologist Martin E. P. Seligman refers to as "learned helplessness," will almost always result in failure of the current mission as well as, ultimately, of one's physical well-being. People "learn" that they are "helpless" via repeated experiences when they feel that they have no control over the issue and that their greatest efforts are ineffective. As a result, they grow gloomy and sad. Seligman offers the case of American POWs in Korea as an illustration. Those who had a positive view were far more likely to make it through their struggle. Even though they received the same food and care as the others, those who felt powerless and subsequently despondent were far more likely to pass away while they were being held captive. Leaders' upbeat attitudes can turn into self-fulfilling prophesies. Both manager/worker and teacher/student interactions have often served as examples of the Pygmalion effect, which is the idea that something happens because we believe it will. They will typically live up to expectations if the instructor or management feels his or her pupils or employees are competent this explains why successful followers are more inclined to follow upbeat leaders [9], [10]. Always be honest; if you can fake it, you'll be successful, as actors are often advised. The same is true of leadership. Always be upbeat, even if you don't feel that way. When assessing his inspirational leadership following the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, which brought down the Twin Towers of the World Trade Centre, New York City Mayor Rudy Giuliani acknowledged as much, saying, "I wonder how much of it [his leadership] was bluff.

CONCLUSION

A large portion of it had to be bluff. Look, you have to be upbeat amid a crisis. I didn't realise that when I mentioned that the city's spirit would be greater. That's all I could hope for. Furthermore, do you believe that President Franklin D. Roosevelt really believed that the only thing Americans had to fear was fear itself? Everyone who knew him acknowledges his talent as an actor. Politicians are actors, of course. Some just get higher ratings than others. Leadership is the official or informal use of power to plan, direct, and coordinate the efforts of others. The most effective leaders are those who can exert both formal leadership based on the authority of rank or office and informal leadership based on other people's desire to serve an individual with unique power at the same time. There is a distinction between management and leadership, management entails formal authority granted to a job holder by a higher organisational authority. In contrast, authority cannot provide leadership; rather, it must be earned by forging a bond of trust between the leader and the followers.

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CHAPTER 10

BRIEF DISCUSSION ON SOCIAL EQUITY

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ABSTRACT:

The Judiciary to overturn Michigan legislation that entrust this policy judgement to the voters under the United States Constitution or the rulings of this Court. Affirmative action was no longer considered essential in the United States after Barack Obama was elected president in 2009. After all, it was reasonable to suppose that things had changed for the better if an African-American could be elected to the nation's highest position. Additionally, the Supreme Court hinted that it could be losing favour with affirmative action policies during Obama's first year in office. In *Ricci v. DeStefano*, the Court overturned a New Haven, Connecticut, ruling that a fireman exam that promoted too few minorities should be disallowed. The Court continues to limit what it would deem fair in the area of racial preferences while once again avoiding discussing the ultimate validity of affirmative action.

KEYWORDS:

Affirmative, Legislation, Policy Judgement, Social Equity.

INTRODUCTION

The notion that every citizen, regardless of economic means or personal characteristics, deserves and has a right to be treated equally by the political system is known as social equity. Social equity is justice in the provision of public services. It is egalitarianism in action. Despite not always upholding this objective and failing to guarantee equality to all of its male and female citizens throughout its history, the United States has been making progress in that direction. According to political thinker Jean-Jacques Rousseau, "The force of legislation must always tend to maintain equality because the force of circumstances tends always to destroy equality" The use of law in the US to lessen the "force of circumstances" that so often prevent equality is a long-standing practice. For instance, free public schools eventually provided instruction to all classes in the early nineteenth century. Any citizen may purchase 160 acres of public property in 1862 under the Homestead Act provided they agreed to reside there for five years. Alternately, the American Civil War (1861–1865) might be seen as a fight over the nature of intergovernmental relations or as a moral quest to deliver "equality" to people who are held in bonds. Many pieces of legislation were passed throughout the 20th century, granting minorities, women, and labourers greater rights. This has advanced to the point that social fairness is now a key factor in determining whether a public policy or programme is desirable, along with efficiency.

Because they serve as the voice of the people, government organisations have a specific responsibility to uphold social justice with both their workers and the general public. Business organisations, on the other hand, stand up for private interests like shareholders. It is often argued that businesses have moral and ethical duties to contribute to society's well-being, obligations that go well beyond just pursuing lawful profits. However, some people have claimed that governments, not corporations, should be in charge of solving social issues and that managers who spend money trying to solve social issues are being irresponsible. One such person is economist Milton Friedman [1], [2].

Mandating Social Equity

Government has a long history of requiring private companies to treat their workers better. Social Darwinism, a theory of biological evolution developed by Charles Darwin hindered better treatment. Darwin's theories of "natural selection" and "survival of the fittest" were extended to society as a whole by American social Darwinism. Thus, actions like child labor—the employment of kids in ways that are bad for their health and social growth—were justified. The labour movement and social reformers have been working to stop child labour in the workplace since at least the eighteenth century. Connecticut and Massachusetts passed laws limiting children's workdays to 10 hours as early as 1842. Pennsylvania set a 12-year-old minimum working age for manufacturing occupations in 1848. However, it would take another 20 years for any state to have inspectors to carry out child labour regulations. And it wouldn't be until the late 1930s that federal regulations (namely the Fair Labour Standards Act of 1938) would criminalise child labour. The practise was so pervasive that past federal efforts to abolish it were seen by the Supreme Court as unconstitutional intrusions on state authority to control working conditions. Therefore, obtaining social fairness for children was a long-term struggle due in large part to the social Darwinist theory that only "fit" children would survive and that this was all a natural part of "natural selection."

One instance of how government regulation has been utilised to promote social fairness is child labour. The goal of the post-World War II civil rights movement, as well as the labour and women's movements that started in the eighteenth century, was to equalise the job and social possibilities for union members, women, and members of underrepresented groups. These governmental policies are always being adjusted. Sexual harassment, a kind of sexual discrimination, is the subject of the Supreme Court decisions covered in the Appendix. Future decisions cannot be predicted, but it seems certain that the Court will continue to rule on the issue long into this century. Social fairness is a goal that will never be attained. Legislation aims to address egregious abuses, but the courts are left to handle the finer points.

The New Public Administration

Serious concerns about the status of the public administration discipline and profession had been voiced by the late 1960s. In response to his observation that public administration was "in a time of revolution," Dwight Waldo organised a conference for young academics in the field under the sponsorship of Public Administration Review and with funding from Syracuse University's Maxwell School. The Minnowbrook Conference, held in 1968 at Syracuse University, generated papers that were compiled by Frank Marini, managing editor of Public Administration Review at the time, and published in 1971 as *Towards a New Public Administration: The Minnowbrook Perspective*. The purpose of the gathering was to determine what was important to public administration and how the field needed to adapt to the problems facing it in the 1970s.

In his work "Towards a New Public Administration," University of Kansas professor H. George Frederickson advocated for social justice in the performance and provision of public services. To replace the conventional, impersonal, neutral bureaucrat, Frederickson's new public administration called for a proactive administrator with a burning passion for social equality. Few people responded to this appeal, but it was widely publicised. The main issue with the new public administration's demand for social fairness was that it also called for insubordination, which is not something that bureaucracies take lightly. Without Sympathy or Enthusiasm, written by Victor Thompson, instantly criticised the new public administration movement as an attempt by extreme leftists to "steal the popular sovereignty."

Thompson didn't need to be concerned. These so-called "radicals" just spoke and wrote. They have published an endless stream of conference papers and academic articles from the 1970s to the present, all under the direction of Frederickson, urging public administrators to be more sensitive to the forces of change, client needs, and the issue of social equity in service delivery. This has been advantageous. Impact in that public institutions are now more concerned with how managers handle people ethically and fairly. After 25 years, the new public administration has prevailed, aided by shifting public perceptions, the reinventing government movement, and civil rights legislation. Nowadays, it would be absurd (and unlawful) to refuse someone welfare assistance or a job chance based on their ethnicity or sex, for example. Today, managers of all ages need to manage social equality instead of young revolutionaries fighting for it [3], [4].

DISCUSSION

All men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights," read the Declaration of Independence in 1776. These are natural law-derived rights that belong to everyone and cannot be transferred or taken away. However, a sizable portion of inhabitants were denied these rights by the Declaration and the ensuing Constitution. Associate Justice Thurgood Marshall of the Supreme Court vehemently disagreed with the notion that Americans should celebrate the Constitution as the foundation of everything that is good in the country since the Constitution was originally blind to the misery of African-Americans. Instead, he claimed that the founders' "government they devised was defective from the start, requiring several amendments, a civil war, and momentous social transformation to attain the system of constitutional government, and its respect for individual liberties and human rights, we hold as fundamental today" Despite Marshall's strong language, the topic of race must always come first in any debate about equality in the US.

Racism

A big group of individuals having similar traits that are thought to be passed down genetically is referred to as a race. The right inclusion of some traits has been a point of contention. The more subtle facets of emotions and aptitudes are included as well as physically visible traits like the hue of one's eyes, skin, and hair. Even certain races are genetically predisposed to specific illnesses or physical conditions. All rational individuals find it difficult to discuss race in public. It might be risky to bring up historical injustices in polite discourse since there is a depth of passion behind them. However, no topic is more crucial to managing a multiracial society's public affairs. Even if the problems cannot be fixed right now, they must be addressed and discussed.

In order to identify between different national groupings, race was utilised up to the middle of the 20th century. This custom may be traced back to linguistic differences made between individuals in the seventeenth century. It evolved into a strategy for trying to categorise races, with the so-called Anglo-Saxons at the top and others organised along purported lines of progression. Race has recently come to refer to concerns or attitudes involving people of African descent in American politics. We refer to other ethnic minorities as ethnics. The phrase originally solely referred to people of European descent. Now, the phrase is more likely to relate to the new ethnic groups, both those who have been here for some time and those who have just arrived, such as Hispanics and Vietnamese. In theory, every American, with the exception of white Anglo-Saxon Protestants, belongs to an ethnic group. And because they are now the minority, many of them have started to assert that they belong to an ethnic group as well. When a politician tells his Irish voters that he supports a united Ireland, his

Jewish constituents that he supports a strong state of Israel, and his Hispanic constituents that he strongly supports bilingual education, it might be stated that he is engaging in ethnic politics. It is not necessary for ethnic politics to be significant; sometimes it is only a "photo opportunity" for the politician to consume ethnic cuisine or attend an ethnic cultural event or wedding. Those who intentionally or unintentionally discriminate against someone based on their race (or ethnicity) or who advocate for the superiority of one race over another are considered racists. The Ku Klux Klan (KKK) has been the most prominent racist organisation in American history. However, it is also possible to be a racist if you are oblivious to the concerns of racial minorities and employ racially inappropriate language or diction. Even if they may claim they are not racist, aggrieved minority groups may nevertheless see them as such. This is particularly true with so-called stealth racism, which is when white people seldom notice racist activities that are plainly obvious to African-Americans.

Rich, middle-class non-White people often face discrimination in restaurants and airports, are subject to increased monitoring at retail locations, struggle to secure taxi service, and are thought to be violent. Such disrespect and insults to honor are difficult for the law to address. Equal access was required by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 for pricey hotels and eateries. However, it still stings when a black customer in a tuxedo is misidentified as a waiter or a valet parking staff. That is covert racism. African-Americans are different from other ethnic Americans not so much because of their skin color many other groups are nonwhite but because their ancestors entered the country as slaves rather than the "huddled masses yearning to breathe free," as it is written on the pedestal of the Statue of Liberty. And even now, slavery has had a distinctive impact on the lives of African Americans [5], [6].

Equal Employment Opportunity

The term "equal employment opportunity" (EEO) carries with it complex political, cultural, and psychological connotations. It generally refers to a set of employment policies and practises that effectively stop anyone from being unfairly denied employment opportunities on the basis of their race, colour, sex, religion, age, national origin, or other characteristics that are illegal to take into account when hiring people. The aim of EEO is an employment system free from both deliberate and inadvertent discrimination, however due to the definitional issue, reaching this ideal may be politically impossible. Equal opportunity for one individual could mean institutionalised racism or institutionalised sexism for another. Due to this definitional issue, only the courts have been able to determine when, when, and where EEO occurs. However, it must always be kept in mind that EEO laws and programmes were developed to address very genuine issues of sexism and prejudice, issues that still exist today. Discrimination is the phrase that best describes workplace intolerance of individuals who are different. This is the failing to treat equals fairly in the workplace. Any action that has the effect of restricting job and development possibilities due to a person's sex, race, colour, age, national origin, religion, physical disability, or other irrelevant characteristics is discrimination—and it's prohibited, whether it was done on purpose or not [7],[8].

Reverse Discrimination

Reverse discrimination is a term used to describe the practise of treating women and minorities more favourably while discriminating against white males. The act was not protected by civil rights legislation. The Civil Rights Act of 1964's law VII specifically prohibits employers from "granting preferential treatment to any individual or group on the basis of race, colour, religion, sex, or national origin," according to Section 703(j) of that law. However, programmes that promote affirmative action inevitably disadvantage certain white men who wouldn't have otherwise. When affirmative action measures collide with more

traditional rules that provide preferential treatment based on seniority, test scores, and other factors, reverse discrimination is often most acutely felt. When the US Supreme Court affirmed an affirmative action programme that promoted a woman over a male who was objectively better competent in *Johnson v. Santa Clara County* (1987), the practise of reverse discrimination was finally granted legal footing. Critics said that since the Court for the first time recognised and granted legal standing to reverse prejudice, this rendered the provision of Title VII that there be no "preferential treatment" upside down. Paul Johnson was not directly hurt, hence this was not unlawful sexism. He "had no absolute entitlement to the road dispatcher position," the court reasoned. The Agency Director was given the go-ahead to promote any one of the seven candidates after seven of the applicants were determined to be qualified and eligible. As a result, [Johnson] had no valid, deeply held expectations that the promotion would be denied. Johnson stayed working with the same pay and seniority and was still qualified for additional promotions even though he was refused a promotion.

In American politics, race has long been a contentious subject. However, until a tidal shift in public opinion started to occur in 1990, affirmative action measures were tolerated, if not really supported, by the majority of the population. In order to defeat Charlotte's black mayor Harvey Gantt in the last week of the race, Republican Senator Jesse Helms of North Carolina utilised a well-known television advertisement. "You needed that job, and you were the best qualified," a voice said over a pair of white hands scrunching up a job rejection letter. "But it had to go to a minority because of a racial quota." Helms then won reelection despite having a significant deficit in the polls. A wedge issue, affirmative action divides individuals. The Republicans have been quite clever in their use of the wedge since the 1980s.

They said that the Democratic Party fought for preferential treatment for minorities. Much of the credit for swaying typically Democratic blue-collar people to the Republican side should go to this wedge. Affirmative action is now seen by the public with conflicting feelings. When Barack Obama was elected in 2009, surveys showed that affirmative action had stopped being supported by whites. A 2009 Quinnipiac University survey found that 64% of white people were against it. 53 percent of the population backed affirmative action programmes in hiring, promoting, and college admissions, according to more recent polls by Pew and the media, compared to 38 percent who opposed them. There was a noticeable racial divide. Affirmative action programmes were supported by 75% of African-Americans and 46% of whites. Affirmative action improved diversity, according to 63 percent of those in favour, while 24 percent felt it was done to make up for prior prejudice.

Another possibility is that some people reject affirmative action, which is sometimes known as reverse discrimination. True, racism's tenet is that affirmative action should not be supported. However, a lot of those who are against it are not racist; rather, they merely think that the current EEO programme does not advance equality, that it will eventually be ruled to be unconstitutional, and that while it was once necessary to launch black Americans into the mainstream of the economy, it now, on the whole, causes more harm than good. However, there is more support than resistance for affirmative action in the field of education. According to the Pew study, Americans believe affirmative action policies intended to enhance the number of black and minority students attending colleges are "good things" by a margin of around two to one (63 percent to 30 percent). This amount of support remained constant from the 2003 poll. And once again, there is a racial and political difference hidden behind those aggregate figures. Although the majority of white people, or 55 percent, favour affirmative action programmes on college campuses, only 84 percent of black people and 80 percent of Hispanics agree. Numerous legal challenges and voter-approved measures (and even judicial challenges challenging those laws) to outlaw the use of racial advantages in

education have been brought about by the use of affirmative action programmes in college admissions [9],[10].

Justifying Diversity

Affirmative action, which is essentially reverse discrimination, was justified legally as a way to address historical discriminatory practises. But how can you defend the continued use of such therapies when the behaviours they were meant to address are so long gone? In two instances involving the University of Michigan in 2003, the Supreme Court was presented with this issue. The court ruled that minority candidates may still get benefits while applying to the. However, the reason for these privileges was not to end current discriminatory practises, but rather to increase diversity for its own sake. The Constitution "does not prohibit the law school's narrowly tailored use of race in admissions decisions to further a compelling interest in obtaining the educational benefits that flow from a diverse student body," according to the majority judgement authored by Justice Sandra Day O'Connor. By a vote of 5 to 4, the Supreme Court ruled that "effective participation in civic life by members of all racial and ethnic groups is essential if the dream of one nation, indivisible, is to be realised." In the 1978 Bakke judgement, Justice Lewis F. Powell had first defended the diversity justification. That is Justice Powell's "view that student body diversity is a compelling state interest that can justify the use of race in university admissions" was supported by the Court in a 2003 decision.

However, the Court has argued that even after adopting diversity as a "compelling state interest," this interest, no matter how "compelling," must be transitory since such compliance runs counter to the Fourteenth Amendment's need for equal treatment. Justice O'Connor said in an unusually overt plea to the Supreme Court, "Race-conscious admissions practises must be restricted in time. This condition reflects the fact that, notwithstanding the compelling nature of their objectives, racial categories may only be used to the extent that the public interest requires. This basic equal protection principle would be violated by permanently enshrining a basis for racial favouritism. "All governmental use of race must have a logical end point," she said in her conclusion. She then gave the conclusion in rather precise terms, saying, "We expect that 25 years from now, the use of racial preferences will no longer be necessary to further the interest approved today.

Therefore, the Court decided that racial preferences for diversity's sake may last another 25 years, but it did not provide any specific standards for when they should expire. Justice Antonin Scalia said in a very harsh dissenting opinion that the "mystical "critical mass" justification" for racial favours "challenges even the most gullible mind." The phrase "critical mass" refers to the often stated "fact" that substantial representation of minorities is necessary in schools for the benefit of all students. The five judges who endorsed O'Connor's majority decision seem to be among the "gullible minds" in the phrase. In his dissenting opinion in Grutter v. Bollinger (2003), Justice Scalia noted that academics who are among the most vocal supporters of diversity tolerate "tribalism and racial segregation" on their own campuses, including "minority-only student organisations, separate minority housing opportunities, separate minority student centres, even separate minority-only graduation ceremonies." In Gratz v. Bollinger, a related case regarding the undergraduate admissions procedure at the University of Michigan, the Court determined that a point system that automatically gave black students an enormous advantage in admissions was unconstitutional. Although not in such a "nonindividualized, mechanical" sense, race may nevertheless be considered. Therefore, affirmative action/reverse discrimination admissions (and employment) programmes may continue in their current form, provided that no concrete figures that have the appearance, feel, or sound of quotas are associated with them.

Justice O'Connor anticipated a "highly individualised, holistic review of each applicant's file." One of the variables is race. The Court has essentially told those who are upset that race is even a consideration (because they think the Constitution should be color-blind) to "just wait 25 years." observing the decisions. In reaction to the court's previous ruling regarding law schools, Michigan voters in 2006 approved Proposition 2, a referendum, by a margin of 58 percent to 42 percent, outlawing the use of racial favours. An appeal of this new statute was made, but a lower court declared the prohibition to be unconstitutional. However, the Supreme Court affirmed the Michigan Constitution's prohibition on affirmative action as valid in 2014. According to Justice Anthony Kennedy, "[t]here is no the Judiciary to overturn Michigan legislation that entrust this policy judgement to the voters under the United States Constitution or the rulings of this Court."

Affirmative action was no longer considered essential in the United States after Barack Obama was elected president in 2009. After all, it was reasonable to suppose that things had changed for the better if an African-American could be elected to the nation's highest position. Additionally, the Supreme Court hinted that it could be losing favour with affirmative action policies during Obama's first year in office. In *Ricci v. DeStefano* (2009), the Court overturned a New Haven, Connecticut, ruling that a fireman exam that promoted too few minorities should be disallowed. The Court continues to limit what it would deem fair in the area of racial preferences while once again avoiding discussing the ultimate validity of affirmative action.

Public Administration and Social Equity

It goes without saying that all public officials have a responsibility to promote social fairness. However, there are various honourable and appropriate ways to understand this duty. The first need is that they must fairly enforce the laws they are responsible for. Today, it is difficult to imagine how contentious this first commitment previously was. Minorities and women were often denied equal treatment prior to the enactment of the 1960s civil rights laws, particularly the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. For instance, none of the two female justices of the US Supreme Court, Sandra Day O'Connor and Ruth Bader Ginsberg, was able to get a position at a top legal firm after graduating from law school. Today, all sizable companies in both the public and commercial sectors are required by law to provide equal employment opportunities, and they risk legal repercussions if they don't.

CONCLUSION

It is egalitarianism in action the idea that every person has a right to receive equal treatment from the democratic system that social equity is defined as justice in the provision of public services. Governmental organisations have a specific responsibility to uphold fairness since they serve as the voice of the populace. The roots of African-American claims to preferential treatment may be found in the history of slavery in the United States, which is still relevant today. The idea of equal work opportunity, which was developed to lessen the legacy of slavery, has complex political, cultural, and emotional implications. It generally pertains to workplace policies that forbid someone from being unfairly excluded from job prospects because of their race, colour, sex, religion, age, sexual orientation, or national origin. The issue with equal employment opportunity policies is that they force the government to do ancestry checks on individuals. Equal rights are supported by well-intentioned opponents of affirmative action, which is the strategy to attain EEO. They contend that in addition to being intrinsically unfair, racial and sexual employment preferences are also against the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which forbids discrimination against anybody.

The topic of affirmative action has evolved into a contentious one that divides individuals. The Republicans have been quite clever in leveraging this issue since the 1980s to portray the Democratic Party as the supporter of special rights for minorities.

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CHAPTER 11

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF PUBLIC FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

In a situation known as deficit financing, a government's excess spending above income for a certain period is funded mostly by borrowing from the general population. Politicians often think that borrowing is more favorable politically than tax increases. Most people are not aware of borrowing. If the projects it creates are excellent, politicians see it as a straightforward method of "buying" votes, especially because the proverbial "chickens" won't come home to roost until the following administration. In most cases, general taxation is used to pay for public services. The federal tax system and state-local tax systems function quite differently. The federal system, which gets more than two thirds of its basic revenue from the federal income tax and other insurance trust funds, has seen less unpredictability. In contrast, a greater variety of funding sources, such as user fees, lotteries, property taxes, income taxes, sales taxes, and federal subsidies, are used by state and local revenue systems. With a few notable exceptions, state governments continue to primarily rely on the state personal income tax, while municipal governments continue to do the same.

KEYWORDS:

Federal Tax System, Municipal, Public Financial Management, Representatives.

INTRODUCTION

The management and flow of money is essential to the operation of our public administration system. No strategy, no matter how farsighted, and no administrative performance system, no matter how well designed, can work unless it is linked to the financial flow that will enable it. The public financial management system is built upon long-ago ideas and changes, much like other aspects of the history of public administration that have been discussed so far. Administrators must comprehend how the system was created, what it is meant to accomplish, what it can do, and most importantly, what it cannot do. Many parts of the architecture of the American system of public financial management date back to our oldest political traditions and pacts to the thoughts of the founders at the Constitutional Convention. This is true of both the governmental apparatus and the system of intergovernmental relations. Others, like the welfare state concept, have only been around for a few generations. Other concepts, like the idea of "user fees," are reaching their peak.

Six Principles

The founding fathers of America laid the foundation for this nation's system of public financial management with the Boston Tea Party in 1773 when they threw tea shipments into Boston Harbor rather than paying fair taxes to England on them. When they yelled their catchphrase, "No taxation without representation," they were also stating a fundamental value a design tenet for the nation's upcoming public financial management system. Taxation and public expenditure must be approved by vote; this is the democratic seal of approval. Most governments had not run in this manner up until that point. States and tyrants have imposed and collected taxes as a means of exercising their authority. The money was thereafter theirs

to keep or use as they pleased. Democratic agreement to these matters was fundamentally included by the American founders. Because the House of Representatives is the legislative body that responds to public opinion the best, the Constitution mandates that all tax legislation must originate there[1], [2].

The following six concepts form the foundation of the American system of public financial management:

1. Democratic consent: Taxation and expenditure should never be carried out without the people being governed's express assent.
2. Equity: When generating and allocating tax revenue, governments should be fair.
3. Transparency: Public scrutiny and awareness of how governments raise and use money is a must.
4. Integrity: When handling public finances, of which lawmakers and administrators are stewards rather than owners, there must be absolute integrity.
5. Prudence: These stewards shouldn't gamble with public cash recklessly.
6. Accountability: Through legislative review and audit procedures, those who handle public monies may and should routinely be held to account for their stewardship.

Although these normative standards are "shoulds," they are much too often broken in reality. Misuse of public financial management is possible. When governance is carried out in secrecy, democratic consent is absent. Pork barrel favouritism towards certain locations, customers, or groups often takes the place of concerns for equality. The innate caution so crucial to the administration of public finances is lost in the absence of openness, probity, and caution. Therefore, via reckless investments or carelessness, governments might suffer significant losses[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

The most crucial decision-making process in public entities is budgeting. The most significant reference document for a jurisdiction is also the budget itself. Budgets document policy decision results, list policy priorities and programme goals, and outline a government's overall service effort in its increasingly lengthy forms. A public budget comprises four fundamental components. It is a political tool that divides up limited public resources among the region's social and economic requirements. Second, a budget is a managerial or administrative tool that outlines how public programmes and services will be provided, establishes their costs and the standards by which they will be assessed for efficiency and effectiveness, and guarantees that the programmes will be reviewed or evaluated at least once over the course of the budget year or budget cycle. Third, a budget is a tool for managing the economy that may guide the development and improvement of a region. Government budgets are undoubtedly the main tools for redistributing income at the national level—and to a lesser degree at the state and regional levels. Encouraging full employment, preventing inflation, and preserving economic stability are all objectives. Fourth, a budget is an accounting tool that keeps elected officials accountable for how they spend the money they have been given. Governments are also held collectively responsible by their budgets. The idea of a budget itself indicates that there is a cap on expenditure or a spending cap that, in practice, forces governments to operate within their means[5], [6].

The Taft Commission

America's public financial management procedures lacked overarching goals before 1900. An appropriate allocation by Congress was motivated by a specific necessity, such as funding a war, building a road, or covering civil service and military compensation expenses.

Budgetary reform was demanded in the 20th century as a result of the size and complexity of government expanding. The Taft Commission suggested a national budgeting system in 1912. Described the events that were paving the way for state governments to use modern budgeting procedures. According to Willoughby's argument in *The Movement towards Budgetary Reform in the States*, budget reform would focus on three main areas: how budgets would advance and ensure popular control, how budgets would improve cooperation between the legislative and executive branches, and how budgets would guarantee efficiency in administration and management.

When you consider the subjects of some of our daily headlines, such as taxpayer uprisings, "Proposition 13" movements, and other types of revenue and expenditure restrictions laws ; ongoing disputes between the executive and legislative branches over budgetary control, deficits, and balanced budgets ; and the efficiency, or lack thereof, in overburdened budgeting systems in maintaining programmes; this is rather prophetic. The General Accounting Office and the Bureau of the Budget, which are in charge of budgeting and auditing, respectively, were established after the Budget and Accounting Act was approved in 1921. Budgets made up of "line items" that allocated money to specific categories of expenditures in each department at first kept budgeting and compliance processes simple—so much for wages, furniture, paper, and other expenses. The auditing procedure was similarly straightforward, focusing on the assessment of the degree to which expenditures had been in conformity with the reasons for which monies had been provided.

The 1930s witnessed the introduction of ever more expensive domestic government programmes. Budgeting subsequently gained in significance. Budgetary theory, which explains how to distribute resources to the government in a sensible manner, was grossly deficient. Process and line-item budgeting, which prioritise responsibility and control, were emphasised. Performance budgeting, or assigning cash for groups of activities, was becoming more sophisticated and popular as a suitable management-oriented budgetary procedure. Performance budgeting placed an emphasis on work measurement, much like scientific management. However, there is still little connection between the budgeting process and logical decision-making. Making. V. O. Key Jr. lamented the absence of a budgeting theory in a 1940 piece. He raised what is now widely recognised as the fundamental issue of budgeting, "On what basis shall it be decided to allocate X dollars to activity A instead of activity B?" since he was very worried about the overemphasis on mechanics. Key continued by going into further detail about what he believed to be the main areas of study that needed to be done in order to create a budgeting theory. This would pave the way for the major expansion in government programme size, coupled with ongoing demand for even higher increases.

The Influence of Keynes

John Maynard Keynes, a British economist, demonstrated how government expenditure may be crucial for controlling an economy by boosting demand during times of low resource utilisation and high unemployment. His ideas gave rise to the idea that a country might carry out macroeconomic policy via the use of fiscal policy, which was in some ways the main tool. Whether they acknowledge it or not, every US president since Franklin D. Roosevelt has embraced Keynes' theory to defend deficit spending to boost the economy. Even President Richard M. Nixon said that "We're all Keynesians now." "Practical men, who believe themselves to be quite exempt from any intellectual influences, are usually the slaves of some defunct economist," said Keynes in his *General Theory*. Even more so, when he said that "in the long run we are all dead" he gave the undisputed economic prognosis. Aaron Wildavsky emphasised how much budgeting was a political and economic process rather than

a mechanical one in later versions of *The Politics of the Budgetary Process*. Later, "public choice" economists James M. Buchanan and Gordon Tullock saw government budgeting as a conflict between beneficiaries seeking to seize money for their own purposes. We are today well-served by budgetary theory as opposed to 1940, when it was lacking.

Waves of Innovation in Budget Making

Throughout the twentieth century, several waves of innovation have focused on the structure and style of government budgets. Why is this the case? It's just that a government's budget is the definitive declaration of what it stands for and how much money it spends. The main focus of public administration is the budget. It gives those who mould it a great deal of power. It is of endless interest to the executive, the bureaucracy, and the "budgeteers" because of its enduring power.

The Executive Budget

The idea that there could be a government budget at all a single document bringing together the income, spending, and financing plans of government was really the first conceptual advancement in budgeting. Budgeting in representative governments was unquestionably a legislative, not an executive, responsibility up to the 20th century. Without taking into account the needs of other government agencies, Congressional or state legislative committees would allot cash for a particular agency. Without comprehensive coordination, there was a lot of uncertainty and room for both corruption and ineptitude. The Budget and Accounting Act of 1921 marked the federal government's adoption of the executive budget movement that had started in the states. Except for South Carolina, all state governments now employ some variant of the executive budget.

An executive budget is a tangible document and a technological procedure. The first step in the process is the preparation and submission of agency requests for appropriations to a budget bureau under the chief executive for review, modification, and consolidation into a single budget document that can be compared to anticipated revenues and executive priorities before being submitted to the legislature. The complete budget paper for an executive arm of government thus becomes a concrete document. Government that the head of a state or territory proposes to the legislature for approval, amendment, and enactment. The executive budget for a certain fiscal year that the president transmits to Congress in compliance with the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921, as modified, is known as the president's budget.

The estimates for the judicial and legislative branches of government, for example, must be included in the budget even if they have not been reviewed by the Office of Management and Budget or given the president's approval. After all, the president is unable to influence the other arms of government's finances. It is just handy to include the overall document's relatively tiny budget for the other branches. The president's budget is essentially his "wish list" for Congress. The instant the budget is officially delivered to the Hill, it is "dead on arrival" since Congress invariably makes significant revisions. State governors must take into account the same factors.

A state governor's executive budget is what is known as a governor's budget. However, not all of the national budget is available for public review. The classified section of the government budget, known as the "black budget," is where critical military and covert initiatives are hidden. The dark budget "is a challenge to the open government promised by the Constitution," writes writer Tim Weiner in *Blank Check*. Nearly a quarter of the Pentagon's budget for new weapons is now hidden in the shadows. Every dollar spent in secret goes against the Framers' intention that the government's balance sheet should be made public.

Line-Item Budgeting

The initial budget model was a line-item budget, where each cost was represented by a physical line in a ledger book. It categorised financial accounts according to specific, granular items of spending utilised inside each specific government agency, often without consideration to the overall goal or aim achieved by the expenditure. It served as a helpful log of expenses and the standards by which auditors may assess compliance. There is still a lot of usage for line-item budgets. The majority of local governments either utilise it as their fundamental budget structure or as an addition to more complex forms. Legislators interested in fine-tuning executive budget proposals are especially attracted to it since it provides such thorough data on projected spending, allowing for better control and scrutiny. The conventional line-item budget was a fantastic advancement, but it had a significant flaw. It may enable the evaluation of whether money was used for the intended reasons for which it had been allotted, which was a crucial criteria. However, it made no mention of how effectively these funds had been used or if they had produced value for money [7], [8].

Program Budgeting versus Incrementalism

Performance budgeting was closely followed by the subsequent wave of budgetary reform, which mostly addressed its shortcomings. David Novick, an economist with the RAND Corporation in California, proposed "programme budgeting" in 1954. This method of budgeting would allow for a comprehensive understanding of expenditure purposes, would group spending into "programmes," and would thus lay the groundwork for a focus on effectiveness because it would be easier to see the total resources allocated to any purpose. The phrase "the sum of the steps or interdependent activities which enter into the attainment of a specified objective" was used by Novick to describe a programme. The fragmentation issue that plagues line-item and performance budgeting would be solved if a budget were made up of sizable expenditure categories, referred to as programmes, that were focused on certain goals. Monitoring of compliance could still be done, but it would also be easier to measure efficacy and efficiency. The budget would also change from being largely a tool for administration and control to one that supported planning and the meaningful comparison of alternative spending at various levels of aggregation.

These were significant conceptual advances. The RAND Corporation's team that created programme budgeting had an ambitious agenda since they suggested not just a new budget structure but also a new framework for the study of policy and the evaluation of achievement. They suggested planning-programming budgeting rather than simply programme budgeting. This was a connected system with features of ahead planning, which they called "the analytical comparison of alternatives," resource allocation within a multiyear cycle, and budgeting tied to big programme groupings rather than individual items. PPBS was the "package"'s moniker, and its goal was "to create a new environment of choice." The paper was now about "Where do we want to go?" rather than "Where are we now?" It seemed that the theorists were finally making a contribution that had the potential to fundamentally alter government planning, budgeting, and resource allocation.

The planning, programming, and budgeting system, which predominated budgeting in the 1960s. It was first implemented in the Defence Department during the Kennedy administration, and it seemed to be the pinnacle of budgetary sanity. According to Schick, the stages of budget reform included the development of budgetary theory, which stressed objectives, planning, and programme effectiveness. This theory was characterised by concerns for accountability and control, which were the defining characteristics of the line-item budget. Lyndon Johnson required all federal departments to utilise PPBS in 1965.

Perhaps the peak of the management systems approach to public administration was reached with the implementation of PPBS, which required among other things that agencies detail programme objectives and indicators for evaluation, make five-year expenditure forecasts, and produce numerous special cost-benefit analyses and zero-based reviews of programme activities. The widespread implementation of PPBS failed rapidly because it was implemented hurriedly with inadequate time for comprehension, training, and development. As a result, cynics and incrementalists have been able to criticise national efforts and indiscriminate planning for many years.

PPBS has always had detractors. The *Politics of the Budgetary Process*, Aaron M. Wildavsky's widely acclaimed assessment of how budgeting was really an incremental process significantly impacted by political concerns, was published in 1964. A budget review technique called incremental budgeting focuses on little increases or decreases in the budgets of ongoing programmes. The more logical, systems-focused techniques, such as PPBS or zero-based budgeting, are in opposition to incremental budgeting, sometimes known as conventional budgeting. But because this traditional method effectively accounts for the intrinsically political aspect of the budgetary process, legislative appropriations committees will continue to favour it, if not budget theorists.

According to Wildavsky, "the biggest determining factor of the size and content of this year's budget is last year's budget." Wildavsky published a damning assessment of PPBS in 1969. In addition to declaring unequivocally that he believed PPBS was untenable, Wildavsky showed how the planning and analytical features of PPBS ran counter to the fundamental purpose of budgeting. By the end of the decade, what had formerly been required of all federal agencies and had been extensively adopted by state and local governments had been formally "un"-adopted by the federal government and was largely seen as being useless in its original form. The PPBS still has a significant impact on budgets, however. However, if it is still in use, it usually exists in a hybrid form rather than a pure one.

Charles Lindblom was a major influence on Wildavsky, who eventually founded and served as the first dean of the Graduate School of Public Policy at the University of California, Berkeley. Wildavsky studied under Lindblom while pursuing his doctorate at Yale. The opposing school of thought to the management systems focus was incremental budgeting methods, or what would subsequently be referred to as "traditional budgeting." The main argument of incrementalists was that budgets are fundamentally political and therefore researching budgeting and budgets is beneficial because it reveals how and what decisions have been made. Even V. O. Key's famous question, "On what basis shall it be decided to allocate X dollars to activity A instead of activity B?" was rejected by Wildavsky as being irrelevant and unanswerable. It was important that the budgeting process aid in reaching agreement on programme and policy goals and simplify decision-making [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The most crucial decision-making process in public entities is budgeting. The most significant reference document for a jurisdiction is also the budget itself. Budgets document policy decision results, list policy priorities and programme goals, and outline a government's overall service effort in its increasingly lengthy forms. Budgets may be divided into two categories. The most typical is the operational budget, which is a short-term strategy for controlling the assets required to implement a programme. An executive budget is a tangible document and a technological procedure. The first aspect of it is the method through which agency requests for appropriations are created and sent to a central budget office for evaluation, modification, and consolidation. The comprehensive budget for the executive arm

of government is then presented to the legislature by the chief executive of a jurisdiction for evaluation, amendment, and passage. Fiscal policy, monetary policy, and other aspects of public policy with economic implications, such as energy policy, farm policy, and labor union policy, are the three main components of economic policy, the process by which a country manages its trade, business, and finances. Fiscal policy deals with the sizes of budgets, deficits, and taxes whereas monetary policy primarily controls the amount and cost of money and credit in the economy.

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CHAPTER 12

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON PROGRAM AUDIT AND EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT:

The supervision function of organizations depends heavily on audit and assessment. There are similarities between the two professions, which has prompted some to demand for "enhanced oversight" via closer cooperation. According to our experience, joint evaluations may provide a comprehensive, three-dimensional perspective of performance. Before further convergence of the functions is accepted, there must be consideration of concrete distinctions in paradigm and method. Various economic sectors have a lot of unrealized potential for increased energy efficiency. The most popular strategy for closing the energy efficiency gap is government-sponsored industrial energy audit programmes that provide financial incentives to businesses to undergo energy audits. A successful energy audit policy programme has been the subject of evaluation studies to learn more. The assessments were conducted in various ways, with an emphasis on various performance indicators and various methods of data classification. Five assessment studies from various energy audit programmes have been analysed in this article's literature review, which also discusses the issues with the programmes' current incomparability owing to discrepancies. The policy relevance of this article is that future energy audit policy programmes must differentiate between a standardised method of categorising data with respect to both energy efficiency measures and energy end-use. Additionally, a criteria for evaluating energy audit policy programmes is proposed. According to the study's findings, crucial components like the free-rider impact and standardised energy end-use data have to be established and taken into account in assessment studies.

KEYWORDS:

Audit and Assessment, Administrators, Anticipate, Supervision.

INTRODUCTION

An audit always implies a comparison to a standard. Administrators anticipate that their work will be evaluated in comparison to that of other administrators who have similar duties. Additionally, financial statements are audited to see whether they comply with widely accepted accounting principles. Making a critical, evaluative judgement by comparing anything to a good example is the core of auditing. Virtually all contemporary organisations, from a neighbourhood tennis club to the US government, employ auditors whose primary duty is to attest to the accuracy of the organization's financial records. With intricate professional standards and guidelines for admission, practise, and reporting, auditing has grown to be a significant sector of the accounting field. Price Waterhouse is one of the major accounting companies that is well-known across the developed world. They are large, sophisticated global organisations in and of themselves. All official financial reports of large enterprises include the audit certificates of these companies. This impartial review of organisations' financial statements aims to demonstrate that they adhere to both national accounting standards and the legislation. For top management, boards of directors, and investors to make confident decisions, these depictions of an organization's financial situation are necessary [1], [2].

Multiple Applications

Audit keeps changing. Beyond its conventional usage for financial reports, the word now has many other uses. Therefore, a management audit or a performance or efficiency audit might be conducted. A management audit is an impartial analysis of the management posture. A single organization's internal audit may attempt to incorporate aspects of the management audit, efficiency audit, and financial audit. Often, the phrase "comprehensive audit" is used to describe such worldwide goals.

The idea of independent audit has expanded beyond only management and financial concerns. The term "audit" may also refer to a wide variety of different independent evaluations. For instance, an environmental audit may look at whether environmental laws and good environmental practises are being followed. An energy audit may aim to objectively evaluate how much energy is used or wasted by a company. Audits of the water supply or telecommunications systems may help a person or business save money on utility costs. Additionally, a social audit may evaluate social problems in the context of an organisation. The emphasis on the recent past and the present is a feature of all audit procedures. A social impact statement or an environmental impact statement is the term used to describe an analysis of the social or environmental implications of a proposed action, such as building a new airport or motorway. Although it is often feasible to analyse or forecast future repercussions, logically we cannot audit something that has not yet occurred.

An organization's own personnel or outside auditors from a public accounting company may independently examine or audit the organization's finances or performance either internally or externally. The government's independent audit division, such as the comptroller general's office, might be the outsiders in this case. Both internal and external auditors often conduct audits of large organisations. An internal audit group that is separate from line management and with a reporting line high enough in the organisation, may try to swiftly provide management unbiased advice so that issues may be found and fixed before they worsen. The external auditor not only originates from outside, but often also makes reports to elected officials, shareholders, or whomever is ultimately in charge of an organization's future. An effective internal audit unit may often streamline processes and set the stage for faster, more targeted work by external auditors. However, for a big and complicated organisation, neither internal nor external auditors are likely to be sufficient especially in the public sector where accountability is very vital [3], [4].

A History of Auditing

Government auditing has a long history. There are reports of auditing activities at Athens in the fourth century bc and China in the eleventh century bc. However, the actual development of modern audits in government occurred in the nineteenth century, when the expansion of public sector operations necessitated an independent and impartial evaluation of financial management. The possibilities for corruption were almost endless in the nineteenth century due to the massive amounts of money that were travelling throughout international empires. In this situation, it was financially logical to establish powerful government audit units with obvious connections to the highest levels of government. In 1857, the Office of Comptroller-General was established in Great Britain. In order to compel access to accounts and the revelation of information, it had independent ties to a Parliamentary Committee of Public Accounts and solid legislative support. In 1921, the US General Accounting Office was founded. It is a department of Congress that directly reports to Congress. The comptroller general of the United States serves as its director. But before this, there were several previous instances of government audit in the US. Early in the 20th century, the progressive reform

movement fought and frequently won for state and municipal governments to establish an appointed civil service commission to prevent patronage abuses and an elected controller/comptroller whose role it was to prevent financial abuses. The development of esteemed and largely independent national audit organisations like the Comptroller and Auditor-General in the United Kingdom and the General Accounting Office in the United States aids in the audit function's ability to stand above corruption and apart from the current political administration. Particularly when some of the audit office's conclusions prove to be disagreeable to the governing administration, the stature and reputation of the person in command of the office may be significant in personifying the integrity and credibility of the agency.

The Government Accountability Office

Most people now believe that the president is in charge of overseeing the federal bureaucracy's performance and accountability. That was most definitely not the case in the nineteenth century, when it was believed that Congress was primarily responsible for overseeing the national government. However, Theodore Roosevelt was elected president in 1901, he spearheaded a two-decade-long call for the president to be granted more power. Congress finally approved the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921 after a number of high-level panels backed the idea that the president should be granted major administrative power. By establishing a Bureau of the Budget under the Department of the Treasury, the first half of the legislation conceded to the reformers. This new agency received more employees to carry out ongoing studies of efficiency and was given the authority to create an executive budget. Thus, the Bureau of the Budget had an important managerial function even before it was renamed the Office of Management and Budget in 1970.

However, Congress has a long history of being wary of executive authority. Therefore, the General Accounting Office was established as a congressional support agency to audit federal government spending and help Congress with its legislative oversight obligations in the second part of the act. According to Herbert Emmerich in *Federal Organisation and Administrative Management*, the establishment of these two agencies is "probably the greatest landmark of our administrative history, second only to the Constitution itself," because they have come to be so crucial to the administrative health of the federal government. The comptroller general of the United States, who is chosen by the president with the advice and consent of the Senate for a term of 15 years, is in charge of the GAO, which became the Government Accountability Office formally in 2004.

Initially limited to inspecting financial records to ensure that funds were used appropriately, the GAO expanded the scope of its mandate in the 1960s to encompass overall programme review. Its duties include performing audits of all federal government entities' finances and performance. Yes, this is exactly as it was designed to be. The comptroller general is expressly empowered under the 1921 statute to "make recommendations looking to greater economy or efficiency in public expenditures."

Additionally, the statute mandates that "all departments and establishments" provide "any books, documents, papers, or records" that the comptroller general "or any of his assistants or employees" demands. Congress had this stance with the president even before President Ronald Reagan made the adage "trust but verify" prominent in relation to nuclear weapons deals with the Russians. Consider the GAO to be the "Office of Verification" for the Congress. For the members of Congress, the GAO typically completes around 1,000 key reports every year.

The Government Accountability Office often delivers its data to Congress in written reports that also provide specific recommendations. Consider the first year that the GAO was in existence after changing its name in 2004. The GAO estimates that between 2000 and 2004, the agency produced 2,700 recommendations to enhance government operations, with 83 percent of those recommendations being carried out. However, GAO staff employees testify before congressional committees often, and they also regularly brief lawmakers in formal settings.

Although the topics presented may be related to traditional financial management, reports and briefings often contain important policy problems that Congress may not have known about otherwise. For instance, in fiscal year 2004, the GAO provided Congress with reports on the No Child Left behind Act, Social Security reform, Defence Department procurement, and the employment of private contractors in Iraq. The Defence of Marriage Act, policies on renewable energy, taxes, computers, and flu shots, human resource management, the United Nations Oil for Food programme, and security problems at government institutions. The breadth of these subjects demonstrates how different a contemporary national audit agency is from the kind of quill pen and green eyeshade audit that was formerly the norm. These are genuine adventures in public policy where Uncle Sam, rather than a wealthy widow, is the customer and the auditor is more of a "public" than a "private" investigator.

Financial management is still a major challenge despite the GAO's extensive policy and performance examinations. On the income side, the GAO notes several instances in which government organisations fail to collect the money due. For instance, the GAO discovered in one of its investigations that Medicare contractors were not bothered to collect money due by other insurers and that the Internal Revenue Service is less likely to capture high-income persons who do not file tax returns than lower-income people. On the spending side, GAO continually identifies fresh instances of waste, such as when Stanford University overpaid the Office of Naval Research or when insufficient oversight of Department of Defence subcontractors caused the federal government to lose millions of dollars annually. In all, the GAO estimated that it had saved the government \$35.4 billion in 2003, or \$78 for every dollar spent.

The GAO is the biggest federal agency, with a \$553 million budget and a workforce of 3250 full-time accountants, attorneys, engineers, and other specialists. American auditing organisation. The GAO is enormous in both scope and standing. It serves as a role model for other levels of government due to its widespread exposure and reputation for institutional integrity. Each significant subnational government employs auditors. They vary from a state's elected auditor general to a small school board's hired local accounting company. Since most governors share executive authority with other independently elected officers, such as a secretary of state, treasurer, comptroller, attorney general, or an auditor, most state governments actually operate under a plural executive structure[5], [6].

DISCUSSION

Three different forms of audit should be included in a thorough audit programme, according to the GAO's Standards for Audit of Governmental Organisations, Programmes, Activities, and Functions:

1. **Financial and compliance:** Ascertains whether an audited entity's financial statements accurately reflect its financial position and the results of its financial operations in accordance with generally accepted accounting principles, and whether it has complied with all applicable laws and regulations that could materially affect the financial statements

2. **Economy and efficiency:** identifies the extent to which the entity is effectively using and managing its resources, the reasons behind inefficiencies or unethical practises, and the extent to which the entity has complied with laws and regulations pertaining to matters of efficiency and economy.
3. **Program results:** identifies whether the objectives set by the legislative or other approving body are being met, and if the agency has taken into account alternatives that could provide the same objectives at a cheaper cost.

Compliance Audit

A compliance audit is the oldest and most common kind of auditing activity. The auditor is determining here to what degree financial inputs have been handled in an organization's financial management in accordance with the law and generally recognised rules and conventions for the handling of accounting information. A typical compliance audit used to include the auditor making an annual trip to outlying areas of the organisation to review every item in financial journals and ledgers to ensure that the maths and balances were accurate and no errors had been committed. The auditor would confirm that the financial records were accurate after this procedure.

This classic auditing method has evident benefits. Money-handling officials were not allowed to simply dispose of the monies as they pleased, maintaining no records or documents that were difficult to decipher. With the introduction of conventional auditing, each public official was required to: anticipate and be ready for a routine audit visit by the auditor; maintain accounts in a way that was formally specified; and make those records available for the auditor's scrutiny. In some jurisdictions the audit might be accompanied by an inventory of stores and equipment—hence, the at times derisive references to compliance audits as involving the counting of paper clips.

In fact, the compliance audit was and remains a powerful primary tool for preventing many types of corruption. But compliance audits often go beyond financial reviews. Voluntary compliance is the basis of a civil society. No government has the resources to force all of its citizens to comply with all of the criminal and civil laws. Consequently, all governments are more dependent on compliance than they would ever like to admit. The best single example of massive voluntary compliance is the US federal income tax system, which is essentially administered by self-assessment and voluntary payment. The much-dreaded audit by the federal government's tax-collecting agency, the Internal Revenue Service, is an assessment not just of whether a citizen has paid taxes due, but also of whether the taxes were calculated in the appropriate manner.

Compliance auditing is also undertaken by funding agencies to judge whether a grantee is acting in accordance with the granter's policies or preset guidelines. For example, the aptly named Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs within the Department of Labor works to ensure that there is no employment discrimination by government contractors because of race, religion, color, sex, or national origin; and there is affirmative action to employ veterans and handicapped workers. But compliance auditing is inherently limited. Conceptually it is part of a control system that focuses on the "inputs" or resources used in administration, not the "outputs" or results. An organization might well be able to comply with the letter of the laws concerning accounting for public monies and yet seem to achieve nothing. By the 1960s government auditors at all levels became increasingly discontented with performing such a confined role, of effectively "fiddling while Rome burned," by concentrating only on financial transactions rather than looking at the overall performance of the organization.

Performance Audit

In the latter half of the 1960s, there was some discussion about the prospect of auditors taking on a broader role that included evaluating efficiency and effectiveness in addition to compliance with laws and regulations. The General Accounting Office began officially supporting the adoption of such a broader role in 1972. The GAO's enabling law had provided it with the legal justification for this mission extension from the start. The two phases in the performance audit chain are efficiency and effectiveness audits, however in reality, they may be combined into a single performance or thorough audit of the organisation. An efficiency audit compares an organization's actions to the goals that have been set for it. In a way, an efficiency audit still involves the idea of compliance, but now the focus is on how well the organisation has complied with and achieved its goals. Given that the function of the auditor is to carry out the goals specified by political leaders, this expansion of the auditor's responsibilities is consistent with an instrumental view of administration. It is being examined. They want to know how receptive the organisation has been to their wishes and how well they have performed as state actors, as do their constituents.

When the audit's scope is expanded to include an organization's effectiveness as well as its efficiency, the focus shifts from how well politically specified goals have been accomplished to whether the goals themselves were sound to begin with. This further broadening of the scope has generated debate since it effectively transforms the auditor into a policy reviewer. Is an auditor qualified for this position? Does it foster political dispute of the kind that may have repercussions for the independence of the audit function? The audit institution itself may no longer be able to examine programmes in a manner that is seen as both impartial and above the usual political machinations if auditors criticise political leaders or recommend that government policies are unsuitable. Government effectiveness or performance audits is thus a naturally political activity that has to be cloaked in apolitical garb. As a matter of science, it must be free of methodological bias, and as a matter of strategy, it must be seen to be free of political prejudice[7], [8].

Program Evaluation

A programme assessment is a methodical analysis of any action or collection of activities carried out by the government with the goal of determining its immediate and long-term consequences. Because management assessment, which is also known as organisation evaluation, is restricted to a program's internal administrative processes, it differs from programme evaluation. Even if management and organisational data are included in programme evaluations, the focus must always be on the overall goals and effects of the programme.

Management Control: Evaluation in a Microcosm

Control is the part of management that is involved with evaluating actual performance against planned performance as well as creating and putting into place processes to address subpar performance. Control is a feedback mechanism that is intrinsic to all levels of management and should ideally only disclose unexpected circumstances. Some management control systems provide important performance indicator reports on a regular basis to give management a heads-up on prospective issues. As we've seen, audits and evaluations provide managers and elected officials crucial viewpoints from which they may assess the effectiveness and performance of policies and organisations. But it's not the only one of its kind. The manager must routinely assess input, make decisions, and implement corrective and directive control within the organisation. In Administrative input: Monitoring Subordinates' Behaviour, Herbert Kaufman points out that not all input is appreciated.

Leaders "may resort to the strategy of discouraging feedback about administrative behaviour because they privately approve of the behaviour they know they should, according to law and morality, prevent," as is all too frequently the case with public administration when organisations are rife with corruption. Such managers want not to seem to be "in control" in the event that "a pattern of offences by subordinates is disclosed," yet they still want to be managers. They want to have "a credible claim that they, too, were victimised" by the miscreants in their organisation.

This is the strategy used by the police chief in the 1941 film *Casablanca*, who was "shocked, shocked!" that gambling had been taking place in Humphrey Bogart's nightclub as he collected his winnings. Management controls are in place to make sure that managers are regularly informed of changes within their programme or organisation, allowing them to make decisions and take remedial action. It's possible to refer to the procedure as "evaluation in a microcosm." The boss is likely to have similar expectations as with formal, external review. To have strategic goals in mind and to be making gradual but more informed judgements regarding the degree and pace of goal achievement. The manager will often "exert control" by interfering and giving programme managers instructions if they are not being done, are being accomplished too slowly, or are being accomplished incorrectly. The type of this guidance will be a reflection of the position's importance and management style. It might be anything from an encouraging discussion of the possibilities to a stern directive to "shape up or ship out."

The auditing process often focuses on evaluating the sufficiency of management control systems as a whole. The goal of effective control is to make sure that every employee is contributing to the achievement of organisational goals. In the event that strategic presumptions are incorrect or the environment has altered, it need to act as an early warning system. Many of the instruments used in longer-term review will be used by an effective management control system, including references to goals and objectives, the selective application of performance standards, and performance metrics to determine if and how effectively goals are being accomplished. Additionally, it will make use of unofficial networks and the "grapevine," which aid in delivering timely information and informed suspicions about what is occurring "in the trenches." The programme or organisation may prevent catastrophe by using a framework of control that is well thought out, makes use of current knowledge, and is adaptable. On the other side, if the management control system is overbearing, based on inaccurate or insufficient data, and too inflexible, it may scare off innovation and fail to accomplish its primary purpose of short-term review and correction. This is what transpired during the Challenger space shuttle catastrophe. It blew up in 1986 not long after takeoff. It seems improbable that they would have let it to debut if decision-makers knew all the information[9], [10].

Evaluation and the Democratic Process

The degree to which government is conducted in a "fishbowl" is one of the characteristics that set it apart in democratic countries. The electorate and elected legislators expect to be able to see clearly how governmental programmes and organisations are operating in "real time" so that policy adjustments and changes in direction can be made and so that discussion can take place about both the practicalities of programme implementation and the theoretical finer points of policy. Internal assessments of the executive branch, which are basically "self" evaluations, are often included into the management process. This function is being taken up by more and more budget offices. Agencies must confirm that they are moving forward and that their goals are being met. Of fact, there are a number of reasons why someone could feel the "thirst" for assessment. The most honourable is the excellent management practise of

tracking progress so that issues may be found and solutions can be found. Programme assessments carried out for political reasons are equally vital but substantially less honourable. The "defensive programme evaluation" is a common strategy in this context, in which potentially contentious programmes are assessed to produce, in effect, "good" report cards to present to legislative committees or, at the very least, to offer some counterarguments against assessments by others that might produce less-favorable results.

Government audit and assessment procedures, as well as many other parts of day-to-day management control inside public organisations, are no longer carried out with the expectation of confidentiality. Instead, it is anticipated that choices and actions would likely be reviewed, assessed, and discussed in public. Sunshine laws exist in many states and localities to achieve this goal. All independent regulatory commissions are required to provide prior notice of the date, time, location, and agenda of their meetings under the federal government's Sunshine Act of 1977. If the situation calls for it, closed meetings are permitted. However, residents have the right to sue government entities in federal court if they believe that the private meeting was not necessary. Overall, this is a positive move that will certainly help fight against corruption and ineptitude, which thrive in murky environments[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Auditors are employed by organisations, and their primary duty is to attest to the accuracy of the financial records. Beyond its original use, auditing has developed new uses. Thus, a management audit, a performance audit, or an efficiency audit might be conducted. A single organization's internal audit may attempt to include various auditing components. Comprehensive audits are the name for such initiatives. The creation of comparatively independent audit organisations has aided in the audit function's ability to stand above corruption and separate from the current political system. Although they are occasionally used synonymously and are sometimes mistaken with one another, policy analysis and programme assessment are not the same.

A collection of procedures known as a policy analysis aims to provide an answer to the issue of what the likely outcomes of a policy will be before they actually take place. It is more appropriate to refer to a policy study of a currently running programme as a programme assessment. Evaluations are the criteria that may be used to assess a program's compliance, efficiency, and effectiveness/relevance. These requirements outline the essential inquiries that must be made of each programme.

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