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centres of State importance only. The authorised capital of the Central Warehousing Corporation is Rs. 20 crores divided into two lakh shares of the face value of Rs. 1,000 each. The authorised capital of a State Warehousing Corporation does not exceed Rs. 2 crores divided into shares of the face value of Rs. 100 each. The Central Corporation and the State Government concerned, subscribe equally to the share capital of the State Corporations. The twenty-seven warehouses functioning under the Central Corporation stocked about 7,89,025 maunds till the end of May, 1960, and had a storage capacity of about 11,85,800 maunds. The State Corporations, which started their activities in eleven States in 1959, provided storage accommodation for about six lakh maunds in the first six months. Warehousing facilities are now available for about 59 commodities. These include foodgrains, oilseeds, cattle fodder, raw cotton, cotton seed, raw jute, turmeric, *gur*, ginger and pepper.

Story of India's Dams

The story of how multipurpose dams are changing the "complexion of the forward-moving nation" of India, is the feature article in *Horizons*, magazine of the International Harvester Export Company. Complete with pictures showing the progress being made on the country's largest hydro-electric projects, the article tells the story of India's fight against famine and the advancements both in agriculture and industry which have been made through the building of multipurpose dams. The soon-to-be completed Chambal scheme "is a monument to India's people and an impressive addition to the nation's growing list of hydro-electric developments," the caption under one picture reads. The magazine's cover is devoted to

a color photo of another Indian dam site characterised as "symbolic of the nation's hopes for the future." The article itself acknowledges that American engineers visited India in the 1930's to observe methods and techniques before beginning large-scale irrigation projects in the Western United States. It goes on to say that during the last five years the country has raised more food than ever before and suggests that among other factors contributing to this, has been the construction of numerous dams and irrigation canals built as a part of the first two Five-Year Plans. The article details the progress being made on several of the country's projects and outlines for the reader what the completed dams will mean to the people of India.

Public Sector record

Production in the Public Sector enterprises registered a substantial rise during 1959-60, according to data just made available. In the current year, *i.e.*, 1960-61, it is expected to increase further on the completion of the expansion programme in the various units. The Hindustan Machine Tools Factory at Bangalore produced during the year over 700 machines valued at about Rs. 3 crores, a rise about 30 per cent over the previous year. The factory exceeded the plan target of 400 machines a year by the end of the second year of the Plan, three years ahead of schedule. An expansion programme for increasing production to 2,000 machines a year during the Third Plan period has been approved by the Government. In the case of the Sindri Fertilizer Factory production of ammonium sulphate in 1959-60 amounted to over 3.5 lakh tons. The annual production target of ammonium sulphate is 3.3 lakh tons which has been achieved every year, since the beginning of

the Second Plan. Production of coke in the factory during the year was also higher and amounted to nearly 2.5 lakh tons as against 2.29 lakh tons in the previous year. Production in the Hindustan Cables Factory in 1959-60 amounted to 691 miles telephone cables of the value of about Rs. 115 lakhs. This represents a rise of 5.7 per cent over the previous year's production. The level of production in the National Instruments Factory also showed a rise over that of the previous year. During 1959-60, the value of production was Rs. 53.70 lakhs, as against Rs. 44 lakhs during the previous year. The Hindustan Antibiotics Factory at Pimpri manufactured over 33 million mega units of finished penicillin which was about 14 per cent more than that of previous year. In the case of the Nahan Foundry and the Praga Tools Factory also a rise in production was recorded though on a modest scale.

Maharashtra and Gujarat

A study of agricultural statistics relating to the newly formed States of Gujarat and Maharashtra reveals that while Maharashtra has a relatively larger share of foodgrains, Gujarat is in a more favourable position in the production of commercial crops. Maharashtra's share of the total foodgrains production is 72.6%. Gujarat, on the other hand, claims 64.3 per cent of groundnut and 52.5 per cent of cotton—the two most important commercial crops of the former Bombay State. In the production of castor, and rapeseed and mustard, the share of Gujarat is as high as 93.3 per cent and 95.5 per cent respectively. Maharashtra has generally a more than proportionate share of rice, *jowar*, *ragi*, "total cereals" and gram and *tur*, while Gujarat is in a better position in the case of

bajra, maize, wheat and barley. Among the cash crops, Maharashtra has a relatively large share of sugarcane, potatoes, chillies and mesta while Gujarat gets more of tobacco, cotton, groundnut and total oilseeds. The 'net irrigated area' and the 'total irrigated area' in the two States is almost in the proportion of their geographical area although there are considerable variations in the extent of irrigation under different crops. The geographical area of the former Bombay State is shared by the two States of Maharashtra and Gujarat in the proportion of 62.1 and 37.9 per cent respectively. The area of Maharashtra is nearly 29.55 million acres more than that of Gujarat. Maharashtra has a slightly more than proportionate share of "net area shown" and "total cropped area." Forests are largely concentrated in Maharashtra whereas Gujarat has more than double the area under the category 'not available for cultivation' compared with Maharashtra. In the matter of livestock, Gujarat has a larger share of buffaloes (particularly females), sheep, horses and ponies, mules and donkeys and camels. Maharashtra, however, is in a more favourable position as regards cattle, especially cows. "Maharashtra and Gujarat Agricultural Statistics", a publication just issued by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics of the Central Agriculture Ministry, gives important agricultural statistics such as classification of area, irrigated area, and production of principal crops, livestock, agricultural machinery and implements in respect of the two new States.

Bhilai output

The Bhilai Steel Project has started making moulds for steel ingots. The first mould for seven-ton ingot has just been manufactured in the

foundry shop of the steelworks. In due course, foundry will be manufacturing eight such moulds daily. Steel is first produced in the form of liquid which is then poured into blocks called ingots. Each ingot weighs from five to ten tons depending on size and shape of the mould. Manufacture of moulds for pig iron was started in the foundry of the Bhilai Steelworks some time ago. The construction of the third coke oven battery of Bhilai Steel Works is now nearing completion. The battery is expected to be heated up as a preliminary to its commissioning. The bye-product plants are also getting ready. The erection of tar distillation plant and one more saturator in ammonium sulphates has made considerable progress. Work is also progressing on the third blast furnace. Refractory works are going on in various sections of furnace. Refractory work in furnace is nearing completion while mechanical erection is also progressing satisfactorily. Good progress is being maintained in rail and structural mill and merchants mill. The main oxygen plant of steel works is also nearing completion. Structural erection of the plant has been completed and erection of machines is now going on. Two ships arrived at Vizagapatnam port during April 1960 with materials for Bhilai from Russia. So far, approximately 433,064 tons of equipment and materials have been received in Bhilai carried in 155 ships.

Cooperative Credit

The Mehta Committee has strongly recommended that no cultivator should be denied loans from co-operatives merely on the ground that he does not own land or cannot produce owners of land as sureties. The co-operatives the Committee suggests, should provide funds according to the requirements

of agricultural production even to cultivating tenant members on the basis of their repaying capacity and on adequate sureties who need not necessarily be owners of land. The Committee is for the promotion of viable units. The society should not have too large a membership and should not seek to cover too extensive an area. It should preferably be a limited liability type and cover a population of 3000 (i.e., 600 families). The Committee recognises the need for State assistance which, however, should not become the excuse for interference in matters of internal management. The credit should be adequate but it should not be so facile or inadequate to supervise as to render possible its use for consumption rather than increase in production. To minimise misuse, as large a part of the loan as possible may be supplied in kind, e.g., seeds, fertilisers, implements, etc. Members of the society should be required to contribute to the society's share capital in certain proportion to their borrowings. Borrowings of an individual may not exceed 8 to 10 times of his paid-up capital. For the purpose of augmenting internal resources, the Committee asks primary societies to make systematic efforts to increase the share capital even beyond the level of 10 per cent of the borrowings. An attractive rate of interest is suggested as an incentive to villagers to deposit their savings with primary societies. Similar tappings of deposits from urban areas by Central and State Banks is suggested. The Committee recommends States participation, preferably through apex and Central banks, in the share capital of viable primary credit societies. The minimum contribution should be available only when the society undertakes to collect additional share capital of Rs. 3,000 from its members over a

period of three to five years. Government contribution should be returned after a certain period. The Committee desires the strengthening of the link between credit and marketing and recommends that construction of godowns by primary credit societies should be proceeded with. In 1956-57, only 16 per cent of the credit societies were reasonably well-run while another 16 per cent were in a hopeless condition, and the remaining two-thirds struggled helplessly against heavy arrears. The situation today is perhaps no better. What is to be remembered is that the condition of the small and medium cultivators is so distressing and their credit requirements so very urgent that too much emphasis on viability would adversely affect the growth of the cooperative credit movement. An important cause of default can be removed by strengthening of the link between credit and marketing. Societies in centrally located villages should be able to combine marketing and credit, so that production loans can be recovered by sale of produce without much time lag; elsewhere local societies could act as assembling agents of the Central Marketing Societies.

Estimates of Savings

According to a study of savings in the Indian economy published in the Reserve Bank of India Bulletin, March, 1960, the volume of savings (at 1948-49 prices), increased between 1951-52 and 1956-57 from Rs. 459 crores to Rs. 950 crores, i.e. from 5.1 per cent of national income to 8.6 per cent. An interesting feature of the pattern of savings which emerges from the Reserve Bank study is that of the total savings, the household sector accounted for about 83 per cent, while shares of the Government and the corpo-

rate sector in the total savings were about 11 per cent and 6 per cent respectively. In the household sector nearly two-third of the savings came from urban households and the remaining from households in the rural sector. This indicates that small savings movement has not sufficiently penetrated into the rural areas. This is certainly a disturbing fact. Savings can be substantial only if rural people are encouraged to save. Apart from the financial aspect of the matter, the encouragement of saving habit among rural folk has a long range psychological importance. Extravagance has been the besetting sin of the rural folk. This has been also the biggest hurdle in the way of his economic improvement. The eradication of this sin is the greatest step in the economic advance of the rural folk and in this context the encouragement of saving habit is of special significance. The matter needs organised efforts on the part of all those concerned.

Indian Students in U.S.

India, with 3,772 students, had the third largest student body in the United States during the 1959-60 school year. The figures, revealed that India was outranked only by Canada with 5,679 students and China with 4,946. The figures for China included students from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao, and the Mainland. The Indian student population in the United States constituted 7.8 per cent of all foreign students in U.S. schools. The latest figures also showed that India had 574 more students during the 1959-60 school year than the previous one. India also ranked third in the number of students last year. It is also revealed that 48,486 foreign students attended U.S. schools and universities last year, more than ever before. This is the

largest foreign student population in any country in the world. The foreign students came from 141 different countries, and political areas and studied at 1,712 institutions of higher learning. Engineering, which claimed 11,279 of the students, continued to be the most popular field of study. The humanities, with 9,246, was again second. The three most popular schools with foreign students were the University of California, New York University and the University of Minnesota.

Cattle Wealth

Modern methods of breeding have greatly helped to increase the cattle wealth of Germany. Some of the German breeds of cattle are so popular outside that the export of breeding cattle is now an important part of the assistance which Germany is rendering to certain developing countries. Africa and South America are among those countries receiving considerable supplies of breeding animals. The German Animal Breeders' Industrial Association functions as the leading organisation for the export of cattle. It also provides the importing country with valuable scientific and advisory assistance in different forms. If a developing country wishes to improve the breeding of cattle on modern lines and an enquiry is addressed to this body, the Association sends out experts to the country for investigating on the spot the possibilities for feeding and accommodation and for ascertaining whether or not the territory has any animal disease infection. This help is continued after the export has been completed. The organisation considers this service to be absolutely necessary and itself meets all the cost involved. The actual consultation and scientific help are carried out by a sub-organisation of the Industrial Association, called the "Foreign

Office of German Cattle Breeders". This body also undertakes in Germany itself investigations to find out which animal species and strains are best fitted for breeding purposes in countries outside Germany.

Primary Credit Cooperatives

The Second Five-Year Plan envisages an increase in membership of primary credit cooperatives to 150 lakhs by the end of 1960-61. In 1950-51, there were 1.15 lakh primary credit societies with a membership of over 51 lakhs; in 1957-58, the number rose to 1.67 lakhs and over 102 lakhs respectively. The actual figures for 1958-59 are not available, but it is estimated that the societies have increased to about 1.75 lakhs and membership to about 120 lakhs. At the present rate, by the end of the Second Plan period, the membership would be around 180 lakhs, covering about a third of the rural population. The number of primary societies may be a little over 2 lakhs. At the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan, primary agricultural cooperative societies gave short-term and medium-term credit of the order of Rs. 49.62 crores. It is likely to increase to about Rs. 190 crores by 1960-61. The Second Plan set a target of Rs. 200 crores to be achieved by the end of 1960-61—Rs. 150 crores under short-term and Rs. 50 crores under medium-term. The paid-up share capital of primary credit societies was Rs. 839.97 lakhs in 1950-51; Rs. 1,680.33 lakhs in 1955-56, and Rs. 2,822.27 lakhs in 1957-58. The primary credit societies advanced loans to the tune of Rs. 2,289.72 lakhs in 1950-51 which rose to Rs. 9,608.34 lakhs in 1957-58. The proportion of owned funds to the working capital declined from 42 per cent to 32 per cent during the period 1950-51 to 1957-58, although

the State Governments had contributed Rs. 2.21 crores out of the total paid-up capital of the societies amounting to Rs. 28.22 crores as at the end of 1957-58. The trends towards an increasing reliance on central financing agencies, which was noticed throughout the post-war years, has continued with the result that more than 3/5th of their working capital in 1957-58 was derived from borrowing from banks. This shows that while the short-term credit structure has been assuming a larger role in the provision of agricultural credit, proportionately increasing amounts have not been attracted by way of share capital and deposits.

Malaria Eradication Programme

India's campaign against malaria—which in the course of the last seven years has reduced the annual death toll levied by the disease from 800,000 to 10,000—has received two grants totalling \$ 1,004,173 (Rs. 48.7 lakhs) from the U.S. Technical Cooperation Mission. \$ 719,935 will be spent upon acquiring from abroad stocks of DDT, the insecticide used against the anopheles mosquito, the carrier of malaria. The rest of the funds will be utilized in the importation of anti-malarial drugs and laboratory equipment. The latest grants—one of which is for \$ 831,218 and the other for \$ 192,960—bring the total U.S. financial assistance to India's war against the nation's No. 1 health problem to nearly Rs. 38.7 crores. The United States has met most of the foreign exchange needs of the programme since 1953. In addition to dollar grants, the U.S. has made available to the malaria eradication programme rupees resulting from the sales of agricultural commodities shipped to India under Public Law 480, to meet local currency costs. When the Government of India

launched its malaria control programme in 1953, it was estimated that 75 million people—one out of five of the country's population—were attacked by the disease every year. The success of the malaria control programme, which was changed to one of eradication of the disease in 1958, is shown by the fact that last year, the estimated number of cases fell to four million. The malaria eradication programme is aimed at the interruption of transmission of the disease by killing the potentially infected anopheles mosquito, the carrier of malaria. Experts believe that the malarial parasite does not survive more than three years in the human body. Thus if transmissions were stopped for three years in succession, malaria would be eradicated. After that time, there would be no malarial parasite for the mosquitoes to transmit from one person to another.

Dairy Research at Karnal

Seventy-six miles from Delhi, on the Grand Trunk Road to Ambala, Karnal is the centre of large scale production of milk and dairy products. Though India is the fourth largest producer of milk in the world, large-scale dairy farms specialising in milk production are practically non-existent. By and large, dairying is still a cottage industry confined to the villages and forms only a supplementary occupation to the farmer. The National Dairy Research Institute at Karnal has grown from the old "Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying" opened at Bangalore in 1923. In 1955, the main institute was shifted to Karnal, where an extensive farm and other facilities are available. The overall area of land covered by the NDRI estate is 2,154 acres. Out of this, buildings, roads and

alkaline waste land cover 384 acres. Plans have been finalised for the new buildings of the Institute at an estimated cost of over Rs. 100 lakhs. The average strength of the cattle herd maintained at the Institute is 1,100, of which about 225 are always in milk, yielding an average of about 3,500 lbs. of milk daily. Recently a small herd of Murrah buffaloes have been introduced and their average yield is being worked out. From the beginning, the National Dairy Research Institute began a systematic study of the problems associated with milk production and its transport for catering to urban populations. Introduction of suitable methods of chilling milk, standardisation of cleaning and sanitising procedures under different conditions, organisation of rural cooperatives for the production, collection and transport of milk are some of the major results of the Institute's work. Detailed studies of the composition of milk from different breeds of cows and buffaloes in relation to season, food and lactation have given an insight into the variations to be expected in the composition. These studies are valuable for maintaining balanced feeding and for laying down optimum nutritive and chemical standards for milk. Cheese of different varieties have been manufactured at the Institute for several years. Good fodder being the basic necessity for cattle development, the National Dairy Research Institute has made successful experiments in the cultivation of special varieties of indigenous and exotic fodder and grasses, besides studying their adaptability to different soil and climatic conditions. Trials have been made on the preservation of surplus fodder in different types of silos and it has been found that the cheap trench-

silo gives good results if proper precautions are taken. The National Dairy Research Institute is practically self-sufficient in its fodder resources.

Improving Quality of Products

An attractive design, a shining surface or a tempting price may help to sell a product. But with a bewildering variety of 'brands' in the market, it is the quality exactly that one is looking for. To help in this rather arduous job and ensure the quality of products is the job of the Indian Standards Institution. I.S.I. does this in two ways : firstly by formulating quality standards in consultation with both producers and consumers and secondly through its Certification Scheme. In the last few years, the Institution has devoted special attention to the question of laying down standards expeditiously for consumer goods required in everyday life. To cite a few examples, I.S.I. has taken up the work of formulating standards for textile fabrics, infant foods, milk and milk products, sugar and glucose, pest control products, hosiery and knitted garments and electrical accessories. Under the Certification Scheme, licences are granted to manufacturers, whose goods conform to the I.S.I. specification for that particular product, authorising them to use the I.S.I. Certification Mark. The Institution undertakes surprise inspection and checks periodically. Samples picked up at random from the market and production centres are also tested at intervals. When any manufacturer abuses this licence, the Institution has the power to cancel the licence and institute legal proceedings against him.

Company Finances

The Reserve Bank's study of the finances of 123 Public Limited Com-

panies which closed their accounts during the quarter ended June 1959, shows that in spite of an increase in the gross and net assets as well as sales of the companies, the results of operations have not been favourable to the shareholders. The provision for depreciation was reduced, the retained profits were lower, and still the net amount received by the shareholders as dividends, after deduction of tax, was less as compared to the previous year. This was mainly the effect of the new scheme of Company Taxation, as provision for taxation appropriated a much larger proportion of the total profits of the companies. The 123 companies studied by the Reserve Bank increased their gross fixed assets from Rs. 157.47 crores in 1957-58 to Rs. 173.86 crores in 1958-59. The net fixed assets rose from Rs. 90.11 crores to Rs. 99.32 crores and the total net assets from Rs. 234.36 crores to Rs. 242.17 crores. The income from sales of these companies increased from Rs. 209.01 crores in 1957-58 to Rs. 223.50 crores in 1958-59. Expenditure on raw materials consumed and other manufacturing expenses amounted to Rs. 124.69 crores as compared to Rs. 117.18 crores in 1957-58. The expenditure on salaries, wages and employees' welfare expenses also increased to Rs. 37.12 crores from Rs. 35.12 crores. The gross profits

(before providing for depreciation, taxation and managing agents remuneration) increased from Rs. 23.69 crores to Rs. 24.92 crores. The provision for depreciation was reduced from Rs. 8.54 crores in 1957-58 to Rs. 8.19 crores in 1958-59. But, the tax provision for the year 1958-59 amounted to Rs. 7.72 crores and in addition a sum of Rs. 1.87 crores was deducted at source on dividends paid to the shareholders. The total amount of tax payable by these companies (on their behalf as well as on behalf of the shareholders) thus aggregated to Rs. 9.59 crores as compared to the tax provision of Rs. 6.80 crores for the year 1957-58. The net amount received by the shareholders as dividends amounted to only Rs. 4.35 crores (after tax deduction) as compared to Rs. 4.81 crores received in the previous year. It will thus be seen that the shareholders of the companies have not derived any benefit from the improvement in the profitability of the companies, which in terms of (1) gross profits as ratio of sales rose from 8.8 per cent to 9.0 per cent and (2) gross profits as ratio of total capital employed from 7.9 per cent to 8.3 per cent. The ratio of gross dividends to net worth of the companies amounted to 6.2 per cent only, or 4.4 per cent on tax-free basis.

The capacity of an administrator on a large scale depends on what he attends to himself and what he commits to others.

Trends in Administration

Drive Against Corruption

The Government of Kerala has issued orders reorganising the anti-corruption branch of the police known as "X" branch, to make it more efficient. Certain rules and procedures relating to investigation of corruption cases had been modified. Under the existing rules, the branch will investigate charges of corruption only against Government officers. The Government propose to introduce legislation to bring under its purview besides Government officers, Ministers and members of the Assembly, etc. When the legislation is enacted, further changes would be made in the rules. The State had been divided into four zones each under a Deputy Superintendent of Police with headquarters at Trivandrum, Quilon, Ernakulam and Calicut, respectively. A Superintendent of Police would be in overall charge. The branch would, under the modified rules, investigate only allegations against Government officers drawing a salary of Rs. 125 and above. Cases against those drawing below that sum would be inquired into by concerned departments. A time-limit of three months had been fixed for investigation of cases. If the investigation of a case was not completed within three months, the department had to send a special report showing the result of investigation till then and the approximate time required for completion of the work. The branch would send monthly returns showing details like the number of cases under investigation to the Government. Besides cases referred to by departments, the anti-corruption branch would also investigate allegations made by the public against any Government servant. The Deputy

Superintendent of Police in charge of a zone would be given powers to undertake any kind of investigation. Charges in respect of which the anti-corruption branch would undertake investigation, would include: Illegal gratification in any form, nepotism, causing wrongful loss to Government property or revenue, making false claims against the Government such as false travelling allowance and house rent, improper conduct and abuse of powers, misappropriation or misuse of Government property, gross negligence or dereliction of duty, illegal conduct and abetment in any of the above cases. Heads of departments and district officers had been asked to afford all facilities to investigating officers to peruse or take possession of any records found necessary for investigations. If after examination of the report of the branch the Government decided to take action in any case, it would refer the case to the disciplinary tribunal or inquiry commission. So far according to press reports roughly 116 officers have been proceeded against, after the ministry assumed power.

Rural Roads

The Chief Engineer, Highways, Madras, recently said the State Government had decided to improve district and village roads which were in a bad state owing to the slender finances of the local bodies. There were in all about 18,800 miles of such roads in the State, including those formed under the community development and local development programmes. He said, the standard of all important roads had been improved during the past decade. But much more remained to be done. About 10,825 miles out of the total of 18,800 miles of such

roads would be improved by the Government under a phased programme before handing them over to the panchayat unions. The approximate cost of the programme is estimated at about Rs. 115 lakhs. He said the Highways Department would be responsible for technical supervision and control of all rural works programme in the State even after the formation of panchayat unions. It is necessary that rural roads should receive more attention. There is a lack of realisation of the immense importance of roads in any scheme of rural development. Roads, it is said, outclasses hospitals and schools as a contributory factor to rural welfare. As a matter of fact, it was the inadequacy of rural communications that proved the greatest hurdle in the way of rural progress in the past. The foreign rulers completely neglected rural communications. They only thought of strategic roads or roads of military importance which would keep their hold on the country and commercial roads that would improve their trade. Whatever work they did for rural welfare therefore could not cut ice. No doubt, since Independence, rural communications have received attention. But the whole question has to be tackled on a planned scale. This is a matter in which the people's contribution in the shape of labour could do much. Block Development areas should have planned programmes in the matter to be carried out in a phased manner. The pace of economic improvement will be accelerated if all villages are opened up by roads.

Surprise Inspection

Recently, Kerala Chief Minister made a surprise inspection of the some of the sections of the Secretariat. He went through the personal registers and other records.

He also placed under suspension two clerks for alleged irregularities. Such surprise inspections are calculated to quicken the despatch of business. A recent writer has observed that the subordinate staff takes shelter in the laxity of their superiors and the superiors seek refuge in the patronage of Ministers and as a result, nobody is keen about their work and efficiency has gone down. If therefore Ministers make surprise inspections of the offices under their control, it will have a tonic effect on the rank and file. Since Independence, public servants as a class, have lost the fear of punishments and as a result, the stimulus to efficiency has gone. The Chief Minister also found one or two clerks absent in their seats. This is a common thing in many public offices. The Administrative Reforms Committee of the Kerala Government has deprecated this in strong language. It has become the fashion of clerks in public offices to leave the office whenever they want without permission. It is a sight in many offices to see private parties waiting for clerks who has gone out. Measures are necessary in every public office to prevent such perambulations of clerks and the subordinate staff. For such perambulations, the primary responsibility should devolve on the shoulders of the head of the office. Under a strict and business-like head of an office, such unauthorised wanderings of clerks during office hours will never take place. In the case of touring officers, it is the duty of the head ministerial officer to maintain discipline in the office. Discipline and a sense of responsibility are important factors in efficiency and it should be one of the main preoccupations of the head of an office to maintain these among his subordinates.

Reorganisation of Gaushalas

The Governor of Rajasthan has pleaded for the reorganisation of Gaushalas and Pinjrapoles in the country so as to associate sentiment with effective service to the cow. The Governor was inaugurating the second Gosamvardhana seminar organised by the Central Council of Gosamvardhana at Mount Abu. The Governor said that India had more than 150 million cattle but due to poor and unscientific breeding, feeding and other economic and environmental factors, the average quality of Indian cattle was rather poor. The low production capacity of the Indian cattle was, however, not due to any instinctive inability but due to environmental conditions and it had, in fact, great potentialities for development for it responded easily to better methods of feeding and breeding. The country, he said, had a large number of Gaushalas used largely as an asylum for cattle which had ceased to be useful and they were faced with the pasturage problem in an acute form. They should, therefore, be reorganised for supplementing milk production and as cattle breeding centres for "we have today not only to protect the cattle but also improve its breed and provide facilities for the segregation of the useless cattle." In some countries Livestock Development Corporations had come up through private philanthropy and it would be well worth trying it for this great national work as strong sentiment for the protection of the cow existed in India from time immemorial. It was also necessary to have further research for the adoption of better indigenous grasses legumes and preservation of dry fodder. He suggested setting up of an effective Central Dairy Information Bureau for the dissemination

of information in the latest techniques for dairying and asked co-operative milk unions to organise the supply of milk to cities on proper lines. He suggested, short-term courses for Gaushala workers in animal husbandry, dairying, etc. The Governor emphasized that simple methods and techniques should be devised and explained to the villagers through audio-visual methods. Animal husbandry, he added, had to be developed as an agricultural industry for providing a substantial subsidiary means of income to the villagers during idle seasons and for doing away with rural unemployment.

Stationery Purchase

According to a recent order of the Rajasthan Government, the Chairman and Members of the Stationery Purchase Committee of the State shall pay occasional surprise visits to various Government offices to see that the supplies of stationery articles are not different from the samples approved by the Committee. If they find defects in the supplies made, they will bring them to the notice of the Director of Printing and Stationery. The Director will then take action in the matter. It is not only the quality of the stationery that needs checking but also its consumption in public offices. Since Independence the consumption of stationery in all public offices has increased out of all proportions and there is plenty of scope for economy. More careful scrutiny of indents, inspection of stationery registers by inspecting officers and constant vigilance on the part of the presiding officers would go a great way to effect savings in the matter of stationery. Use of standardised forms or cards and less noting on files would also prove helpful in the matter. When administrative expenditure is mount-

ing up, no item of expenditure is too small for scrutiny if it would lead to economy.

Public Servants' new role

The Governor of Madras, recently exhorted Forest Officers to attune themselves to the spirit of the times. He expressed the view that the problems connected with reserve forests and their protection would be solved not so much by detecting offences and punishing offenders as by helping them to develop alternative means of satisfying their legitimate needs. He also pointed out that rangers and foresters could best discharge their functions in a democratic set-up only by securing the whole-hearted cooperation and good will of the people through personal contact and persuasion as friends and partners in the common endeavour of speeding up the prosperity of the country. These words have to be borne in mind not only by Forest Officials but also by all classes of public servants. Days are over when public servants could go ahead whether they had the cooperation of the people or not. In a welfare State, the success of a public servant is judged by the measure of public cooperation he has been able to secure in the discharge of his duties. Recently, Mr. V. V. Giri, Governor of Kerala, said at Madras that the Community Development movement had yet to become a people's movement. This fact has also been pointed out by more than one leader in this country. The failure of the Community Development movement to become a people's movement is mainly due to the lack of cooperation of the people. And this lack of cooperation is mainly due to the fault of the Block Development personnel. They have to realise that they have to carry the public with them at any cost since

without the people, the whole movement may prove something built on sand. They should not spare any effort in the matter of securing public cooperation. This will come about easily if they conduct themselves properly in their relations with the public. At present, in spite of all the talk about the Welfare State, the old bureaucratic attitude of aloofness still persists and this is the greatest stumbling block in the way of getting public cooperation. This attitude wherever it persists has to go. Public servants should think that they are not above the people but partners with them in a common enterprise. They have to impress upon the people their earnestness, hard work, sincerity, sympathetic approach and imaginative outlook. Then the cooperation of the people will come out spontaneously. Without public cooperation, nothing is possible in a welfare State and with it nothing is impossible. This axiomatic truth has to be remembered by every public servant.

Sense of Duty

It is reported in the Press that an Indian hospital attendant in Kaula Lumpur who took off his trousers and gave it to a naked and shivering patient, was awarded a gold medal. The medal and the citation were handed over to the attendant by Malaya's Health Minister. The citation paid a tribute to the high sense of duty of the attendant which brought honour and goodwill to all hospital servants alike. The subordinate employees in the hospitals in this country will do well to emulate the Kaula Lumpur example. Sometime ago, a correspondent wrote that the subordinate staff in many of the hospitals in this country had little regard for decorum and discipline. This is bad in any office but worse

in a hospital. There the patient needs the tender and loving care of the staff. Such care is a necessary prerequisite for quick recovery. This fact is not often realised by many employees in hospitals. Often times it happens that the head of the hospital may lack firmness and this is taken advantage of by those under him. The result is added suffering for the patients. Heads of the Medical Departments in all States would do well to drive home into the minds of the subordinate staff the importance of discipline and decorum and that failure would be visited with severe punishment. Surprise inspections by superior officers would go a great way in improving the outlook of the hospital staff.

Locust control in Rajasthan

Locust control operations in Rajasthan are now a responsibility of the Panchayat Samitis constituted at the block or tehsil level under the democratic decentralisation scheme. These bodies are also expected to organise an efficient intelligence system. Some of the Panchayat Samitis have already purchased their own equipment and insecticides besides the stocks maintained by the State anti-Locust Organisation for the scheduled cultivated area covering approximately 7,500 square miles spread over 5 divisions and 19 districts of the State. The current year's budget of the State Agriculture Department has a provision of Rs. 2 lakhs for anti-locust measures. The Agriculture Department, however, is now concerned only with the technical side of the work. It is for the agriculture department to train the staff in methods of locust control in the districts, offer technical guidance to revenue officials and issue locust forecasts from time to time.

Leadership in rural areas

Mr. S.K. Dey said at Bangalore that what was lacking in this country was not lack of competence but the proper application of it. This is true but application of competence can be stimulated only by proper leadership. The greatest need to-day in rural areas is selfless and efficient leadership. What is true leadership? In Tead's opinion, leadership is the activity of influencing people to co-operate towards some goal which they come to find desirable. It is very important for the leader to convince his motley crowd of followers that the goal is desirable. The crux of leadership lies here. He should therefore be a person who is more intelligent than his average followers and should also be persuasive. There should be enough drive in him to strive for accomplishment. It is very essential that in addition to realism, he should be fully aware of the importance of cooperative effort in getting things done. Such leadership is a necessary prerequisite for progress in the rural front. As early as the twenties of this century Brigadier Brayne observed that with good leadership, anything is possible in rural areas in this country. If in ancient India villages were far in advance of urban areas, it was mainly due to the availability of able leadership. Now with the perennial migration from rural areas to urban centres, the villages have become considerably depleted of leadership. This will automatically cease when rural conditions are improved and avenues of employment became available in villages. Apart from this, care has also be taken to see that the best persons are selected as leaders in Development areas. At present, a number of extraneous considerations enter the selection of leaders such

as caste, community, religion, politics, etc. These considerations have to be strictly excluded and those who possess leadership qualities are alone selected. Democratic decentralisation is well under way in every part of the country and this means for its success good leadership. It is therefore of utmost importance that greater care is taken in the selection and training of leaders.

Progress of Credit Cooperatives

An all round progress in the agricultural credit sector of the co-operative movement is reflected in the statistics for the year 1958-59 which have recently been received. The number of primary agricultural credit and multipurpose societies went up during the period by 16,568 and stood at a little more than 1.83 lakhs. The membership of the societies at the end of the year was about 1.19 crores—nearly 16.8 lakhs more than what it was in 1957-58. Average membership of the societies at the end of the year was also larger than in the previous year. This indicates that the increase in membership was due not only to the organisation of new societies but also to consolidation of existing ones. The large inter-State variations, however, continued as before showing the highest average membership in Kerala and lowest in Madhya Pradesh. Share capital as well as working capital of the societies also showed considerable

improvement. Deposits held by the societies in 1958-59 amounted to 9.87 crores as against 8.63 crores in the year before. This not only signifies better financial position of the societies but also growing confidence in the movement. A large portion of the credit requirements of the farmers was met by the co-operatives during the year. The societies advanced to their members Rs. 125.43 crores—nearly 29.34 crores more than in the previous year. Compared with the corresponding figure at the beginning of the First Plan, the increase in co-operative credit facilities through primary agricultural and multi-purpose societies represents nearly a six-fold expansion. Another encouraging feature of the years' performance was the improvement in repayment of loans. In spite of substantial increase in the total amount of loan advanced during the past few years, the percentage of overdues to outstandings has gone down. The picture, however, was not uniformly bright in all States. While the overdues were less than 15 per cent in Madhya Pradesh, Madras and Uttar Pradesh, they exceeded 50 per cent in Bihar. As a result of efficient management, increased internal resources and sound transactions, a large number of societies were included in 'A' and 'B' categories of the audit classification during the year.

It is not the business of a departmental head to run the department, but to see that competent persons run it competently. His task is one of supervision, adjustment, control rather than actual operation.

Public Servants and strike

Haridwar Rai (Patna University)

Strikes have become the order of the day. Originally conceived as a weapon for industrial employees, it has during the post-Independence period been freely resorted to by public servants for redressal of grievances both individual and corporate. In the course of this learned article, the author has discussed the pros and cons of this question, which is of considerable topical interest.

I

The growth of large-scale business in our society has involved a sharp decline in personal contact between management and workers. Trade Unions seem to have developed, in part, as a device by which workers seek to gain a measure of control over this impersonal decision-making process, particularly as it affects their welfare. Workers have tended to join trade unions when large numbers of them have felt that they have a better chance of improving their economic condition through collective rather than individual action. But a question may be asked: Is this institution of trade unionism likely to be a successful method of regulating employment relationships in government? As we know, the major function of a trade union in industry is to undertake collective bargaining activities. Another question, therefore, may be asked: Can a union of government employees bargain with a sovereign power? The reply of the government employees to this question is that the classical theory of the sovereign State is not compatible in this age with a theory of economic democracy. Besides, it is now universally accepted that a public servant has a right to share through

his organisation in the determination of his wages, hours of work and working conditions. In short, his right to bring some kind of pressure to bear upon the government is not longer disputed. But the question immediately comes up: What form should such pressure take? Can it take the form of strike?

II

Albert Day, a formidable champion of the rights of public servants, is of the view that civil service unions should not be denied any of the trade union rights including the right to strike¹. Such rights are allowed to workers who are as essential to the body politic as public servants. "The basic fact" adds he, "is the power—the physical power—to strike. This any one can exercise alone or in combination if he be determined enough. The law cannot tell him nay..... There would be a much stronger case for prohibiting the bakers from striking than for prohibiting civil servants"². Mosher and Kingsley have expressed similar views. "The public employee strike is nearly always a measure of desperation," they have maintained, "if conditions are sufficiently bad, it will be employed

whether or not its use is legally recognised"³.

A successful strike, it is argued, is never illegal. A strike is not a right, it is a fact, and the right to strike is not one to be asked for, it must be taken. It is further contended that the right to strike is nothing but a result of the State's non-interference with the right to freedom of person. Therefore it is said that, if there is to be a restriction on the freedom of action of civil servants, the State should also accept restrictions upon itself as employer. Lewis has described the threat of strike as a symptom of a serious defective personnel system⁴. Mosher and Kingsley, in a sober analysis of the factors forcing public employees to go on strike, have observed, "To deny to any group of employees the right to strike against intolerable conditions is to reduce them to a form of slavery. If strikes in the public service are contrary to public policy, then, clearly unsatisfactory working conditions of public services are against public welfare"⁵.

But there are equally weighty arguments against the right to strike. It is reasoned that civil service carries the day-to-day administration of a country, and upon its ceaseless operation depends the continuity of a society. It is the sacred duty of government employees to serve the whole people of a community. The welfare of the people requires a systematic, orderly and continuous conduct of government

activities. It is further argued that the possession of this right acts psychologically upon those who possess it. It offers an alternative to negotiations with the good will of the other party⁶. The most outstanding exponent of this view was President Roosevelt himself. He declared, "Particularly, I want to emphasise my conviction that militant tactics have no place in the functions of any organisation of government employees. Upon employees rests the obligation to serve the whole people whose interests and welfare require orderliness and continuity in the conduct of government activities. This obligation is paramount..... a strike of public employees manifests nothing less than an intent on their part to prevent or obstruct the operation of Government until their demands are satisfied. Such action looking towards the paralysis of Government by those who have sworn to support it is unthinkable and intolerable"⁷. However, it was ten years after this declaration by the President that a legislation known as the Taft-Hartley-Labour-Management Relations Act of 1947 was passed. This Act is in favour of all-inclusive prohibition of strike. The relevant provision of the Act reads: "It shall be unlawful for any individual employed by the United States or any agency thereof including wholly owned Government Corporations to participate in any strike." Several of the States in the United States passed similar laws. They stand today as evidence of

1. Day, A. J. T., *The Principles of Whitleyism*, Public Administration, Vol. XXVI No. 4 (1948) p. 234.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 233.

3. Mosher, W. E., Kingsley, J. D. etc., *Public Personnel Administration* (Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York, 1950) p. 359.

4. Mayers, Lewis, *The Federal Service*, (New York 1922) p. 558.

5. Mosher, Kingsley, etc., op. cit., p. 262.

6. Finer, Herman; *The Theory And Practice of Modern Government* (Henry Holt & Co. 1949). p. 902.

7. Quoted by Dr. L. D. White in *Introduction To The Study of Public Administration*, (Fourth Edition 1955), p. 427.

willingness of the American people to hedge government employees with special safeguards.

The Jagannadhadas Commission (1957-59), in equally clear language, has maintained that "it is wrong that public servants should resort to strike or threaten to do so, and that persons entrusted with the responsibility for operating services essential to the life of the Community should seek to disorganise and interrupt those services in order to promote their interests. Apart from these moral aspects, there is little doubt that in Indian conditions in which there is often a possibility of eruption of indiscipline in an ugly form in one section of the community or another strike or even demonstrations by Government servants cannot but be a factor making for indiscipline generally"⁸. Thus, according to the Commission, a strike is incompatible with public employment, not only from moral aspects but also from practical considerations. It is not only a threat to the continuity of society and a challenge to authority. It is most likely to undermine public confidence in a democratic structure of government by seriously interrupting the government's administrative functions.

These two are opposing views. One view favours all-inclusive prohibition of strike by Government employees. The other view is out to grant full trade union rights to civil servants, including the right to strike. The midway view is that an outright prohibition of strikes in the public service is an extreme measure. It curtails the recognised

rights of citizens and also fails to meet the situation boldly. The middle view is thus formulated by Dr. White; "A strike that would bring direct, immediate, certain and serious danger to a primary interest of the community should be prohibited by law, with adequate sanctions, but also with adequate means to secure full public consideration and solution of the issue involved"⁹. Here the criterion of distinction is the consequence of a strike upon public interest, not whether the employer is public or private. This view seeks to find a solution which, while protecting an important aspect of freedom also seeks to protect public interest. It is an *ad hoc* solution, proceeding slowly from case to case as circumstances require, and lacks the once-for-all precision of the Taft-Hartley Act¹⁰. Nevertheless, it seems more in consonance with the ideals of a democratic society.

A more practical suggestion was made by the Central Pay (Varadachariar) Commission (1946-47), which wisely stated that the provision of ample opportunities for expression of opinion and ventilation of grievances by constitutional methods and on democratic lines is far more likely to avoid violent conflicts than are the methods of State absolutism¹¹. Ample constitutional channels and democratic avenues must be open to staff associations through which they can give expression to their demands and claims. If the freedom of government employees is to be restricted, justice and sound administration demand that government accept

responsibility for the establishment of machinery for peaceful solution of grievances. If such methods are non-existent, civil servants may be forced to resort to strong methods, such as strike and demonstration. In a country like Britain which has provided such institutions as the Whitley Councils, Arbitration Board and the like, strikes may become redundant. It is just possible that even these democratic methods of resolving disputes between the administration and the employees may fail to bring about complete industrial peace or harmonious relations in the administration. But one great purpose which they will undoubtedly achieve is "to turn unions of employees from 'militant' into 'litigious' organisation"¹². Dr. Herman Finer has suggested two indispensable substitutes so that strike is eliminated as a method of settling disputes. They are: (1) Institutions in which civil servants can obtain a full and proper hearing, and in which their legitimate grievances can find redress, and (2) public recognition that the authority of the people, of the legislature and ministers, has moral bounds¹³. Thus authority must be willing to temper the doctrine of treasury control and economy with justice to officials. He concludes, "as the civil service is expected to subject itself to the community, so is the community obliged to subject itself to the civil service"¹⁴. The Jagannadhadas Commission (1957-59), which issued a comprehensive questionnaire contained a significant question; is there need for setting up a co-operative machinery for prevention

and settlement of disputes between the Central Government and their employees on matters relating to work, remuneration and other conditions of service? The Commission (1957-59) has found a consensus of opinion among employees' organisations and independent witnesses in favour of setting up a machinery analogous to the British Whitley Council¹⁵.

The Commission has noted dissatisfaction with existing procedures for joint consultation and implementation of decisions. It has pointed out that to ensure that the Government employees disown the strike weapon, which is available to other workers for redress of grievances, a satisfactory alternative will have to be offered to them. The Commission has observed "In the circumstances, if a proposal that Government servant should give up the strike weapon is to have a just basis, and is to secure reasoned acceptance by them, there should be set up an adequate machinery for negotiation, redress of grievances and settlement of disputes; and there should, further, be provision for arbitration to which recourse can be had, should a difference on a question of remuneration or some other particularly important condition of service, such as leave and hours of work, remain unresolved"¹⁶. There are now senior and junior staff councils in each ministry with a co-ordination Committee of three senior Officers, all with purely advisory functions. More satisfactory is the system on the Railways where there are unions with access to the general managers at local levels and a National

12. *Ibid*, p. 122.

13. Finer, H. ; op. Cit., p. 902.

14. *Ibid*, p. 903.

15. *Commission of Enquiry on Emoluments and Conditions of Services of Central Government Employees* (1957-59), p. 541.

16. *Ibid*, p. 541.

8. *Commission of Enquiry on Emoluments and Conditions of Services of Central Government Employees* (1957-59), p. 541.

9. Quoted by Mosher and Kingsley in *Public Personnel Administration*, p. 362 from *Public Personnel Review*. January 1949.

10. White, L. D. ; *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (1955), p. 428.

11. *Pay Commission Report* (1946-47), p. 122.

Federation dealing directly with Railway Board with a right of reference to a Tribunal, whose award, however, is not binding. Post and Telegraph employees and civilian staff of defence industries have similar machinery. Only the industrial employees of Government are on a par with non-government labour.

In these consultative bodies, the official side may at least promise favourable consideration of proposals but cannot commit Government. Under the British Whitley System, decision can be taken at such joint councils which become operative and the official participants come not only to listen in indulgent good humour but fully prepared either to take decisions or to justify their inability to agree. Except in welfare activities, like providing canteens or sports facilities, the present system is regarded as ineffective. The Pay Commission (1957-59) has logic in its favour when it recommends that, together with compulsory arbitration on differences, the Whitley System should provide all that is necessary for discussion of employees' grievances without impairing the Government's responsibility to Parliament or trenching on other larger issues of administration.

The difficulty in offering substantial increments of pay and allowances at present may also be a point in favour of granting other facilities to reduce any sense of frustration and remove a widespread feeling that unless a strike is threatened, Government takes no notice of grievances and even then its normal reaction is to declare the strike illegal. Besides, a Government which appears to have few doubts about

the value of workers' participation in management of industry should not feel unable to agree to join consultation and sharing of responsibility on matters affecting conditions of service such as recruitment, hours of work, promotion, discipline, remuneration and superannuation, when agitation in public servants will thereby be prevented and some contentment may possibly be fostered.

Obviously enough, civil servants can go on strike in most instances, but it may be suggested that it is not a practical alternative for them. If all civil servants went on strike at the same time it would result in near anarchy and the possible dissolution of Government itself. Besides, to be successful, a strike must have some measure of public support and this would be extremely unlikely in the case of civil servants. According to one writer¹⁷, the most feasible alternative to strike would appear to be the substitution of political pressure for the threat or actuality of the strike. In such a situation, the bargaining power of a staff association would essentially rest on the quality and amount of public sympathy. But ultimately, this will involve the development of bargaining in a political arena rendering staff associations as a football in party politics. Therefore, it may be argued that the process of negotiation should be lifted above politics and dealt with in a non-partisan way through some semi-independent and neutral agency, if joint consultative machinery, having representatives of staff associations and administration, fails to arrive at an agreed decision.

But it may be rightly contended that if the decision of this semi-

independent board is made binding, a serious constitutional problem may arise. It will put the sovereign legislature in the position of having to accept decisions affecting salary and working conditions from an independent agency which is not responsible to it. A modification of this suggestion which does not pose the constitutional difficulty is, to have the dispute referred to an outside board of arbitration but to allow the legislature to accept or reject its findings. In this case, the Government would have to answer at the bar of public opinion for its failure to accept the findings of neutral court of last appeal. Thus the method of joint consultation and arbitration may be a suitable substitute for the usual devices of collective bargaining which are most suited to private employment.

III

There is a question whether prohibitions of strikes in the public service in India by administrative orders and regulations, are legal and necessary and whether they will be effective if the conditions of public employment become unbearable to the employees.

A judgment of considerable interest to civil servants in the country was delivered by the Patna High Court in March, 1958. The court upheld the validity of Rule 4-A of the Bihar Government Servants' Conduct Rules, which prohibits a Government servant from participation in any demonstration or strike in connection with any matter pertaining to his conditions of service. It was argued on behalf of the petitioners that the right to strike and the right to demonstrate were included in the right of free speech and the right to form associations guaranteed by Article 19(1) (A) and 19(1) (C) of the Constitution.

The High Court rejected this claim saying that the Government servants have greater responsibility than other employees. They have special status because they are a part of the machinery of the Government. According to the Court, the conduct of Government servants is a matter of public interest and that their discipline and efficiency will be undermined if they take part in strikes and demonstrations. The High Court of Madras has also given a similar ruling in a similar case. The Tamilnad non-gazetted officers' union had applied to the Registrar of Trade Unions, Madras, for registration as a trade union. The Registrar, by an order, rejected their application. The union in a petition filed before the Madras High Court, prayed for the setting aside of the order of the Registrar of Trade Unions. The court dismissed the petition and declared that a union of civil servants cannot become a trade union as the essential characteristics of labour cannot apply to them and that Article 19(1) (C) will not be infringed if an association or a union of government employees is refused registration under the Trade Unions Act.

The confederation of the Central Government Employees decided to challenge the decision of Patna High Court in the Supreme Court. The confederation campaigned against a similar amendment in the Central Government Servants' Conduct Rules, prohibiting strikes and demonstrations on the ground that it was an infringement of the employees' fundamental right of trade unionism. The amendment in the Central Government Servants' Conduct Rules was one of the results of the general strike threatened by the employees of the Central Government from August 8, 1957, un-

17. Dymond, W. R., "The Role of the Union in the Public Service" in Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Conference of the Institute of Public Administration of Canada, 1953, p. 63.

der the leadership of the confederation. The strike did not take place as the Central Government agreed to appoint a Second Pay Commission to go into the conditions of service and emoluments of the employees of the Central Government. Acting on the advice of the Law Ministry that right to strike is not a fundamental right, the Central Government at the same time announced an amendment to the Central Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955, declaring that no Government servant shall participate in any demonstration or resort to any form of strike in connection with any matter pertaining to his conditions of service. Taking their cue from the Central Government, the various State Governments too have made similar amendments in their Service Rules. The confederation and the States organisations of non-gazetted officers have been agitating for the withdrawal of restrictions since then. Thus it would appear that the Central Services in India won the concession of the appointment of the Pay Commission in 1957 at much greater price than they had thought they were paying at that time.

It may seem strange that while legislation is passed guaranteeing the right to organise and to strike to private employees, these rights should be denied to public servants. In doing so, the legislators invariably place their position not upon the relative inconvenience to the public due to stoppage of work in private or government services, but rather upon the ground that the sovereign cannot permit its servants to challenge its authority. The inviolability of this authority is regarded as more important than the fulfilment of any particular public function no matter how important that function may be to the welfare or even safety of the Community.

We find that the position in the United States is more stringent so far as civil servants are concerned, than in India, but an important difference cannot escape attention. While the result in the United States has been achieved by a congressional Act, in India the curb on civil servants' right to strike has been made through the rule-making power of the executive which has made a proper discussion of the *pros* and *cons* of the issue impossible. It is doubtful if the Parliament or the State Legislatures would have easily passed into law the curb that has been placed on Government servants through the rule-making power of the Union and the State Governments, taking advantage of threatened strikes. Our Governments seem to rely heavily upon their prestige for maintenance of their authority. But efforts to enforce unenforceable restrictions are hardly calculated to promote that prestige. Prohibition against strikes has never of itself prevented strikes by employees who regard their grievances sufficiently great to lead them to hazard risks. Illegal strikes doubly damage the authority of the sovereign which the very denial of the right to strike seeks to preserve.

IV

As we have seen, the Central Government amended in 1957 the Government Servants' (Conduct) Rules, 1955 to meet the threat of an all-India strike in 1957 by the confederation of the non-gazetted employees of the Central Government. These amendments cut the employees of the Central Government to the quick and they started preparing for another all-India agitation. Some members of the Opposition in Parliament, in collaboration with some trade union leaders condemned the amendments as an attempt "to put the trade

union movement in a strait-jacket." A mass rally of the Central Government employees, organised by the co-ordination committee of the confederation of Central Government Employees in Bombay in November, 1957, demanded immediate repeal of the amendments. The Government of India announced on March 10, 1959, an amendment of the Central Civil Service (Conduct) Rules. The Central Government conceded in the amendment of the Service Rules to the Non-gazetted Government employees drawing Rs. 500 or less and working in Government owned or managed establishments other than Railways, the right to strike, to join in demonstrations and to join any associations. In practice, the Central Government found the restrictions extremely difficult to enforce. The absence of staff Councils, which would have enabled the employees to see the point of view of the Government, has tended to weaken the Government's case for restraint by the workers.

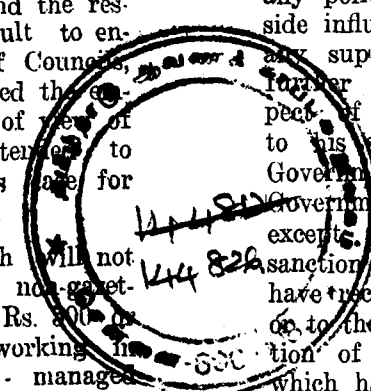
One of the rules which will not now be applicable to the non-gazetted employees drawing Rs. 500 or less per month and working in Government owned or managed establishments, other than Railways, says "No Government Servant shall participate in any demonstration or resort to any form of strike in connection with any matter pertaining to his conditions of service." The other part of the same rule says: "No Government servant shall join or continue to be a member of any service association of Government servants which has not, within a period of six months of its formation, obtained recognition of the Government under the rules prescribed in that behalf or the recognition in respect of which has been refused or withdrawn by Government under the said rules." The abrogation of these rules now im-

plies that the industrial staff of Government will enjoy full-fledged trade union rights. It is a commendable step and speaks well of the enlightened lead given by the Central Government. But the Railway staff, while in the same position as industrial staff in the matter of membership of unrecognised unions and associations, continue to be subject to certain restrictions on trade union activities which have been withdrawn in respect of industrial staff outside the Railways.

The industrial staff of Government have been exempted from the purview of the following sections also:—

"No Government servant shall bring or attempt to bring any political or other outside influence to bear upon any superior authority to further his interests in respect of matters pertaining to his service under the Government" and "No Government servant shall, except with the previous sanction of the Government, have recourse to any court or to the Press for vindication of any official act, which has been the subject matter of adverse criticism, or attack of defamatory character."

The amendments to the Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955, were made by the President in exercise of the power conferred on him by proviso to Article 309 of the Constitution. The personnel who have now been exempted and to whom the above mentioned sections of the Civil Service Rules of 1955, are not applicable include people working in posts, docks, defence installations, except training establishment, public works establishments in so far as they relate to work-charged staff, irrigation and electric



power establishments, mines, factories and field units of the Central Tractor Organisation employing workmen governed by labour laws.

We may, however, submit that even the recognition of trade union rights of certain classes of Government employees is only a negative gain. For positive gain, and improving the standards of civil servants, it would be desirable to make them partners in the business of administration and other activities of the Government with which they are immediately concerned. This can be achieved by setting up joint staff councils on the model of British Whitley Councils which have played an important role in weaning away civil servants from the path of strikes and demonstrations. They have gained much more by negotiations in which the representatives of employees and the Government participate on equal footing. The Jagannadhas Commission (1957-59), has also recognised that dissatisfaction with the Conduct Rules is made up of a number of elements. They are: (a) a desire to have a voice in the determination of service conditions, (b) a dislike of the traditional methods of enforcing discipline, and (c) a grievance about the absence of a joint consultative machinery of the type of the British Whitley Councils and a system of judicial or quasi-judicial determination of disciplinary cases¹⁸. If these grounds of dissatisfaction are removed, the Civil Servants' Conduct Rules could, to a reasonable degree, be brought in conformity with "the new set-up and the current social and political ideas"¹⁹.

Conclusion

The Government should be an ideal employer and should practise

those principles of human relations which it preaches and seeks to prescribe to the private sector. Human relations enjoin that the employer must respect the feelings and aspirations of his employees and evolve a machinery for joint consultation under which genuine grievances are speedily redressed and disputes settled amicably. The Government must lay stress on these aspects of employer-employee relations rather than on punitive practices and threats. The Government must also realise that democracy is a system of Government which fosters and promotes organised mutual self-restraint. "The life of a free society" remark Spero "depends upon the maintenance of freedom and authority in delicate balance. The preservation of the balance depends, in turn, upon mutual restraints on the part of both Government and its employees founded upon the recognition of the fact that in real life, there is neither complete liberty nor absolute sovereignty"²⁰. Therefore, unless the Government provides some consultative and negotiating machinery and unless the practice of consultation and collaboration has reached the point where it guarantees "bearable working conditions", the prohibition of strikes can hardly be enforced. Friedrich and Cole have aptly observed ".....it is apparent why it is absurd to 'forbid' the strike of civil servants. It is as absurd as to declare a revolution unconstitutional or to outlaw war. On the contrary none of these events can be 'legalised'; they show that every legal order rests upon a fact of nature, a social reality beyond all law, namely, the groups of human beings to which it applies"²¹.

The I.C.S. and The I.A.S.

(UNICORN)

I

The Indian civil service was one of the best services in the world during the British period. Though different European nations had organised administrative services to run their colonies none was so efficient as the Indian civil service. It was also the highest paid service in the world. It was so to say a garrison of picked men to hold the Indian empire for the Crown. Lloyd George called it the Steel Frame of the British Empire. It was manned by the cream of the British and the Indian Universities who took up their job after a period of elaborate pretraining consolidated by an equally elaborate post training. Its last contribution to this country was the preservation of her integrity during the period of turmoil that followed the partition of India.

The origin of this great service goes back to the dim early days of the East India Company. The company was brought into being in 1600 and they applied the term civil service to their non-military employees who worked here. Though the company confined itself to trade, they had a military wing, a naval wing and an ecclesiastical wing in addition to the civil wing. The civil wing was purely manned by traders. There was a hierarchy of functionaries in this wing. There were apprentices at the bottom, then writers, then Factors, then merchants, then senior merchants, then Agents and lastly the presidents in an ascending order. The lower rungs were paid, low but they were permitted to supplement their income by private trade. In some places, they lent money to natives at a high rate of interest

and added to their income. These civilian employees were recruited from the middle classes in England. The only qualification insisted on for them was a knowledge of commercial accounts. When the company assumed administrative powers, the higher ranks of the employees became civil servants. By 1765, the use of the term civil service became well established. With the expansion of the political authority of the company, the Directors started exercising their patronage in the matter of appointments. They counted upon this as one of their valuable rights. It is said, one director alone appointed 18 of his close relations under the company in India. Many of them were from noble families. They had little or no training but in the conditions prevailing then, they managed to carry on. To Warren Hastings belongs the credit of laying the foundations of the civil service in India. He appointed supervisors who are the forerunners of the present-day collectors. They toured round and supervised the collection of revenue. They were expected to find out the economic condition of the people who paid revenue to the company. Warren Hastings always insisted that the supervisors should be easily accessible to the people and they should stand between the ryot and the hand of oppression. The supervisor was in fact expected to be the refuge of the poor and the friend of the rich. If Warren Hastings laid the foundation of the civil service, Lord Cornwallis built upon it. At this time, Mr. Charles Lucas offered the advice; "Have few officers, work

18. *Commission of Enquiry on Emoluments and conditions of Service of Central Government Employees* (1957-59), p. 527.

19. *Ibid.* p. 524.

20. Quoted by Mosher, Kingsley, etc., in *Public Personnel Administration* (p. 363) from "Government As Employer" by Spero.

21. Friedrich, Carl, J. and Cole. Taylor. *Responsible Bureaucracy* (Harvard University Press, 1932), p. 86.

them hard, pay them well and trust them.....this is the only way of securing honest and efficient administration. That the administration was efficient at that time is evident from what the noted French Missionary Abbe Duboi wrote "The justice and prudence which the present rulers display in endeavouring to make the people less unhappy than they have been hitherto, the anxiety which they manifest in increasing their material comfort, above all, the inviolable respect which they constantly show for the customs and religious beliefs of the country and lastly the protection which they afford to the weak as well as to the strong all these have contributed to the consolidation of their power more than even their victories and conquests."

As years rolled on, the political responsibilities of the British increased and it was felt that civil servants should be given training. Marquis of Wellesley started a college in Calcutta for the purpose. But this was soon closed down and another was started at Hileybury in England in the early part of the 19th century. Selection on the basis of competitive examination was introduced in 1855 and the first Indian entered the service in 1864. The story of the Indian Civil Service falls into certain well-marked periods. The first period covers from 1600 to 1833. In 1833, the charter of the East India Company was renewed and stress was laid in the revised charter on the Indianisation of the civil service. Till then, the civil service was a whiteman's monopoly. Lord Cornwallis held the view that only the Britisher had the necessary equipment for being a good administrator. After 1833, Indians agitated for entry into the civil service and this second period conti-

nued up to the end of the Mutiny in 1857. This was the heyday of the company rule in India. The company rule was fundamentally different in its objective from the Post-mutiny rule. It was essentially a personal rule. It was ma-bap rule at its best. The Simon Commission said even as late as the thirties of this century that the great mass of Indians desire personal rule and the East India Company gave this rule even nearly a century earlier. The district officer was the key-stone of the company administration. He was not a ruler who ruled with an iron rod in his hand. He was the father and mother of the people in his charge. He not only collected revenue, he not only administered his department well, he not only lent a helping hand when things went wrong in other departments in the district, but he also identified himself with the weal and woe of the people. He knew the people of his area not only through files or official papers but through intimate personal contact effected through extensive tours. His touring was not a march from place to place keeping to his schedule with clock-like regularity, but it was something like a voyage of discovery. As a recent author has observed, seated in his camp-tent he would be seen engaged in informal chat with the more respectable among the villagers collecting incidentally a lot of useful information which would help him to reach correct decisions in all matters concerning the welfare of the people. They chatted on a wide variety of topics such as the prospects of the weather, the nature of the crops, the rise in prices, floods and other natural calamities, the infestation of thieves, the highhandedness of the police constable, crop and cattle pests, tales of domestic troubles and a host of similar things which gave

a clear picture to the Collector which he could not naturally get by reading a hundred reports. In necessary cases he took action on the spot cutting short the coils of red Tape. When he closed his camp for proceeding to the next place, he will have redressed a hundred grievances, will have collected information for solving a hundred problems and will have completed a thorough study of the area in order to find out its weak points or its more serious problems so that he might take steps to solve them. In those days, many civilians preferred to work in districts because it provided them scope for their social service instincts. They mixed familiarly with the people talking in their colloquial vernacular, riding, hunting and walking with them in the glaring sunshine, sitting with them under the shade of trees conversing

with them in the cool air of the evening or round the watch fires at night. The Collector generally vied with the English missionary stationed in his territory to lessen the miseries of the mass of people. There was a striking informality about the manner in which the collector went about his work in those days. This informality was one of the salutary features of the company rule. The people never cared as to who ruled at the centre so long as the district head worked with a sense of mission. There was wide-spread apprehension when the company rule was brought to an end that this personal rule in the districts, this human touch in administration, this informality in official behaviour and this welfare outlook on the part of the district officer might disappear.

(To be continued)

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Public Administration in Ancient India (ITHIHASIKA)

It is a fashion among some western writers to describe ancient India as being concerned solely with religion and philosophy. But this is a misconception. According to recent researches, in ancient India the different branches of knowledge were grouped under four heads, namely, philosophy, the vedas, economics and Politics. Of these politics was regarded as the most important subject of study. The Mahabharata says that "when the science of politics is neglected, the three vedas as well as virtues decline." Chanakya has defined politics as "the science which treats of what is right in public policy and what is not and of powers and weakness." According to Sukraniti, a knowledge of political science enables rulers to gain victories over their foes, to please their subjects and to be proficient in State craft. In Kautilya's opinion, public administration was the chief means of promoting the welfare of the people. His Arthashastra is a monumental work which deals with all the essential aspects of public administration. It is still considered a masterpiece on the subject, providing instruction and guidance to all who are concerned with the administration of a country.

Arthashastra also supplies us with interesting glimpses about the Mauryan administrative system which was the first of its kind in the recorded history of our country. The aim of the State as defined by Kautilya was the well-being of the people. The king was the head of the State and his duties were : (1) to please the people, (2) to protect them, (3) to achieve their welfare, (4) to ensure that all sub-

jects discharged their duties properly, (5) to punish wrong doers and (6) to practise the virtues of promptitude, energy, truthfulness, self-restraint, humility, righteousness, fortitude and compassion. He carried on the administration of the country with the assistance of a number of Ministers. Government says, Kautilya, can be carried on only with the assistance of others. A single wheel does not move the car of administration. Great importance was therefore attached to the selection of Ministers. According to Arthashastra the fittest person to be a Minister was one who was a native of the country, born of a high family, influential learned in the arts and sciences possessed of wisdom and foresight, endowed with a good memory, capable eloquent intelligent, possessed of enthusiasm, endurance, dignity and grandeur, pure in character devotedly attached to the interests of the State, endowed with excellent conduct, strength, health, boldness, devoid of procrastination and fickleness of mind, of a loving nature and not of a disposition to excite enmity. According to Mahabharata, the person who achieves celebrity, who observes all restraints, who never feels jealous of others, who never does an evil act, who never abandons righteousness through lust, fear or covetousness or wrath who is clever in the transaction of business and who is possessed of wise and weighty speech should be the foremost among Ministers; persons well born and possessed of good behaviour, who are liberal and never indulge in brag, who are brave and respectable learned and full of resources, should be appointed as subordinate Ministers in the

different departments. Each Minister managed the affairs of his own department and all the Ministers collectively formed a sort of cabinet for purposes of combined action. But broadly, the responsibility of the Ministers was individual and not collective. Chanakya has drawn a distinction between the cabinet and the council of Ministers. The council of Ministers was an enlarged cabinet with the addition of Ministers without portfolios. Redistribution of portfolios was frequently done by the king in order to prevent Ministers becoming too powerful and to enable them to become acquainted with all kinds of work. Ministerial responsibility was an accepted canon and this is clear from the following passage from a Sanskrit work : "When anything wrong is done by the king, the fault is of the Minister for it is through the negligence of the driver that the elephant goes mad." As a rule, the Ministers led simple lives and most of them were renowned for their honesty, integrity and nobility of character.

Now, about the subordinate executive. The business of the State was divided into different departments, each of them being managed by a superintendent. Chanakya speaks of thirty departments. The superintendent of each department was assisted by a council or committee of three to five persons. The account department was the most important department. Attached to the Police department, was the intelligence department which was directly under the control of one of the Ministers. The reporters working in this department held a key position. They not only assisted in the detection of crimes but also supplied information to the Ministers regarding the loyal or disloyal feelings of the people and kept them acquaint-

ed with the conduct of Government officials. The reporters worked under various guises, as recluses, ascetics, desperadoes, buffoons, commercial travellers, physicians, musicians, etc. They were the eyes and ears of the Executive Government. The most trustworthy men were appointed to fill the post of the reporter. Over the superintendents of the various departments, there was a class of Inspecting officers to see to the efficient working of the departments.

Great care was taken in the selection of the right type of persons for public service. According to Agnipurana, virtuous men should be employed for work which requires a high degree of moral culture. The king should select only those who are above corruption. Promotion was by merit and a trained bureaucracy contributed much to the efficiency of administration. Public servants were paid on a liberal scale and meritorious service was specially rewarded. Salaries were paid in cash or kind. Taxation was not excessive. According to Chanakya, taxes should be collected as wool is sheared from sheep without causing the least injury. Public welfare was the guiding principle in the expenditure of public funds. "Just as the sun takes moisture from the earth to give it back a thousand fold, so the king gathers taxes from the people only to provide for their welfare." Village self-Government was in an advanced stage. In their corporate capacity, the villagers constructed and maintained works of public utility and undertook measures tending to the improvement of the village. And those who took lead in such matters received rewards and honours from

Continued on page 33

Characteristics of Bureaucracy

M. G.

Bureaucracy has been described as a form of social organisation for administering the affairs of a formal organisation. It is more or less a social invention for administering a heterogeneous group of people in a corporate activity. Bureaucracy is necessary in all large-scale organisations. In all big organisations, there are three elements, one the top leadership which lays down policies and programmes and then the bottom layer which carries out the orders of the top layer. In between come those whose duty it is to supervise the execution of the plans and programmes of those at the top. The middle layer constitutes the bureaucracy of the organisation. In any large organisation, it is not practicable for the top people to lay down the policies and programmes and at the same time to supervise their execution. Some of the tasks of direction have to be delegated below the level of top leaders. This has led to the rise of a bureaucracy or a body of functionaries who play the administrative role. They occupy thus an important place in the structure of any organisation. In the field of public administration, the common man, however, often takes a prejudiced view of the bureaucrat. He is sometimes inclined to look upon the system of bureaucracy as one for not getting things done efficiently. He may look upon the bureaucrat as an expert in wasting time, money and energy. Part of this prejudice of the common man is due to the circumstances under which the bureaucrat worked. He was often the agent of alien rulers under colonial rule and had to share all the odium associated with foreign rulers. Part of the

prejudice is also due to the way in which he conducted himself towards the public.

A bureaucracy has certain well-marked structural features. One is that in a bureaucracy, the office is the sole occupation of the holder. He is in every sense a full-time servant. He should not have any other interest; he should not spend his time in any other pursuits. His sole concern should be the office he holds and the fulfilment of the responsibilities which the office carries. He has also clearly defined jurisdiction and responsibilities. Of course this is essential in all big organisations where many people work together towards the same goal. Where there is a lack of clearcut duties and jurisdiction, confusion is bound to prevail. Those responsible for allocating functions in a bureaucracy have to take special care to see that such allocation is done in a crystal clear fashion. Thirdly, the office of bureaucrat is subject to the discipline of the entire organisation. He cannot have his own way. He works in a team and he like others in the team has to subject himself to the discipline of the entire organisation. The offices in a bureaucracy are arranged in a pyramid of authority and responsibility. This is very fundamental to the concept of bureaucracy. This only enables bureaucracy to work as a team smoothly and without friction. The proper arrangement of authority and responsibility in a descending order is the key to the efficient working of a bureaucracy.

Now about a few operational features of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is rational by virtue of the

fact that it involves control of an organisation on the basis of knowledge. The performance of those in bureaucracy is judged by superiors not in terms of who they are but in terms of what they do. The second rational aspect of bureaucracy is its impersonality. Objectivity is the cardinal feature of its operation. It does not recognise general, social or economic distinctions. It is no respecter of persons. It does not make fish of one or flesh of another. Everything and everybody is equal in its eyes. The over-devotion of bureaucracy to rules and regulations has been attacked as one of its weakest points. To it, rules are an end and not a means to an end. This devotion to rules makes it difficult for it to adapt itself to individual cases. Sometimes it may result in injustice in individual cases. It is impossible for rules to be framed to cover all contingencies. Rules are intended to provide only a broad guidance. They are just like road signals which warn travellers against possible dangers. Public servants often-times

take wrong decisions because of their over-devotion to rules. It is important for civil servants to keep rules in their proper places without unduly enthroning them above human beings. This excessive devotion to rules leads to conservatism, timidity and loss of initiative. The mind loses its flexibility and becomes rather wooden. This pit-fall has to be guarded against by every civil servant. The civil servant's stand-offishness has been a well-worn theme since a long time past. His domineering attitude has been constantly satirised both in the press, the platform and in books on administration. This was to some extent inevitable in the colonial set-up. But with the goal of the welfare State, the bureaucratic attitude is slowly losing ground. The civil servant of the Welfare State cannot afford to keep away from the people. With schemes of democratic decentralisation under way, he has to be close to the people instructing them and guiding them, leading them as a friend and philosopher, and not driving them as was done in the Police State.

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the king. Village administration was free from the vexatious interference of the Government. The stability of village administration was largely responsible for keeping the country intact, in spite of changing dynasties and foreign invasions.

According to the Hindu theory, the State always depended on three powers, namely, Mantra sakthi, Prabhu sakthi and Utsaha sakthi.

The first means good advice and counsel, the second means sound finance and the third means initiative and sustained action. Ancient India had all these and hence her prosperity. Administrators in the modern Welfare State can draw a number of lessons from the way in which the ancient land was administered in the hoary past, despite the fact that conditions have changed much since then.

A great and good Administrator

The illustrious career of James Thomason

G. K. T.

The British rule in India produced many notable administrators. Their reputation rested on different foundations. Some achieved greatness through their military exploits others by their administrative reforms. A third by their passion to westernise everything Indian. A fourth by their humanitarian services. James Thomason was a great administrator but he was also a good administrator. To his more serious qualities as an able administrator, he added the zeal of a missionary, the sympathy of a social worker, and the warm heartedness of a humanitarian. We may come across in history many great administrators but it is rare to find one who combined both greatness and goodness.

James Thomason was the son of British missionary in India. He inherited from his father his broad humanity and warm heart for the rural folk. He joined the service of the East India Company in 1822. He spent a short time in the college at Fort William, studying the oriental languages and then was attached to the judicial branch of the administration. Later he became the Registrar of the Sadr Court. By 1832, he was promoted as Collector. It was as a Collector that James Thomason hit the headlines. His subsequent elevation as Lieut. Governor was chiefly due to his solid work as Collector.

As a district officer, he was a man of the masses. His heart was always with the poor people for whom he never spared himself. He proved himself the helper of the helpless, the supporter of the weak and the protector of the oppressed. He

realised that the truest improvement must spring from the people themselves. Good Government, he said, would produce that disposition in the people which would lead to self-help and self-improvement. As a Collector, he was noted as a man of action. He always strove for results. He had great faith in the potentialities of extensive touring. Says his biographer "One main spring of his success was the use he made of the opportunities afforded by these tours for promoting the physical development of the country, improving the social status of the inhabitants and becoming acquainted with the merits and faults of public servants of all grades. In the course of his tours, he mixed freely with the people and gathered without difficulty among other things the drift of native sentiments. During his rides, drives and walks, he would try to catch the tone and feel the pulse of the people. He also obtained an insight into the character and performance of the different categories of public servants. This enabled him to put the right man in the right place. In a private letter, he once wrote that he had six appointments vacant and six officers wanting appointments but unluckily the men did not suit the places. Of the practical importance of touring he himself has expressed his views as follows. "It is not in the secretariat bureau alone or in the private study that administrative capacity is to be gained. The views of enlightened officers may be thoroughly mastered and valuable notes and memoranda may be multiplied. But no study will supply the place of personal experience and so long as an officer has not himself mixed with the

people and come into immediate contact with them as their district officer, his opinions cannot properly speaking, be called his own, since they are grounded not upon personal observations, but upon the reports of others."

His experience as a collector stood him in good stead when he became the Lieut Governor of the then North-West Province. He always worked with a sense of mission and he worked hard. His industry was colossal and he expected all his subordinates to work as hard as he did. He realised at the outset that the success of any administration depended largely on the efficiency of the officers. Their efficiency mainly consisted in their knowing their duties and how to discharge them. To educate public servants to this end he issued two booklets one under the title "Directions to Collectors", and the other entitled "Directions to the Settlement officers." He had realised that the revenue department was the most important department of the State and efficiency of that department counted for much in the general level of administrative efficiency. Thus through education, he sought to improve the efficiency of the services. Next he devoted attention to their integrity. He improved the conditions of service so far as possible in order to lessen the chances of temptation for them. He also inculcated kindness to native officials. He observed, "Every effort should be used to render the performance of their (Native official's), duties as little as possible burdensome to them; great care should be taken to maintain the respectability of Tahsildars. They should be selected with discrimination and after enquiry into the goodness of their character as well as their official capacity. They should be received and treated with consideration...."

He also exhorted officials to be kind and considerate to the public, watch their interest and vindicate their rights. James Thomason also initiated a number of far-reaching measures. Having become familiar with the miseries of the people following a period of drought, he concentrated upon promoting irrigation. The Ganges canal is a monument to his vision and foresight. Similarly, he was always conscious of the importance of roads. Even in those days, he realised that roads were the carriers of civilisation and in this country, it was an indispensable prerequisite to economic improvement. With a view to train up a body of Indian Engineers, he founded the Roorkee Engineering College which even today serves as a fitting memorial to his great solicitude for the welfare of the Indian masses. Above all, he was one of the early pioneers in the field of elementary education. He was for having a school for each village. Where it was possible to get private agencies to start schools, he did so. Otherwise, he insisted that Government should step in. Education alone, he pointed out, could elevate a nation morally.

After his premature death in 1853, a flood of tributes threw light on the varied qualities of this great and good administrator. People praised his devotion to duty, his self-abnegation and his tender appreciation of the efforts of others. The Government in the course of a notification observed, "Conspicuous ability, devotion to public service and a conscientious discharge of every duty have marked each step of his honourable course; while his surpassing administrative capacity, his extensive knowledge of affairs, his clear judgment, his benevolence of character and suavity of demeanour have adorned and exalted the high position which he was wisely selected to fill."

Emoluments and Efficiency

Madras Pay Commission Report analysed

(CONTRIBUTED)

There is no doubt that the Madras Pay Commission has done a difficult job in the most satisfactory manner possible. Press comments on the report have been by and large, favourable. The Government also have accepted the main recommendations of the Commission. The pay scales have been revised and the bulk of the dearness allowance has been merged with the basic pay. The minimum remuneration of the last grade Government servants has been fixed at Rs. 60 and that of a clerk at Rs. 100. The dearness allowance has been refixed in the light of the upgraded scales of pay. The revised dearness allowance is Rs. 10 up to a basic pay of Rs. 150 and Rs. 20 up to a basic pay of Rs. 300. There is no dearness allowance for those drawing Rs. 300 and above. The Commission has also reduced the varying salary scales from 500 to 100 standard scales and long time scales have been abridged so that employees at the various levels could reach their maximum sooner. The Commission has also recommended annual increments to gazetted officers as against biennial increments as at present. The Commission has also found that parity with Central salaries is impracticable in the present circumstances and has marshalled a series of convincing arguments in support of their position. They say that in any Federal set-up such disparities are inevitable and has instanced the case of U.S.A. and Canada. The Commission has observed that the scales of pay has to be determined by regional differences in economic development and says that the adoption of the Central scales is clearly beyond the resources of the

State. The Commission, however, holds the view that these disparities are compensated by a number of special advantages which the State Government servants enjoy. These include quicker chances of promotion in the State, substantial educational and medical facilities and house rent allowance to low paid State employees. They have suggested that in order to make medical concessions, more effective special dispensaries should be opened in large offices in the city of Madras and in district headquarters attached to the offices of Collectors.

Side by side with improvement in emoluments and the provision of better amenities, the Commission has suggested a number of measures to increase the output in public offices. One is the reduction of public holidays from 26 to 15 and the reduction of casual leave from 15 to 12. Working hours have also been extended and would begin from 10-30 a.m. to 5 p.m. Instead of penultimate Saturday, the second Saturday of every month will be a holiday for State Government servants in future, as in the case of Central Government employees. The Commission's observations about the pay-roll of peons in Government offices is worth noting by every State and the Centre. The ranks of peons have swelled out of all proportions during the Independence period. In the Madras State, they number 17,000 accounting for a wage bill of Rs. 1.2 crores. The Commission says that the institution of peons is a relic of the past and in the present context of affairs, there is much scope for economy and efficiency in respect of their ranks. They hold the view that residence

peons are not strictly necessary and that every big office should have a receptionist with a pool of peons who can be drawn upon by officers when necessary. The Commission has also rightly emphasised the need for general economy and efficiency.

With the improvements in the remuneration of the lower ranks of public servants especially, one of the greatest hurdles in the way of promoting administrative efficiency has been eliminated. The stage is now set fair for an accelerated pace in the promotion of efficiency. No public servant can validly contend in future that he is inadequately paid and therefore he cannot put out his best. But mere increase in salaries will not result automatically in the increase of efficiency. Efficiency depends partly on other factors also. Of these the most important is the outlook of a public servant in relation to his duties and responsibilities. Missionaries of old whether Buddhist or Christian, turned out solid work not because they were paid well, but because their outlook proved the greatest stimulus to hard work. They had a sense of mission—a sense which made light of all difficulties and obstacles and which made them strive ceaselessly until they gained their end. It is this spirit that is wanted today for the Welfare State we are striving for. A sense of dedication, devotion to duty and a realisation of the greatness of the task involved in building a new and better India, are integral elements in the outlook necessary for a welfare State public servant. Unless

and until this outlook is developed by public servants, any amount of efforts to promote his efficiency may be like building on sandy foundations. You may reduce the number of holidays, you may increase the working hours, you may cut short casual leave, but all these are of little avail unless the public servant has developed the correct outlook. It is a misconception that mere increase in the number of working hours or in the number of working days would result in an increase in output. For instance, if you visit a public office on any part of the day, you may find it hard to find the full complement of the staff working. Often times some seats will be vacant. During working hours, normally, everybody is expected to be in his seat. This has to be insisted on in every public office if the proposed extension of working hours should produce tangible results. Gazetted officers also have been benefited by the Pay Commission's recommendations. They also need to develop the correct outlook in relation to their work and duties. The responsibility of creating the proper outlook in public servants of all classes devolves on the Governments both Central and State. Service unions, associations as well as Whitley Councils can do much now that one of the main grievances that has been agitating their minds, has been considerably redressed. The man in the street will be watching with interest the reaction to better emoluments and greater amenities on administrative efficiency.

Administration has become the heart of modern Governments.

Lessons in Democracy

M. RUTHNASWAMY

XIV. The Budget

Q. What is the Budget?

A. The Budget is a statement of the expenditure and income of a State.

Q. Why is it necessary to have one?

A. As in a well-conducted family there should be a family budget, i.e., statement of the annual income of the family and the expected expenditure so that the family should adjust its income and thus manage to live without the burden of debt, so in a well-conducted State, there should be a statement every year of the expected expenditure and the expected income of the State so that the State also may live an orderly, thrifty, life free from extravagance and debt which comes from spending more than one earns.

Q. Who makes the Budget of the State?

A. The Government who is responsible for the administration of the affairs of the State in its Finance Department which is charged with the administration of the finances of the State.

Q. When is it made?

A. It is published about the end of one financial year and relates to the expenditure and income of the next year; but the work of preparing it, i.e., the estimates of expenditure begins as early as October or November.

Q. What is the financial year?

A. It is not the same as the ordinary year which begins in January and ends in December; it begins in April and ends in March.

Q. Why is the financial year different?

A. In England, the reason is historical, because from time immemorial, it has been so; in India it is because the agricultural year ends in March when all the harvests have been gathered and the agriculturists are able to pay their dues to the State; till recently land revenue was the largest source of the income of the State.

Q. Why must the Budget be made and published every year; cannot it be made for a number of years, say 5 years at a time?

A. That proposal has been made from time to time as giving more scope for plans and proposals, but it has not been adopted and it should be dangerous to adopt a Budget for more than one year at a time.

Q. What is the danger?

A. The danger is that most Governments cannot be trusted to look ahead more than a year at a time; they would be tempted to make extravagant proposals of expenditure and go wrong in estimates of income; they do that even now with an annual budget; moreover, under the democratic system of Government, the people and their representatives can exercise proper check and control over expenditure more effectively if the Budget is presented to them every year and they must have a say on the Budget every year if they are to exercise effective control over the Government.

Q. Why should the people and their representatives have any say or check or control over the Budget?

A. After all, it is the people's money that the Government takes through taxation as its income and

it is for the people to see that the Government spends that money as expenditure in the proper way; it is only by exercising watchful check and control over the Budget that it can make the Government govern according to the wishes of the people and for the welfare of the people; in England the House of Commons became a power through insisting from the beginning on Government acting according to the constitutional principle. Redress of grievances by the Government must come before grant of supply by the Commons.

Q. How is this control over the Budget exercised by the people and their representatives in Parliament?

A. Every year in March, the Government presents the Budget, a statement of the expected expenditure and revenue of the next year and calls upon the Parliament to approve and sanction it so that collection of the taxes may be authorized and the expenditure by vote of Parliament be allowed?

Q. How can the members of Parliament make their way through the huge mass of matter that makes up the modern Budget, growing as it does to 200-300 pages of a book of folio size?

A. Although a modern budget is voluminous yet there are certain principles governing the making of a Budget which make it manageable and readable with a little effort.

Q. What are those principles?

A. One of the most important is that expenditure must first be estimated.

Q. Why should expenditure come first in the making of a State Budget whereas in the making of a family Budget income comes first and the expenditure of the family is adapted to its income according

to the well-known maxim "Cut your coat according to your cloth?"

A. Expenditure and considerations of expenditure come first because there are certain items of expenditure which are vital to the very existence of a State; the defence of the State which protects the State against attacks on its independence from outside, the police of the State which defends it against internal disorder need unavoidable expenditure and the State must provide for it if it is to live and survive at all; similarly expenditure on the other necessary departments of Government like the Finance Department which sees to the collection of taxes, the land Revenue Department which sees to the collection of land revenue is absolutely necessary. Expenditure comes before Revenue of a State Budget for as Baron Louis, one of the great Finance Ministers of France in the last century said, "In a State, there is no fixed Revenue but there is fixed expenditure."

Q. But will not this maxim that expenditure and considerations of expenditure must come first lead to extravagance, because departments of Government especially under elected Ministers will want to spend all the money they can?

A. That is why a distinction must be made between absolutely necessary expenditure and not so necessary expenditure; the Government must provide money for the defence, the police and other necessary departments of the State, and then when there is money to provide for other things like Education, Health, Agricultural and Industrial progress.

Q. Cannot the Parliament add to the expenditure over and above that asked for by Government; cannot a member of the Parliament propose

addition to the expenditure for any object which he can get a majority to deem necessary?

A. No, the Government knows best from the information available to it, and nobody else, how much expenditure the income of the State can bear, and once members of a Parliament are allowed to propose additional expenditure there would be no limit to such expenditure and the Government responsible for the administration of the finances would find it impossible to find the money; so following the practice of the English House of Commons, there is a clause in the Indian Constitution preventing such proposals by private members for additional expenditure to be incorporated in the Budget presented by Government; the Parliament may reduce the expenditure but cannot increase it.

Q. What are the other principles governing the making of a good Budget?

A. The most important are the following:—

(1) The Budget must present a complete account of the expenditure and the income of the State during the year—in all departments and in all activities of the Government.

(2) It must be divided into convenient chapters and sections showing the expenditure on the several items like defence, police and the income from several sources of revenue.

(3) It must exhibit the expenditure and the income under particular headings so that expenditure may be clearly controlled and revenue accurately estimated; for instance under defence the Budget cannot just say Rs. so much for defence, it must go down into particulars and say how much for buildings, how much for guns, how much for ammunition, how much for

ships, how much for officers and how much for other ranks; and in the revenue side, *e.g.*, in Customs revenue, how much derived from land customs and how much from sea customs and in regard to the latter, how much on cloth, how much on cars, on machinery and so on; this rule of particularity or speciality of the Budget as it has been called is necessary not only for accuracy in estimate of revenue and expenditure but to enable effective control by the Parliament over the financial administration of the country.

Q. Why should the Legislature have control over the financial administration?

A. The Legislature is the representative assembly of the people and as such, must know how the money collected by the Government from the people as taxes for the Government of the country is spent by it and whether all the taxes collected from the people are necessary for the needs of the Government.

Q. Are taxes the only source of the revenue of the State?

A. Alas no—when taxes are not enough for large projects like irrigation works or to finance a war in order to spare the common people, the burden of too much taxation, modern Governments borrow money—such loans making up what is called the National Debt.

Q. From whom do Governments borrow money?

A. From those that have money to spare to lend Government.

Q. Then why should not Governments get all the money they need by borrowing from the well-to-do?

A. In the first place, they cannot get all the money they need by

borrowing; and borrowing of loans by Governments are also a burden on the common people.

Q. How are State loans a burden on the common people?

A. The loans have to be paid sometime; Governments have to set apart some money every year for the ultimate repayment of the loan; this fund for repayment of Government loans is called the Sinking Fund in England; and this money has to be provided from the taxes.

Q. Is the loan or National Debt account shown in the Budget?

A. Yes, the people and the representatives of the people must know how much their Government is a debtor! This account must be kept and shown separate from the ordinary or Revenue Account of the Budget.

Q. Is it then only to a limited extent that Governments can borrow money to finance their administration?

A. Yes, the burden of the National Debt is borne by the people and a Government which borrows too much money may not be able to pay the interest and repay the loan at the appointed time and then it would have to proclaim itself insolvent or bankrupt—and that would lead to a revolution.

Q. Then how does the Legislature exercise control over the Budget?

A. When every year the Budget is presented by the Finance Minister to the Legislature, the members of the Legislature scrutinize the budget in general and in particular.

Q. What does general scrutiny of the Budget mean?

A. It means that the main items of expenditure and income are exa-

mined by the members—one member shows how and why this item of expenditure is too much, another member shows why that tax is unnecessary or too high and it should be reduced, a third member may show how and why this or that department of administration is not worth, on account of its faults and defects, the money spent on it or that other department is wasting money on wild-cat schemes; in fact the general discussion on the Budget offers an opportunity for an annual inquest on the administration by the representative of the people in the Legislature.

Q. What does the particular scrutiny of the Budget consist in?

A. When each item of expenditure in the shape of Demands by a particular department or Ministry is put forward by it, the members of the Legislature go into detailed examination of each such item and the smallest part of that item and then allow it or reject it or reduce it.

Q. Then does this Budget discussion in the Legislature take a long time?

A. Yes, it ought to for the whole financial administration in the Government is in question and the Representative Assembly ought to have full opportunity and enough time for examining it.

Q. Is the time allowed in Indian Legislatures for examination of the Budget enough?

A. No, for it is finished at the most within 2 or 3 months whereas in England it takes nearly 6 months.

Q. What other defects are there in the Indian system of Budget examination by the Legislature?

A. The English system of organizing Budget discussion through com-

mittees of the whole House, (when discussion can take place as in a Committee a member being allowed to speak more than once) the Estimates Committee, the Committee of Ways and Means, is not used. Only the Public Accounts Committee which on behalf of the Legislature scrutinizes the accounts of the past year is used in India.

Q. When does the Revenue side of a Budget come up for examination?

A. When a Bill called the Finance Bill for the year is presented—it is presented at the end of the Budget session.

Q. Is then the Budget the most important business of a legislature?

A. Yes—Finance is the key and the index to good government; a State whose finances are in good order, which does not run into big deficits, whose expenditure closely follows income, whose tradition is not burdensome, whose national debt is not high, is a State that can be sure of peace and prosperity. And the Budget season gives an opportunity to the Representative As-

sembly to survey and overhaul the whole administration.

Q. How can the Legislature ensure good financial administration?

A. By the members studying the Budget, although it may be, as modern Budgets are, voluminous, study in detail the parts of the Budget they are interested in, get up all the facts and in the general as well as in the special debates on each item of the Budget contribute their quota to the knowledge and wisdom that an examination of the Budget requires.

Q. Has every member of the Legislature a duty to take part in the Budget debates?

A. Yes, if he has something useful to say, it is a duty he owes to himself, to his constituency, and the country. It is only by the alertness of the Legislature and the integrity of the Finance Ministry that a good Budget is made. If as Baron Louis said, "the Budget ought to be the truth itself, hiding no expenditure and including all the revenue of the State," the co-operation of the Executive and the Legislature is necessary.

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Rambles in officialdom

(CANDIDUS)

V

On Crowcatching

A terminology distinctively Bharatanian English—and of a southern dialect at that is Crowcatching, an art very useful in official life. It has nothing of servility about it as sometimes misunderstood; it is quite a dignified one and practised by some of the top-most in official hierarchy. That a lot of artistry is required to practise it successfully goes without saying. One is reminded in this connection of the fable of Aesop of the fox and the crow, the crow succumbing to the sweet soliloquy of the fox (it is well to remember here that the fox never addressed the crow direct, but only went on musing aloud about the enchanting appearance of the crow with a guess thrown about the sweetness of her voice and a longing for hearing the same—at any rate this is the original version of the fable). The crow whose vanity was aroused thus (and pray who in this world is completely devoid of vanity), absent-mindedly dropped the cheese it carried in its beak when it started to caw just to oblige the fox and to assure him that his guess was not wrong. No doubt, it was one of the weak moments of the crow, a bird not proverbially gullible, but having more than its own share of cunning; with the star of the fox in the ascendant, the artistry of Mr. Reynard in the situation notwithstanding—a conspiracy of circumstances, if you may call it so.

A veteran crowcatcher has codified the working rules of those of his kind in the following way:—

(i) Know all about your boss in his official and private

life up-to-date after gathering information from various sources. Store it for future use. As it is valuable, keep it to yourself, instead of retailing it to others. Know in particular his likes and dislikes, his strength and weaknesses, his fads and forte.

(ii) Never rub him on the wrong side consciously or unconsciously.

(iii) Never be in a haste to get his favours.

(iv) Let no opportunity of serving him in anything—not excluding his family chores—slip you. For this you should be an all rounder and not a mere file-burrower. However, you should not be too forward in proffering your services and show all your tact, particularly in the beginning.

(v) Never give him an impression that you are a flattering type of person. If you have any sweet word about him—and you must find many occasions for such—say it indirectly preferably in the presence of a third party; better still in his hearing, as if you were unaware of his proximity, to another; or best in his absence to a third party who is sure to convey it to him in a casual manner sooner or

later. Man lives not by food alone, and even praise can often be the pabulum. Remember that this is an important working rule, as no one dislikes a compliment which he feels (let it be right or wrong), has been genuinely paid to him.

- (vi) Meet him as often as you can and find excuses for the same even if there be no real work; but never keep him company when he is bored or busy, unless you are particularly asked to.
- (vii) Give him positive indications of your strong points, but never expose your weaknesses. Give him no cause for finding fault in your work.
- (viii) Find out and brief acceptable third parties who have contact with your boss for speaking casually in your favour.
- (ix) Stalk him as you would a wild animal, never losing sight of him.
- (x) Remember there may be others in the game like you. Show no signs of competition. Bide your time.
- (xi) Once he is set for you, you can have your own way with him, but not before. You should be able to know the stage of fruition. Also do not forget that there are some eccentrics who when showing signs of coming round suddenly turn their course for no apparent reason.

It will be clear from the dozen working rules given above that it

is a very astute game with nothing out of the way in it. A lot of psychological understanding is needed for its successful practice. Even Dale Carnegie, the celebrated author of many success books, may have to take a few lessons from a past-master in the line.

One of the chief qualities that you should cultivate for the successful practice of this art is adjustability, that flexible virtue which saves you in many a stress and storm. You should not be one who will stick to some "principles" at all costs. In government service, you very often have changes of bosses drawn from a vast pool and unless you know how to adjust yourself to each you are lost; and this adjustment should be quick. An easy way of getting into disfavour with the new boss is to talk approvingly of the old to him in any context, particularly when there is a marked difference between the two. At the same time, there is no use of dragging in the old boss for any unfavourable comparison—not only for currying favour with the new, but even in a matter of fact way—for the new one may be shrewd enough to think that you are of the type to talk similarly about him when he is gone or even behind his back. The best policy is to forget the old boss and attend to the new. All the qualities which go well with any successful diplomat will any day suit any successful crowcatcher.

When you are yourself a crowcatcher, when the turn comes that you are the boss, you naturally expect the other man to do similarly to you and look askance at the one who is incapable of pursuing the art with you. Very often it becomes with you a way of official living, so to speak. And just imagine how

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Experience in small holdings

PROF. OTTO SCHILLER

III

Rural Co-operatives

When hundred years ago Raiffeisen started the rural co-operative movement in Germany, many farmers were hopelessly indebted to private moneylenders who took advantage of their economic weakness. The Raiffeisen-principle of self-help at first brought about a quick development of rural credit societies. But co-operative activities soon expanded to supply and marketing either by the transformation of existing credit societies into multipurpose societies or by the establishment of special societies for supply and marketing. Furthermore, the processing of agricultural products has more and more been organised on a co-operative basis.

There are at present 23,000 rural co-operative societies in Western Germany. 11,000 of them are credit societies, 2,400 societies for supply and marketing, 5,300 dairy societies for the processing of milk, 780 societies for the co-operative use of machinery (like threshing machines, tractors, etc.) and the rest belonging to a number of other types. The membership of rural societies is about 38 lakhs of persons mainly belonging to the group of middle and small farmers. Especially in processing and marketing of agricultural produce, co-operative societies are playing a very important role. Their share in processing and marketing is 80 per cent for milk, 42 per cent for grain, 30 per cent for potatoes, fruits and vegetables, but only 17 per cent for animals and meat. It is not the goal to obtain a monopoly in marketing for the co-operative societies. They are to develop in free competition to the private

tradesman. Usages of private business, however, are favourably influenced by the existence of co-operative societies. There is no co-operative farming in the proper sense in Western Germany. 100 years of intensive co-operative activities have not resulted in the transition from individual to co-operative farming. Co-operation is understood as a measure to assist and foster member-farms so that the question did not arise to have the member-farms dissolved by their amalgamation. On the other hand, there are some co-operative activities which have to do also with the processes of production. For instance, co-operative societies for the keeping of breeding male animals, promoting animal husbandry in peasant farms, have been known since long. The co-operative use of tractors applied in many multipurpose societies generally is confined to those working processes which are not strictly time-bound. But the tractor has made headway into the small farms not only through multipurpose co-operative societies or special societies for maintenance of machinery but also through private persons, businessmen or farmers, who are hiring out a tractor to peasant farms. There are also legal forms of joint use of machinery other than co-operative, as for instance, partnerships. In many cases there are only 2—5 farmers involved in the joint use of tractors so that for this purpose a co-operative society cannot be established, since by German legislation this requires a minimum number of 7 members. Partnerships

for the joint use of machinery are promoted by Government credits and other measures. More recently some other common institution, be it on a co-operative or on a communal basis have made headway in the German villages, viz., common laundries, bakeries, deep-freezers, etc. These institutions are based on the concept that it is not enough to relieve the farmer from physical work by mechanizing the farming processes. Modern agriculture requires the rationalization of home economy to facilitate the work of the female family-members as well.

There are also some examples in Western Germany for the systematic use of co-operative methods in farming operations but without turning to collective or joint use of land. It is rather a form of individual farming on co-operative lines. This new form of co-operative activities can be observed, for instance, in viticulture. In many cases, in connection with land consolidation, a large vineyard is established consisting of many small plots belonging to individual landowners but cultivated in a uniform way with the same varieties, the same cultivation methods, etc. Thus, the co-operative use of the mechanical plough, joint measures of plant protection, etc., are made possible regardless of the fact that every farmer is using his plot of land individually. The uniform way of cultivation furthermore has many advantages for the marketing of the produce which in these societies is also organized on a co-operative basis. Similar examples can be quoted for fruit-culture. In some rural communities specialized in tobacco-growing, the installation of a co-operative sprinkler-irrigation system has resulted in a common crop rotation in co-operative co-ordination of farming operations

carried out individually by the farmers on their plots of land. Although until now examples of this kind have not been numerous, they deserve to be mentioned because they are gradually spreading and may have a growing importance in future.

During the post-war period, the productivity of agriculture in Western Germany rose remarkably. From 1935-38 to 1955-57, the yields per acre, for instance, on an average of several years have increased for winter wheat from 2,160 to 2,690 lbs., for potatoes from 16,500 to 20,000 lbs., for sugarbeet from 28,800 to 30,000 lbs., etc. During 1950 to 1957, the average yields of milk per cow had also increased, namely, from 5,500 lbs. yearly to 6,700 lbs. This rise in productivity is connected with gradual progress in modernization and rationalization of agriculture. It cannot be said, however, that all farms in Western Germany, including the small and middle-size holdings or at least the majority of them, are representing completely modernized enterprises. The number of backward small farms characterized by primitive tools, cow-driven carts and entirely outmoded farm buildings is still big enough.

In small units, especially in part-time farms, relatively high yields may be achieved even without modern equipment. But in the long-run, this is not a satisfactory condition. The improvement of the agrarian structure and the modernization of the farms, therefore, nowadays are the main objects of agrarian policy in Western Germany. Some remarkable progress has already been achieved in this direction. The apprehension that in the age of modern techniques and the progress of mechanization, small

and middle-sized farms will not be able to compete, does not seem to be justified, if one observes how even in those farms modern techniques are making headway at a rapid pace. Furthermore, the view has gained ground that for the development of economy and especially of agriculture, the requirements of techniques and rationaliza-

tion are not the only determining factor but the needs of human nature are to be considered as well. This is also one of the reasons why in Western Germany it is the goal of agrarian policy to preserve the peasant economy in adequate sizes of holdings.

(Concluded)

Advisers who are merely yes men playing up to the Minister in the hope of personal advancement are just as dangerous as obstinate and obstructive no men.

Continued from page 44

unbearable a humdrum official life would be but for the leavening effects of such fine arts, like crow-catching in day-to-day matters.

Can you catch two crows at the same time? Definitely yes, with some experience. I have seen one who caught two fighting with each other, fighting not as crows, but as trained cocks. A study of the principles of the art will show that there is nothing partisan in yourself approaching either with a philosophical detachment, utilising the weaknesses of either to your own advantage without betraying them to the other. In spite of occa-

sional tight corners, you may in fact find more opportunities for yourself. You can continue in the good books of both, unless there is a *FAUX PAS* on your part.

And how about the dividends? Very rich without a doubt. Once you have succeeded with one or two bosses, remember you are a permanent success and promotions and prosperity will be round the corner waiting for you.* You may find yourself indispensable to the administration. And what more can one wish than Good Luck to you in your career.

For an Administrator's notebook

Basic duties of Rulers

The first duty of a civil servant is the efficient performance of the job at hand. A great Chinese classic written over two thousand years ago describes the basic duties of Rulers as nine in all. They are : cultivation of oneself, honouring men of worth, affectionate treatment of the Royal Family, high respect towards Ministers of State, courtesy to all officers, fatherly care of the common people, promotion of the hundred crafts, kindly treatment of strangers and the enlistment of the fervent loyalty of Fief-holders (Dependent feudal Rulers).

How to become more efficient

Henry Taylor in 1836 wrote a book under the title 'Statesman.' In this book, he has given a number of clues to Statesmen in order to enable them to do their jobs better. Some of these clues are useful for civil servants also. One is that the drudgery of an office should be encountered early. Nobody need suppose that he can become efficient without having been at some period of his life a thorough going drudge. Secondly order; calmness is the very essence of order. Thirdly despatch. "As fast as papers are received, the party who is to act upon them should examine them so

far as to ascertain whether any of them relate to business which requires immediate attention and should then separate and arrange them. A man of business should accustom himself when there is no ground of priority to deal first with the question of the greatest difficulty."

How to state a case

1. Begin with a naked narrative of facts and dates reserving all inferences and comments till the narrative statement is completed.

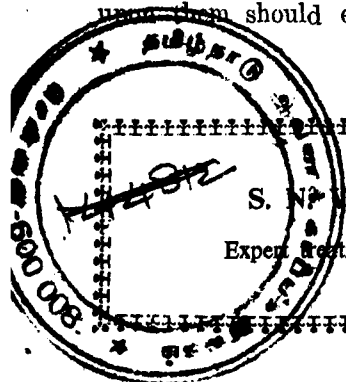
2. Doubtful facts should form a second division of the narrative in which the evidence for and against them should be stated and weighed and the uncertainties as much as possible cleared away.

3. Draw the inferences as modified by the uncertainties.

4. Set out the measures proper to be taken upon the survey of the entire case.

Indecisiveness

The man who has confirmed habits of indecisiveness will come in time to look upon postponement as the first object in all cases ; and wherever it seems practicable will bend all his faculties to accomplish it.



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