

THE NEW⁷²³ ADMINISTRATOR

Vol. III No. 7

MAY 1961

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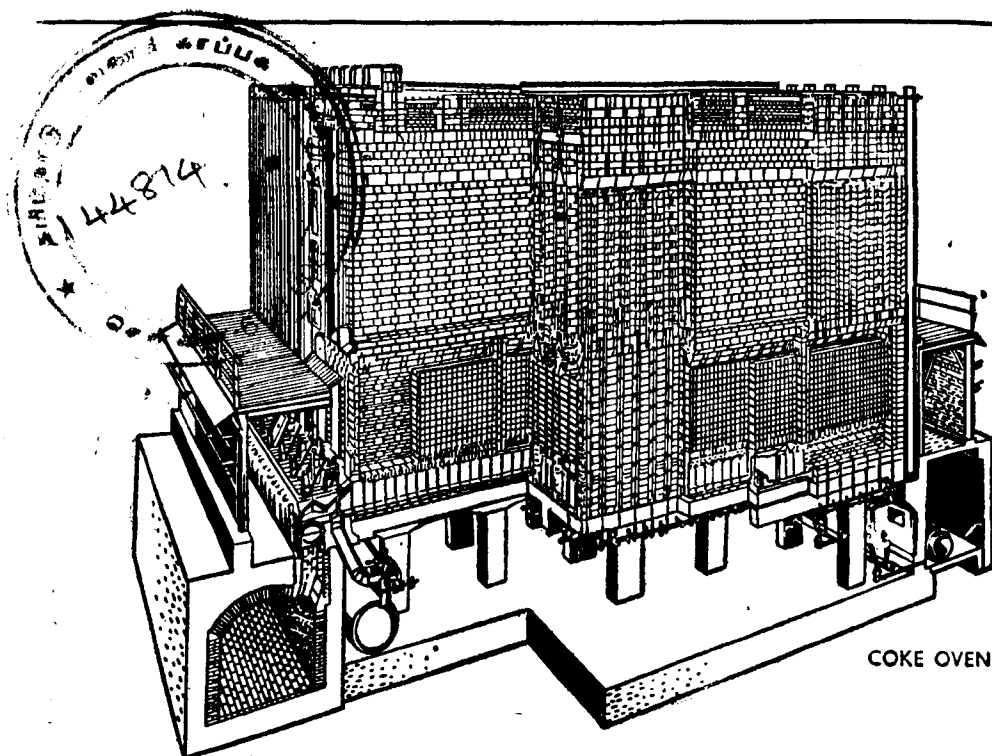
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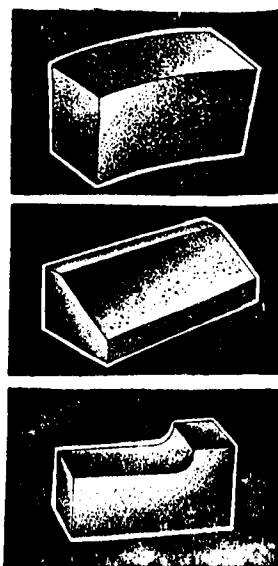
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WRITING AND ADMINISTRATION

Some of the best administrators and Statesmen in the world have been good writers. President Woodrow Wilson of U. S. A. was an eminent Professor. Mr. Churchill's fame as a writer is rivalled only by that of his reputation as an administrator and Statesman. Lord Curzon one of the most notable Viceroys that had ever come to this country was noted for his proficiency in writing. His notes and drafts were good pieces of literature. Mount Stuart Elphinstone, another noted administrator was also a good penman who was a storehouse of knowledge acquired mainly through extensive reading. Incidentally, he had no high academic attainments. Coming to more recent times our Prime Minister has an important place today in the world of letters. His "Discovery of India" is rightly considered to be a masterpiece in English Literature. His "Glimpses into world history" is a mine of information not only for students of history but also for laymen. Yet another case is that of Mr. Kennedy the present President of U. S. A. who turned his back on a writing career to go into politics to become the President of the United States. He has been the author of a best selling book when he was 23. As a first term U. S. Senator he produced another best selling and this time a prize winning volume. He has published a collection of his speeches, written scores of magazine articles and is the only President who has been a contributor to the Encyclopædia Britannica.

From all these one must not get away with the impression that only administrators and Statesmen require knowledge and penmanship. This is a fallacy. Most of the members of the Indian Civil Service who had reached the topmost rung of the ladder achieved that distinction mainly through their exceptional knowledge and writing capacity. Many of them were not only good administrators but good authors too. They ascended the

ladder to fame not only by hard work but also by systematic reading and continuous acquisition of knowledge. They acquitted themselves creditably in whatever positions they had held. They concentrated their efforts on improving their equipment so that they might do better service to the Government they served and the people, whose destiny they guided. They have left their footprints on the sands of time.

Writing ability as an essential part of the equipment of not only administrators but public servants of the higher grades came to receive added importance with the installation of Parliamentary democracy and the enunciation of the welfare State ideal. Democracy has been described as a government by discussion. Discussion means clash of ideas. Ideas are the result of constant study, observation and hard work. In a democracy these ideas win acceptance through a process of persuasion. It is here that the importance of writing comes in. Generally the best administrators or best public servants in a democracy have been men with ideas and a facility of expression. These are more important in the context of a welfare State. Vast areas of new responsibilities have been taken over by the Welfare State. These increased responsibilities postulates better equipment on the part of public servants. Life has become complex and competitive. These in turn produce complex problems. Public servants and administrators can solve them successfully only if they have the necessary equipment. Education once acquired but not replenished later or a preoccupation with rules or procedures may not help much in these things. Ideas, ability of expression, information, a wide and progressive outlook, and a larger horizon must be in the repertory of a public servant of a Welfare State. People who lack these cannot deliver the goods.

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News and Notes

Road Development

The main objectives of a Twenty-year Road Development Programme drawn up in 1943, generally known as the "Nagpur Plan", have been achieved with the completion of road development schemes undertaken during the First and Second Plans. The total mileage of surfaced roads is now about 44,000 and of unsurfaced roads over 2,50,000. The Nagpur Plan had envisaged that by 1963, the country would have 1,23,000 miles of surfaced roads and 2,08,000 miles of unsurfaced roads. One of the major objectives of the Third Plan is to provide a road linking each village with the nearest railway station or main road. During the ten years of planning, important National Highway links have been developed and expanded. State and District roads have been built and a considerable mileage of village roads has been created largely through the effort of the people themselves participating in road building programmes on a voluntary and community basis. The country has now a mileage of about 15,000 under the National Highway system for the development and maintenance of which the Central Government is directly responsible. There are also important inter-State roads (not classified as National Highways) like the West Coast road, linking Maharashtra, Mysore and Kerala, for which substantial assistance is given to the State Governments. Assistance is also provided for the construction of other roads, including roads in rural areas. A scheme which deserves particular mention is the Village Road Development Co-operative Scheme under which half the cost of the village roads built on co-operative basis is met by the Centre; the

other 50 per cent being provided by the States and the villagers contributing their share in the form of labour. The road development programme has been so framed and carried out that communication facilities in less developed areas are steadily brought up to the level of the comparatively better developed regions. Road transport has been developing fast in the country. At present, ten per cent of the long-distance traffic is carried by road but according to a twenty-year projection made by engineers, in 1981 nearly 246 million tons out of 800 million tons of the total long-distance traffic would be transported by road. This would mean a ten-fold increase in 20 years. The projection also envisages that by 1981, the country should have 2,52,000 miles of surfaced roads and 4,95,000 miles of unsurfaced roads.

Rural Leadership

The initiative and enterprise of local leaders has played a vital part in bringing about the transformation of many villages, towards better and prosperous life for their people. Shri Shridhar Sakharan Patil of the small Adivasi village of Nandore in Palghar Block of Maharashtra is one such leader, popularly known as the 'Thakkar Bapa' of the village. A keen social worker, he has initiated the Adivasis of the village into the secrets of improved methods of cultivation. He distributed improved seeds, sometimes free, to the whole village, popularised compost pits, organised a service cooperative, a library and a school, built a Panchayat Ghar with community labour and laid out a children's park. He has now prepared in consultation with the Gram Sabha a Five-Year

Plan for the further development of the village and its transformation into a picturesque resort for the people of Bombay, which is not far off. The Plan envisages construction of a community centre, a cooperative store, a godown, a public tank, a cooperative rice mill, better housing and an agricultural school. Shri Patil is not an Adivasi by birth. But he has been unanimously elected as Sarpanch of the Adivasi village; he says, because the Adivasis considered him a "near kith and kin". The secret of his popularity is his desire to share his prosperity with others of the village.

Programme for Labour

In the labour movement's growth in U.S.A. from three million to about seventeen million members in the last twenty years, the education of labour leaders and workers has become as essential to democratic progress as education in any other field. The worker, the public, and the union alike have an important stake in the worker's education and share equally in the resultant benefits. The entry of universities into the field of workers' education is one of the most significant developments in labour education. The University of Wisconsin's School for Workers, is one of the oldest in the field of university-labour cooperation. Seventeen other higher institutions of education have established year-round programmes for workers. Many other universities and colleges conduct smaller programmes—teacher-training courses at summer institutes, special courses, regular evening classes, and conferences. A most common method of worker training is the university extension class. During the recent past various universities and colleges have played host to the periodic University-Union Conference on Labour Education, conducted intensive labour-commu-

nity demonstration programmes in various communities, held short conferences on labour-community relations, and worked with unions to develop programmes for retired workers. The growth of active participation by workers and unions in community affairs since World War II is a noteworthy development. By greater participation in community affairs, the unions have sought to acquaint the public better with labour unions. Union education units work with State Governments and local organisations to prepare materials for use in schools to teach about labour. High-school students visit union headquarters, and union leaders address high-school students and parent-teacher groups. Unions also help public libraries establish basic collections on labour. While they encourage workers to use the libraries personally, they often borrow books, films, and displays for use at their headquarters. Library-union cooperation frequently includes discussion programmes at libraries on subjects of particular interest to union members and of informational value to non-union members of the community. Cultural activities are also an important part of union educational activities. Various unions sponsor classes in arts and crafts and music, free symphony concerts, and American and foreign exhibits.

Durgapur Project

It is the youngest of the three steel projects started so far in the public sector. During the year the first blast furnace with its capacity of 1270 tonnes daily produced nearly 3,22,000 tonnes of iron. Of this, nearly 2 lakh tonnes were sold inside the country and about 12,000 tonnes were exported. The performance of the furnace has been quite creditable inasmuch as it has been maintaining its capacity output for the last

three months and has on a few occasions produced more than its rated capacity. On January 23 last, the furnace produced 1,427 tonnes. The first coke oven battery which started production in November 1959, turned out till the end of last year nearly 4.28 lakh tonnes of coke. The steel melting shop with its three open hearth furnaces produced nearly 95,000 tonnes of steel ingots and the rolling mills turned out nearly 80,000 tonnes of blooms, 65,000 tonnes of billets and 15,000 tonnes of sleeper bars. Besides, the by-products plants of the coke ovens also gave a good performance. Last year, the total sale proceeds amounted to Rs. 7.25 crores, of which an amount of Rs. 36 lakhs was through export. The project contributed to the public exchequer Rs. 53 lakhs by way of excise duty and Rs. 1.53 crores as railways freight till the end of 1960. Durgapur Steel Project today employs nearly 11,000 on its pay list. The total wage bill for a month amounts to nearly Rs. 14.5 lakhs. Besides, the construction firms employ a large number of workers. Emphasis has been laid on the construction of the township which in the first phase is expected to accommodate 10,000 workers and staff. The area of the steel town which is nearly 16 square miles, is divided into five zones and housing in the first two zones have been completed while the third zone is being taken up for construction.

Labour Disputes

Mr. V. V. Giri, Governor of Kerala recently reiterated his view that "adjudication is enemy No. 1 of the working class" in India and should be scrapped from the statute book. Presiding at a lecture by Dr. Paul Prasow of California University on the role of trade unions in the American economy, Mr. Giri said overdependence of the workers on

adjudication weakened the trade union movement and made them less reliant on their own strength. Conciliation and voluntary arbitration were the only means of strengthening the movement. In this connexion he referred to the successful implementation of voluntary agreements in several undertakings in Kerala and said this was because the workers in Kerala were educated and understood the implications of such agreements better than their counterparts in other States. In the initial stages of the trade union movement when fear of victimisation deterred working class leadership springing up, outside leadership helped to organise the movement. He said the circumstances had now changed and hoped that workers' leadership would take over sooner or later, outside leadership confining itself to playing an advisory role. He pleaded for one union in each industry. Where rival unions existed, they could have a common committee to consider big issues, he added. He always felt that it was wrong for the workers to encourage outside leadership of trade unions. However, he did not believe in legislation to eschew outside leadership. It was only through persuasion and convention that they should avoid outside leadership and encourage working class leadership. Dr. Prasow said, trade unions in the U.S.A. had not traditionally requested Government assistance in collective bargaining. They preferred to settle their own problems with employers through negotiation, mediation and voluntary arbitration. They did not favour compulsory arbitration nor did the employers. Each side had the right to engage in strike or lock-out to protect its economic interests in regard to negotiating an agreement. But once an agreement had been signed, all disputes regarding

its interpretation were usually settled through voluntary arbitration. The unions did not generally engage directly in political activity, but they did have indirect influence in legitimate lobbying efforts through appearing before committees of the legislature. They were not affiliated to political parties. They concentrated on economic objectives.

Citizens Access to Parliament

In front of the Potsdam residence of the former kings of Prussia, there used to be a lime-tree which fulfilled a great purpose. To this tree, all the king's subjects could fasten letters and slips of paper on which they had written their complaints. They could be certain that the next time the king came riding out, he would take each piece of paper in his hand, study it thoroughly, and take his decisions appropriately. The position is easier now for the citizens in the Federal Republic. Here the Parliament is the link between the people and the Government, the channel along which all petitioners, complainants can direct their letters. Indeed, in the Federal Republic of Germany, the Parliament—the *Bundestag*—has its own committee which concerns itself with these letters from the public. It is called the "Petition Committee", its existence being based on Article 17 of the German Constitution which provides that every citizen has the right to address written requests or complaints to this committee. The citizens of the Federal Republic constantly make extensive use of this right. In the first legislative period, from 1949 to 1953, 27,000 persons made a direct approach to this committee with their worries. Communications have been addressed to the committee on behalf of their members by organisations, professional groups and other bodies representing particular interests. Every one

of the individual letters is carefully studied. For the writer of the letter, the reply he receives is, as it were, a touchstone of democracy. The 29 M.P.s. who compose the Petition Committee and who make a statement on their activities to the parliamentary *plenum* every year, have their fingers on the pulse of national life. They know where the shoe pinches the citizens. They know which laws and rulings by the State get people under their skin. They are not always questions of high policy, but often things that make themselves felt in every day life—the regulations about shop-closing hours, health insurance, protection of juveniles at work, regulations about working hours, etc.

Rural Industries in Australia

Rural industry in Australia continues to develop, and the aggregate volume of production last financial year was officially estimated at about 45 per cent above pre-war levels, and this year should be higher by 52 per cent, according to the National Bank of Australia Ltd. In the current season, the Australian wool return would probably be some £ 65m. to £ 70m. below the £ 400m. recorded last season, but every indication was that the volume of agricultural production would be at a particularly high level. Gross value might rise by as much as £ 75m. The bank points out that on a gross production value basis, the greater agricultural production should largely upset the decline in wool. Production of fertilizers in Australia is now worth £ 25m. a year, with Australian farmers spending about £ 20m. a year on superphosphate alone. A recent survey of the industry by the Australian Department of Trade shows that production and use of superphosphate have nearly doubled in the last fifteen years. This usage has been reflected in considerable crop yield increases and in

pasture improvement over the period. It is estimated that only about 1 acre in every six suitable for treatment with fertilizers has been fertilized so far. Capacity to produce superphosphate is now estimated to be 2,650,000 tons a year.

Parliament at Work

The Lok Sabha held three sessions in 1960, extending over a period of 162 days, out of which the House met on 121 days. The other House of Parliament, the Rajya Sabha, met in four sessions covering a period of 116 days out of which the House met on 86 days. During the year, Parliament adopted 65 official bills after consideration lasting some 317 hours (in the two Houses). The Ministry of Finance with 18 bills leads the other Ministries followed by the Ministries of Home Affairs and Commerce and Industry with eight bills each. The Lok Sabha devoted over 32 hours to the consideration of the Budget and other financial matters—20 hours to the General Budget for 1960-61 and the remaining time to the consideration of supplementary demands for grants. Over 130 hours were devoted by the Lok Sabha to the discussion and consideration of demands for grants for the expenditure of different Ministries. Nearly 160 hours of the Lok Sabha's time was taken up with the consideration of motions, reports and other activities, mainly of non-financial nature. The discussion of the motion of thanks on the President's Address took more than 20 hours. Over 22 hours were devoted to the consideration of the Draft Outline of the Third Plan and nearly 20 hours on the international situation and foreign affairs. In the Rajya Sabha, 15 hours were taken up with the consideration of the General Budget and nearly 13 hours with the discussion of the Railway Budget. The House also devoted nearly 15

hours of its time to consideration of foreign policy, 13 hours to the examination of the Draft Outline and nearly 11 hours to the motion of thanks to the President's Address. Besides the deliberations in the House, Parliamentary work goes on in several committees. Apart from *ad hoc* committees to consider details of important bills, there are the Public Accounts Committee, representing both Houses, which scrutinises the details of expenditure of public funds, and the Estimates Committee, representing the Lok Sabha, which studies measures for economy, improvement in organisation and efficiency of the administration. There are besides the Informal Consultative Committees attached to different Ministries, the meetings of which can be attended by members of both Houses and where matters of policy and working of administrative departments are examined in informal discussion with Ministers and senior officials. During 1960, 127 meetings of these committees were held. During the inter-Session period, many members of Parliament go round different projects in the country to have a first-hand acquaintance with the progress of development schemes. Nearly 50 projects were visited in 1960 by members in different batches.

Workers' Ideas

American firms are attaching increased importance to employee suggestion plans as a means of stepping up production, efficiency and cutting costs. In many cases, the rewards usually provided by these plans are being substantially increased in order to stimulate the flow of employee ideas. A survey by a staff reporter of the *Wall Street Journal* indicates that many prominent companies are revamping their suggestion programmes to attract more

(Continued on page 20)

Trends in Administration

Priority for Minor Irrigation

Pending the completion of the major multi-purpose projects, minor irrigation works hold a priority in Rajasthan inasmuch as their speedy completion brings in immediate relief and lends substantial support to the efforts for increasing food production. The Agriculture and the Irrigation Departments as also the Community Development Administration in the State are, therefore, charged with the implementation of minor irrigation schemes with their respective resources. The schemes executed by the Agriculture Department include construction of new and renovation and deepening of old wells, construction of private tubewells, supply of diesel engines and generators, installation of Persian Wheels and repairs of small tanks. For many of these works, the targets fixed for the Second Five-Year Plan have been exceeded while the progress of others has been very impressive. The target for new wells was fixed at 4,680, but the likely achievement is 7,805. Similarly, 18,639 old wells would be repaired or deepened against a target of 10,000 and the number of diesel engines and generators supplied is likely to reach 782 against a target of 600. An additional area of 0.57 lakh acres will be irrigated by all these works.

Prizes for Cooperatives

The Madras Government has drawn up a scheme to award prizes for the most efficiently run cooperatives in the State. To begin with, individual shields are proposed to be awarded to select village credit societies, cooperative central banks and marketing societies in the following manner: Village credit societies would be selected at the rate of one

from the area of operation of each of the 15 district central cooperative banks and awarded a shield worth Rs. 100 each. One district cooperative central bank and one primary marketing society for the entire State would be awarded shields worth Rs. 200 and Rs. 150 respectively. Enlistment of members, volume of credit supplied in relation to total requirements, mobilisation of local deposits, recovery of dues and extent of marketing business done would be the main criteria for selection of societies. No doubt, these may prove effective incentives, but they are not enough. Referring to the promotion of the cooperative movement in the East, an author says "Before the farmers are trained in cooperative work, it is considered of no use to have them organised into cooperatives." This important fact is often forgotten. Unless the people by and large imbibe the spirit of cooperation cooperative organisations cannot make any headway. It is here the need for propaganda becomes necessary. An instance has been cited from one of the Middle East countries. There rural uplift was started on the initiative of the United Nations. People at first were not enthusiastic. The organisers then embarked upon an active propaganda campaign. This included the screening of 35 M.M. Films about how in other countries where the people had taken an active interest in rural uplift had worked wonders by concerted action. This had a wonderful effect. The people were quickly galvanised into action. In the result, they were able to effect quick improvements in the sphere of rural uplift. Similarly, if people are instructed through films or

dramas as to the benefits of cooperation, they will quickly imbibe the spirit. For cooperation is more a question of heart than of head. When once people are convinced of the superiority of the cooperative way of life, the rest is all plain sailing. What is wanted is more spade work before cooperative organisations are multiplied.

Visitors to Government Offices

It is in the news that the Kerala Government proposes to take steps to introduce restrictions in regard to visitors to the Secretariat. It is mentioned in this connection that a number of visitors daily come to the Secretariat and they tend to disturb the even tenor of work. Since Independence, it has become the fashion for people to go to public offices and more or less camp there in order to get things done. This is the case with almost all public offices. The people are not to be blamed wholly for this phenomenon. During the British days, one need not follow a paper. The paper takes its usual course and finds its destination. Now this is not the case. The impression widely prevails that unless you follow up a paper, it will get stuck up somewhere and may not see the light of day within a reasonable period of time. There is also another fact: Interested people may follow a paper not to quicken its disposal, but to get a favourable result. They therefore seek to establish contacts with politicians and try to get things done in a way favourable to them. This requires frequent visits to the Secretariats or other public offices. If one casually looks into a public office, one can see the impact of these visitors on the outturn of work. Many of them get inside the rooms and sit by the side of clerks or section heads for hours together. Some politicians sit

in the rooms of officers even when their business has been talked over. Sometimes visitors loiter in the verandahs or corridors and secure the presence of the people whom they want to see through the good offices of peons. All these cumulatively result in waste of time and thus the outturn is affected. Such things also tend to impair the discipline in the office. With a view to preventing disturbance by visitors, receptionists have been appointed in some offices. But it often happens that visitors who are conscious of their self-importance by-pass the receptionists. The only way out of the situation is to enforce the system of receptionists in a firmer way. In offices where there are no receptionists, it is the responsibility of the Ministerial Head to handle the visitors promptly so that they will not have the necessity of loitering about or moving about in the various sections. Detailed office orders are necessary in this matter.

Utilising Pensioners' Services

The welfare State needs the services of all classes of people, all strata of population and men and women in all walks of life. Recently there was an appeal to pensioners to make the wealth of their experience available to the Government in the various spheres. The question is not so much of the pensioners making their services available as that of Government utilising their services. Sometime ago the Pensioners' Association, Madras, suggested that the services of their members might be utilised. There is no doubt that pensioners with their rich experience can provide valuable guidance in many sectors of governmental activity. But so far there has been no planned action in this matter. A suggestion was made in these columns that Collectors or Deputy Commissioners might be

They depend upon the doles they get either from the Central or State Government and this has disastrously impaired their constitutional autonomy. It has been suggested that more taxes might be levied to make up the lack of finance. But taxation has reached the saturation point. As Kautalaya has observed the sheep have to be shorn only and not shaved. The Municipal Councils have therefore to tap other sources. Recently it was in the news that a Municipality proposes to start a printing press to augment its financial resources. This is a step in the right direction. Other Municipal Councils might do well to take similar steps for increasing their resources without resorting to new taxation.

Community Effort

The residents of Singanayakana, a village in Mysore, have demonstrated the efficacy of collective endeavour in turning a barren land into rich pasture. Singanayakana is a very small village in Mysore with a population of hardly 100 families, most of them poor. But its people are fired with determination to evolve a better life for themselves. The village panchayat had hardly any resources to take up development plans. But the Panches were resourceful enough to kindle the dormant enthusiasm and energy of the people in a common task—to convert a 120-acre barren land into a rich pasture—thus helping themselves and the village panchayat. The Panchayat, in consultation with the Block officials, formulated a plan to develop this land, which was rocky, uneven and full of thorny shrubs. The plan was not to spend any money on labour, but to enthruse the people into doing the work themselves. The Panches decided to lease out the use of the common village

land to each family in the village on the basis of one acre of land per ten heads of cattle in the family. The family was to develop its share of land. A drought-resisting "grass seed" was provided by the Panchayat. About 8 lbs. of this seed, costing Rs. 20, were sufficient to provide four cuttings of fodder per year, without any need for replanting. The yield was estimated at two to three thousand lbs. per cutting. In terms of value, this meant an increase to the family income by about Rs. 2,000 per year, for each acre of land thus cultivated. The prospect of increased income to the family was enough inducement to the peasants of Singanayakana. They were even ready to part with a part of their income—a fourth of their income—to the Panchayat, which was after all their own. The whole village turned out to develop its share of the land. The area was cleared of shrubs and ploughed for sowing. In three months' time, the Panchayat's share in the additional yield was about Rs. 3,000.

Disparities in Pay Scales

It is reported in the press that the Government of India has asked the Indian Institute of Public Administration to undertake a study to find out as to what extent disparities in the scales of pay and other conditions of service in the public and private sector enterprises are responsible for the migration of the higher technical personnel, from public to private sector enterprises. Evidences of such migration also occur to a limited extent in the case of non-technical personnel. But what is more disturbing is the general disparities that exist between salary scales obtaining in the private sector and Government services. These disparities often exert a demoralising effect on public service

personnel. This applies not only to the lower rungs of the ladder, but also to the personnel in the higher reaches. For instance, A joined the Indian Civil Service in the thirties of this century. He may now be a secretary to Government or the head of a department. But B, a third class graduate, who joined a firm in the thirties, may now be a director of the organisation with a far higher income than that of the civil servant. Such things create heartburning and dampen enthusiasm reacting badly on efficiency. Inequalities produce discontent and discontent strikes at the root of efficiency. Inequalities have no place in a democracy and are far more serious under a socialistic pattern. There are disparities as between the pay scales of Central and State Government servants, as between the public and the private sector and as between the State and the local self-Government institutions. These tend to militate against efficiency. In the case of top administrators in the Government and in the private sector, it has been suggested that there should be ceiling on the salaries in the private sector. This suggestion has been taken exception to in some quarters. Whatever be the technical objections in this regard, it is necessary that some arrangement is reached by which the disparities are reduced to a minimum. Administrative efficiency is the product of a number of factors and it has to be ensured that all these factors work in conjunction to produce the desired result. All adverse factors have to be carefully eliminated. Discontent arising from disparities in salary scales is a factor adverse to the promotion of efficiency. Efforts to eradicate this discontent are necessary in our drive to step up efficiency.

The Punjab Innovation

The Punjab Government has decided to punish corrupt and inefficient Government servants by imposing cuts in their pensions. A three-man standing committee consisting of the Chief Secretary, the Finance Secretary and the Administrative Secretary of the department concerned will screen cases of gazetted servants for cuts in pensions. Few can deny the wisdom of this innovation. Fear of punishment is an important element in the promotion of efficiency. It is an unfortunate fact that during the Independence period, this fear has receded much to the background. But, however, punishments alone cannot stimulate efficiency. Efficiency is not something static; it is a continuing process. It has to be sedulously promoted by individual officers. This is sometimes called self-development. To enable officers to achieve this self-development Governments have to provide the necessary facilities in the shape of books and journals, periodical lectures, refresher courses, etc. Very little attention has been paid to this aspect of the matter since Independence. No doubt, lectures and refresher course and things like that are held once in a way but these are not systematic. In the matter of providing books and journals much leeway remains to be made. It has been observed that even in cases where Governments have provided a measure of facilities in the shape of journals, some officers have not taken care to avail themselves of them. These officers think that by attending to office routine or by pulling political wires, they can achieve official advancement. These officers have to be disillusioned quickly. The frontiers of knowledge and the techniques in public administration are making rapid strides

asked to draw up lists of pensioners and a scheme of utilising their services in suitable spheres of developmental work. Alternatively the Planning Commission can prepare a scheme on an all-India basis. Lack of experience is one of the retarding factors in the sphere of administrative efficiency in free India. This lack can be made up if retired officers are asked to lend the weight of their experienced guidance in developmental matters like Community Development or Cooperation, etc. Retired officials can provide the necessary ballast necessary for sound and balanced progress in the sphere of nation building. It is unfortunate that this question has not received adequate attention till now. If measures had been taken already to utilise the services of retired officials progress in some spheres might have been quicker. Planned action is what is called for in this matter.

Spirit of Sacrifice

The Chief Minister of Andhra Pradesh announced recently that staff councils on the lines of Whitley Councils in the United Kingdom would be established in the State to settle the problems of Government employees. He was inaugurating the Annual Conference of the Andhra Pradesh Non-gazetted Officers' Association. The Chief Minister also announced that a revision of the Government Servant's Conduct Rules was envisaged. Government employees, he said, had a vital role to play in the implementation of development programmes. They should cultivate a spirit of sacrifice. He called upon them to increase the efficiency of Government departments and set an example of integrity. The points made by the Chief Minister, namely, the need for cultivating a sense of sacrifice and the need for promoting efficiency cannot

be overstressed. What is deplorably lacking today is a desire on the part of the bulk of public servants to improve their efficiency so that they may be of better service to their country. The lack of this desire accounts for much of the deterioration of efficiency at the present day. The rank and file of public servants simply aim at "carrying on" and seek to achieve their official advancement with minimum efforts. This is the most lamentable phenomenon at the present day—one which should cause concern to Governments both State and Central. Only constructive efforts on the part of the Governments can tend to eradicate this outlook of public servants.

Pledge to do Justice

It is reported in the press that the Chief Minister of Bihar has taken a pledge to do justice to all so long as he remains in office. The importance of doing justice to all in a country of many castes and communities and where in spite of political integration, emotional integration has yet to be achieved cannot be overemphasized. Looking back to the past over a decade, it is possible to say that with more fairness and justice some of the subversive influences which have cropped up can have been averted. The Chief Minister of a State is the *de facto* head and a resolve by him to do justice is bound to have a healthy effect on the entire administrative structure. He is the leader in the State. A recent American author has listed the duties of a leader. The leader according to him, initiates action; the leader represents group norms; the leader defines problems and goals; the leader mediates between conflicting interests; and the leader sets an example. Continuing, the author says that a leader should have plenty of drive, ability to think

logically and come to quick decisions, willingness to take burdens of responsibility for executive decisions and action, ability to get along with people in a sincerely, friendly, yet firm way and ability to communicate by voice and pen in effective ways. Under Parliamentary Democracy, good leadership is needed not only in politics, it is more essential in the sphere of administration. For in administration, the lower rungs of the ladder have always a tendency to look up and trim their sails. So an example from above has its own incalculable value.

Municipal Councils

The Conference of Municipal Chairmen held at Madras suggested more powers for Municipal Councils. The desire of representative bodies for more and more powers is understandable. It has been so in the case of most representative institutions in other countries in the early stages of democracy. There is no doubt that local self-Government institutions are the training ground for future administrators and it is only in the fitness of things that they should have greater opportunities in the exercise of wider powers. But the crux of the matter is whether their past record in our country entitles them to claim greater powers. It is well known that local self-Government institutions are labouring under a number of handicaps. Firstly, there is the illiteracy of rate-payers. Education, as a writer recently remarked, is a solvent of a number of evils in this country. Much leeway remains to be covered in this direction. Secondly, there is lack of selfless leadership in the sphere of local Government. Representatives of the rate-payers look upon their elective offices as opportunity for self-advancement and not self-denial. They interfere in the day-to-day

administration of local self-Government institutions in order to promote their own ends. Thirdly, politics have invaded the sphere of local self-Government institutions. This has proved a basic calamity. It is a naked truism that a political approach is inappropriate in local administration. In regard to the problems of local administration, there cannot be any difference of opinion as in the larger sphere of politics. For instance, in the matter of providing amenities or any other similar matter, there cannot be difference of opinion. But the intrusion of politics has made differences possible. We have frequently heard of complaints being voiced in the press that the majority party in local self-government institutions is guided by political considerations in the matter of providing amenities or in the matter of conferring any benefit on the rate-payers. As a result, constant tensions occur impeding sound administration. Factionalism has also made considerable headway in the political climate obtaining in some urban areas. In these circumstances, it is doubtful if it would prove a wise step to increase the powers of Municipal Councils. Such a step is likely to create new problems. Any further advance can be contemplated only after local self-Government institutions have acquitted themselves creditably in regard to their present responsibilities. Democratic growth must be slow if it is to be sure. Political freedom, it has been said, has to be earned and not received as a gift. Similarly, more powers for local bodies like Panchayats or Municipal Councils have to be earned and not obtained as a gift. Realistically what is wanted today for Municipal Councils is not more powers but more money. The biggest hurdle in the way of Municipal Councils is their lack of finance.

and public servants who do not try to keep abreast of the times through books and journals, are sure to fall behind in the race and are liable to be considered back numbers. It therefore devolves on Governments both Central and State to din this fact into the ears of public servants who are labouring under a serious delusion.

Rural Credit Societies

It is reported from New Delhi that the Estimates Committee has said that only 15% of the total number of primary agricultural credit societies in the country could be said to be working satisfactorily. The committee has observed that though it is alive to the fact that cooperation should become more pervasive in the economy of the country especially in the rural sector, it would hardly serve any purpose to create more societies and cover more of the rural population every year if these societies are not able to serve the objective. This suggestion has been made many times before by responsible leaders and ardent students of the cooperative movement in India. The initial handicap with the cooperative movement here was that it was imposed on the people by the Government and did not stem from the people as in Germany or Denmark. There the economic condition of the people created a situation in which it was found necessary for people to devise means of mutual help in economic difficulties. Cooperation was the outcome. Cooperation is a mental attitude; it is a way of life. It requires certain innate qualities in the absence of which it cannot make any headway. In India, it was brought in to help the agriculturists with credit facilities and from the very outset it was looked upon by the mass of people as a money-lending agency. This im-

pression still persists. The only way of eradicating this impression is through systematic education in the principles of cooperation. Only through such education can the spirit of cooperation be imbibed by the people. It is unfortunate that very little has been done in this direction till now. Attention was on the other hand given to increasing the number of societies. The result is as the Estimates Committee has observed that only 15% of the societies work satisfactorily at present. What counts in cooperation as in many things is quality and not quantity.

Code of Conduct for Police

The Inspector-General of Police, Madras, said in the course of a speech that unmerited and unjust criticism of the police would demoralise the force and make it hesitant and panicky. He said in no circumstance should the police, with its vital role in a progressive socialistic democracy, should become the scapegoat for politicians or a testing ground for new and unproven ideas on how to handle people. If only there was an understanding public, aware of the problems that faced the police, and willing to enunciate clearly what improvement it expected of the police, improvement in the quality of work, pattern of behaviour and their code of conduct could be speedily achieved. In the interest of the progress of the country and maintenance of law and order, he said, it was necessary for the press and political parties to uphold the prestige of the police. The public should enunciate a clear code of conduct for the police to follow. He suggested the setting up of a research institute to study the problems facing police officials. Since 1902, when a Police Commission was set up by the Government to study the working conditions of

policemen, no attempt had been made to study the points of view and the conflicts which policemen faced. There was great need today for the police force being dealt with in a friendly, sympathetic way, both by the public and the Government. The present attitude of the public to use of force even when it was justified or needed, created an amount of reluctance in officials to act in the best manner necessary. Conflict was caused by the growing theories based on the study of criminology and psychology. The more deterrent the punishment, the more was its preventive value. No doubt, the rehabilitation of the accused was an important aspect. Sometimes the enthusiastic social worker and the benevolent judge overrated its importance. The impractical social worker might advocate the release of a criminal on parole, or even decry sending culprits to jail. The benevolent judge might give light punishment. These led to pessimism among the police investigating cases. It ought to be remembered that one offence condoned led to the commission of two more. He also referred to the strong public pressure based on misplaced sympathy, often upsetting enthusiastic officials and making them indifferent and inefficient. In addition to all these, the policeman had to outlive the reputation he had inherited as a result of the peculiar historical development of his office. With greater understanding, sympathy and guidance, the police, he said, can play its role more efficiently and effectively.

Forest Roads

The Madras Government have sanctioned funds for the promotion of communications in forest areas during 1961-62. It is proposed to lay out a network of roads to facilitate extract and transport of forest

produce, easy and frequent departmental inspection of forest activities and transport of labour and planting materials. The opening up of forests is an essential prerequisite for the development of our forests. The percentage of area under forests which is only round about 20% is far less than that in most of the advanced countries. This percentage has therefore to be stepped up. Rejuvenation of forests is also necessary. Because many forest areas are inaccessible, people take advantage and commit acts of vandalism. In one State it is reported that encroachments on forests have become so extensive that they have developed into a menace. They have therefore appointed special officers to carry out eviction. Similarly illicit felling of trees is a common forest offence. Many of these offences are facilitated by the higher ranks of officers being not able to carry out frequent inspections. The opening up of forests by a network of roads as envisaged by the Madras Government is bound to be a mitigating factor. Our forest wealth is among our most precious assets and no efforts can be too much not only to conserve this wealth, but also to improve it.

Self-help

Kakanwad is not even a village. It is a small hamlet—part of the village of Degama in Surat District of Gujarat. But it has provided a big example in self-help and cooperative living worthy of emulation by those inhabiting bigger villages and towns. The people of Kakanwad are agricultural labourers who do not get enough work all the year round. They often go 30 to 40 miles in search of work. Some of them who had cultivated tiny plots of land as tenants were lost this means of subsistence as a strange consequence of tenancy reform.

No shopkeeper in his senses would think of taking the risk of selling anything on credit to such hand-to-mouth people. Leaders in the village found a suitable answer to the problem. That was to organise a cooperative Gram Bhandar. Slowly they built up the Bhandar, each member contributing four annas per week out of the wages earned towards the working capital. The defaulter was asked to pay a penalty of six pies. At the end of the year, the amount "swelled" to Rs. 348. With this capital they started a shop. The shop was managed so efficiently that the business turnover was Rs. 7,000 at the end of the first year. They could get commodities on credit and a profit of Rs. 750 that year in the bargain. In course of time, the profit doubled to Rs. 1,800 in 1960. In the village, the Gram Bhandar (a shop for daily requirements), occupies an important position. It is a regular meeting place for the village people. It is not merely a shop or store; it is the hub of life of the hamlet—a centre which emanates ideas for the betterment of its people.

Panchayat Raj

Mr. S. K. Dey said recently at Andhra Pradesh that he had noticed that except at the Panchayat and Block levels officials seemed to be quite indifferent to the needs of Panchayat Raj institutions. He also said that the attitude of district officials seemed to be one of extending cooperation only when asked for. It is not often realised that there are numerous difficulties in the way of the successful working of the Panchayat Raj. People glibly talk of the success of Panchayats in ancient India and take for granted the success of the present-day Panchayat Raj. This is a wrong deduction. Conditions which were responsible for the success of Panchayats

in ancient India do not exist now in rural areas. Now villages are the cockpits of warring elements motivated by other than public interest. The officialdom also has not shed the authoritarian outlook they had developed under the Police State. The leaders of the masses still think of democracy in terms of bossing over public servants. The outlook of both the people and the officials has therefore to change in a radical manner as an essential prerequisite for the success of Panchayat Raj. This will not take place automatically. Only proper guidance through instructions can improve things. As was pointed out in the press, weekly exhortations by Ministers of the Central or State Governments will not cut ice in this matter. What is wanted is concrete action designed to produce tangible results. Initiative in this matter lies with the Ministry of Community Development at the Centre. They cannot justifiably pass on the responsibility to the States. States cannot afford expert guidance which is so necessary in this field. People who have intimate knowledge of how the Central National War Front worked during the last war, are bound to feel that it is possible for the Ministry of Community Development to play a more active role. The Central National War Front not only provided money, but also expert guidance. In the name of provincial autonomy, they did not keep aloof after providing funds. They called for monthly reports and took prompt action to remedy the defects as revealed in the reports. Their liaison officers toured extensively making on the spot studies and taking action where necessary. They distributed books and literature on a vast scale in order to enable the War Front personnel to improve their equipment. They subsidised journals and

other periodicals which supported the war effort. Voluntary organisations were harnessed on a planned scale to promote the cause of war effort. There is no doubt, that similar things are possible now for the Ministry of Community Development.

Nutrition Programme in Orissa

Orissa's "expanded nutrition programme" aims at increased production of nutritive food and the evolution of a balanced diet based on local resources. It was started in selected villages in 16 Community Development Blocks in October-November last. Under the expanded nutrition programme, however, the people are enabled to rear poultry, set up hatcheries and vegetable and fruit gardens to make their diet balanced. The programme covers five villages in each selected Block. Each village has a poultry farm with 66 birds of improved breed—60 hens and 6 cockerels. The birds are supplied by the poultry centre set up at Block Headquarters. The centre is provided by State Government with incubators, birds of improved breed, a thousand hatching eggs and "pre-mixed" high protein balanced feed. The Gram Panchayat of each village has earmarked four acres of water area for rearing fish in the village. Fish fingerlings are provided free and each tank is expected to provide 1200 lbs. of fish per year. In each village covered by the programme, there is also an orchard and a vegetable garden grown on lands donated free by the village people to the village school. Improved seeds for vegetable and fruit culture are supplied free to the orchard. Seven different menus for mothers and pre-school children and six for school children are being popularised. These are based on the latest researches in nutrition. A quarterly

medical check-up of the women and the pre-school children covered under the programme, shows that there is considerable improvement in the physical condition of the recipients. Selected members deputed by the Mahila Samitis have been trained in the development of poultry. Members deputed by Gram Panchayats have similarly been trained in the maintenance of fish tanks. School teachers and Yuvak Sangh members have been trained in growing orchards.

A Panchayat Bans Beggary

The village Panchayat of Jaithal in Rajasthan has unanimously decided to discourage beggary with a view to encouraging the habit of work and earn. The Panchayat has, in a resolution, declared begging to be an immoral act. According to the Sarpanch of Jaithal, there are beggars in this village owning 100 bighas of land or so and earning Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 4,000 per annum. Besides, there are the 'Naths' and 'Faquirs', who own some land but are begging because of old customs and tendencies. A survey of beggars in the village revealed that there was only one beggar who was physically disabled, but he too owned land valued at Rs. 15,000. The land was mortgaged for about Rs. 125 only nearly 20 years ago, and as such, he was forced to beg. Another interesting fact revealed during the survey is that certain alm givers are poorer than the beggars themselves but on account of customs and social sanction, they have to give something to the beggars even unwillingly. Thus, in a year, about 108 maunds of grain, is given to beggars without any labour in return. The children of the beggars and mendicants also develop the habit of their parents.

The Public School

DR. R. BIRLEY

It is impossible to explain adequately any British institution without going back to the beginning and giving its whole history. This is due to the fact that the country has hardly ever experienced any fundamental revolutions. If one reads the history of any British school, one nearly always finds that the great political crises of the national history are hardly ever referred to. It is not that the schools have not changed; they have done so in many ways through the centuries. But change has been due to the slow pressure of social developments, not to sudden external political influences. The independent schools in Britain (that is, those that stand outside the nationally organised system of education, which is administered by the Ministry of Education and Local Education Authorities), fall into two categories, the so-called Public Schools and the rest. It is impossible to define exactly Public School. In ordinary speech, the term is used to refer to rather less than a hundred independent schools, nearly all boys' schools and the very great majority boarding schools, which have gained for themselves a special prestige. Although they are independent of the State, they are not conducted for private profit. They are administered by Boards of Governors, many of them representatives of a University or a learned society, such as the Royal Society, the leading scientific society of the country, who control their finances and appoint the Headmasters. The Public Schools owe a very great deal to the readiness of men of the highest distinction and office to sacrifice their leisure time in working for them. The

term "Public School" is a puzzling one. How can an institution which is quite independent of the State and depends for its survival on the readiness of private citizens to pay fees for their children's education be called "Public"? An explanation of it is of more than historical interest. During the 18th century, a great controversy developed whether a "private" education—that is, one with a tutor attached to a family or in a very small privately owned school—was preferable to education in a Public School, which at that time meant one of the Grammar Schools which were to be found in most towns in the country. But the only people to whom this controversy meant anything in practice were those who could afford a "private" education for their sons, a comparatively limited social class.

At about the same time, certain Grammar Schools began to acquire a particular prestige and parents started to send their children to them as boarders. A few schools, such as Eton and Winchester, had been, for various historical reasons, rather separate from the rest since the Middle Ages. Now, some other schools began to be thought of as having the same social rank as these. As a result of this educational controversy, the term Public School came to be attached only to them. A school like Rugby, for instance, which has been regarded for the last 150 years as one of the leading Public Schools, drawing its pupils from all over the country, was until about 1800, a predominantly local school which had only a handful of boarders.

Turning Point

The turning point in the history of the Public Schools came between 1828 and 1842, when Thomas Arnold, Headmaster of Rugby, developed there the main characteristics of the modern Public School, especially the emphasis on the training of character and the experience given to boys of the arts of authority by their being regarded, when they reached the top of the school, to a great extent responsible for its discipline. Within a few years, many other schools were founded, modelled on Rugby, as it had been re-fashioned by Arnold. At least half the Public Schools in England today are little more than a hundred years old, some even more recent. Those older schools which had come to receive boarders from all over the country were decisively influenced in the same direction. The social cleavage between the schools which experienced this development and remainder became more obvious when the State began to take a hand in education. In the early years of this century, the State assumed the responsibility of providing secondary education, that is, education between the years of eleven and eighteen, for the nation. It advanced money to enable the old Grammar Schools to meet the demands of the day, at the same time, securing some control over their administration, and it founded many new Grammar Schools itself. This process reached its culmination in the Education Act of 1944 when education in all schools in the national system became free, both in those schools assisted financially by the State and in those actually founded by it. The Public Schools, however, have remained independent of the State, receiving no financial grants from it and continuing to charge fees. Inevitably,

this has led to social differences between the Public Schools and the Grammar Schools, about a thousand in number in England, which are in the national system of education. But these differences are not nearly as great as might be thought. For one thing, as a recent inquiry has shown, more than half the parents of boys now at the Public Schools were not at a Public School themselves. Also the Public Schools fit into exactly the same educational pattern as the Grammar Schools; the same subjects are taught in them and the same examinations are taken by the pupils. They have the same historical roots. As a result, the Public Schools are much more in touch with, and much more closely related to the Grammar Schools than are the private schools and the State schools in other countries. As has been said, the English Public School owes its present characteristics very largely to the inspiration of a single man, Thomas Arnold of Rugby. He was himself a fine scholar and he believed in the value of scholarship for boys. But as important in the Public Schools since his time has been the tradition of providing a training in character through membership of a community, an educational process much easier to achieve in a boarding school. This community in the Public Schools is traditionally a Christian one. All Public Schools have their own Chapels for religious services; the great majority are very closely linked with the established Church, the Church of England. It is significant that of the last seven Archbishops of Canterbury, five, including the present one, were earlier in their careers Headmasters of Public Schools.

Point of Criticism

It is inevitable that in a period of great economic and social changes

the Public Schools should have to face criticism, directed not against the education and moral training they offer, but against their social exclusiveness. Bridging the gap between the Public Schools and the Grammar Schools in the national system is no easy matter. The Public Schools value their independence of public control, which might be endangered if they received many pupils whose fees were paid out of public funds. These fees are high, ranging between about £350 and £450 a year (though they have risen since the period before the war less than any other commodity

in the country) and the competing calls on the national budget for money to be spent on education are very great. But the Public Schools are well aware of the need for them to widen socially their area of recruitment and, with good will on both sides, the problem should be solved in time. If we may rely on the evidence of the past history of the country it will be solved gradually, allowing the schools to preserve their traditions, while they adapt themselves, as they have done so often before, to the social needs of the nation.

The habit of accurate observation is fundamental to success in any endeavour. It is a habit in which each of us should be seeking ever to be more perfect.

—EUGENE G. GRACE

(Continued from page 7)

worker participation. Among the examples cited are the following: The National Cash Register Company, which has a suggestion programme dating back to 1894, has supplemented its regular cash awards with bonuses of U.S. saving bonds. Allis-Chambers Manufacturing Company has raised awards from 10 per cent to 25 per cent of the net savings from the worker's idea in its first year of use and has established a maximum of \$25,000. It has also extended its programme to employees on layoff, to those on leaves of

absence, and even to retired workers. Ford Motor Company recently lifted its suggestion award maximum from \$3,000 to \$6,000. And the Remington Rand division of Sperry Rand Corporation early last year advanced its maximum from \$1,500 to \$5,000. According to the 1,200-member National Association of Suggestion Systems, a company can count on about one usable idea out of every four submitted by employees. Ideas range from safety suggestions, procedural shortcuts, and service improvements to production line efficiencies.

Population growth and Family Planning

C. CHANDRASEKARAN*

The ECAFE region extending from Iran in the West to Japan in the East contains more than one-half of the present population of the world and covers only one-sixth of the world's land area. In 1956, the population of the region was estimated at approximately 1,462 million or 53.4 per cent of the world's population; the share of Europe (excluding the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics), was 15.1 per cent and the share of North and South America together only 13.7 per cent. The population of the ECAFE region has increased in relative size from 51.6 per cent of the world population in 1920 to 53.4 per cent in 1956. North and South America have also increased their share from 11.5 per cent in 1920 to 13.7 per cent in 1956 owing to the rapid population growth of the Latin American countries. The increases have taken place almost exclusively at the expense of Europe, whose share in the same period declined by 3 per cent. The two most populous nations in the world are both in the ECAFE region; China (Mainland and Taiwan) with a population of around 630 million or almost one quarter of the world total, and India with about 390 million inhabitants—these figures refer to the year 1956. Almost 70 per cent of the total population of the ECAFE region lives in these two countries alone. Indonesia, Japan and Pakistan have about 80—90 million people each and have larger populations than any country outside the region except the Soviet Union and the United States. The remaining countries and territories in the ECAFE region have sub-

stantially smaller populations. With the exception of Europe, the ECAFE region is the most densely populated region in the world. Its average population density in 1956 was 69 persons per square kilometre or more than three times the world average of 20 persons per square kilometre.

Decline in Death-rate

A decline in the death-rate has taken place recently in all countries of the region. This decline has been most pronounced during the last ten years or so but seems to have begun on a moderate scale even before the Second World War. In India, for example, the crude death-rate for the three decades preceding the First World War is estimated at around 43 per 1000. During the period 1911—20, it rose to 47 per 1000 mainly as a result of the serious influenza epidemic which occurred during the later part of this period. But in the intercensal period 1921—30, the level fell to 36 per 1000 and in 1931—40 to 31 per 1000. For the period 1941—50, the estimated death-rate has been estimated as 27.4 and 30.9 by two authorities.

The slow decline in the death-rate was probably halted in many countries during the Second World War and the early post-war years. There is evidence of this in Ceylon and Thailand as well as in India. Since the Second World War a rapid decline has clearly occurred in almost all areas of the region. In Ceylon the death-rate in the late 1930's which was around 25 per 1000 fell to 13 in 1950 and 10 in 1957. The scattered information available from Mainland China indicates a similar

* Director, Demographic Training and Research Centre, Bombay.

development. The rate officially reported for Mainland China in 1953 was only 17 per 1000. Sample surveys in India carried out recently have a death-rate of 19 per 1000 in 1958-59.

Reasons for Fall

The decline in the death-rates has no doubt been due to the specific efforts to combat disease and hunger. The drastic post-war decline in mortality in Ceylon, for example, was in a large measure the result of a vigorous anti-malaria campaign, improvements in curative and preventive medicine and a higher level of living probably have also contributed. In India large-scale public health programmes for the control of malaria, filariasis, tuberculosis, leprosy and venereal diseases have been included in the series of Five-Year Plans. The expectation of life at birth has risen in most countries of Asia and the Far East, although, in general, life expectancy is still much lower in them than in the economically developed countries of the West. The people of British Borneo, Burma, India, Laos and Pakistan have a very short life expectancy but the level of life expectancy in China (Taiwan), Ceylon, Federation of Malaya, Japan and Singapore is closer to the level of industrialised Western countries. In India, life expectancy at birth has been estimated at 20 years in 1911-20, 27 in 1921-30, 33 in 1941-50 and is likely to be around 40 at the present time. In Ceylon, the life expectancy is estimated to have increased from 36 in 1910-12 to 48 in 1945-47 and to 54 in 1955. In Japan, the expectation of life at birth has increased from 42 years for males and 43 for females in 1921-25 to 64 and 68 years respectively in 1955. Current level is estimated at 65 for males and 70 for females.

The Rate of Population Growth

China (Taiwan), the Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong and Singapore, have a rate of growth of at least 3 per cent which is among the highest recorded anywhere in the world. In Cambodia, Ceylon, Mainland China, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet-Nam, the rate of increase lies between 2 and 3 per cent; in British Borneo, Burma, India, Indonesia and Laos, it is nearly 2 per cent and in Japan about 1 per cent. The main reason for variations in the rate of growth is to be found in the different levels of mortality which have been discussed earlier. The only notable exception is Japan, where chiefly as a result of the liberalising amendments to the Eugenic Protection Law made in 1948, the number of induced abortions has increased enormously and has helped to keep down the birth-rate. The potentialities for rapid population growth in countries of Asia and the Far East can be gauged by the United Nations estimates of future population size for thirteen selected countries in the region. In making these estimates, it has been assumed that mortality will continue to decline in such a manner that the life expectancy will be increased one half-year annually during the period 1955-1980. Fertility was assumed to continue without change at the 1955 level. According to these estimates, the population will, within the 25 year period 1955-1980, double in Cambodia and Thailand. It will more than double in Ceylon, China (Taiwan), the Federation of Malaya, the Philippines and Singapore. In India, Indonesia, Laos and Viet-Nam, the population will grow at a slower rate but in 1980 will be 70 to 80 per cent above the 1955 level. The consequences of such rapid population growth require serious consideration. Whereas in some countries

the pressure of population on resources and especially land resources is great, there are others in the region where the pressure does not exist or is not so apparent. Most of these countries have characteristics of an under-developed economy—large agricultural populations, low productivity, less per capita income and rate of saving, a high dependency rate of children to working population and considerable unemployment and underemployment. The task of improving the levels of living of the people in most of these countries is visibly hampered by the rapid rate of population growth.

Control of Fertility

Many countries in the region have supported programmes for family planning and have even instituted national policies to reduce births. In India, family planning received Government approval in 1951—the First Five-Year Plan—and has since received increasing recognition in the Second and Third Five-Year Plans. The budget allocations made for family planning in the three Five-Year Plans, viz., Rs. 6.5 million in the First Plan, Rs. 49.7 million in the Second Plan and a provisional allocation of Rs. 250 million in the Third Plan, are indicative of the importance which the Government of India and the Planning Commission attach to the need for family planning in the country. During the Second Five-Year Plan period, 866 rural and 483 urban family planning clinics were opened and encouragement was given to intensify sterilisation programmes in the different States. The family planning programme in the Third Five-Year Plan aims to motivate the public towards acceptance of family planning by widespread education, to provide family planning services, including facilities for sterilisation, through medical and health centres,

and to make added facilities available for distribution of contraceptives. The Government of Pakistan has recognised the challenge of increasing population pressure in its country and the "evil effects of uncontrolled childbirth on such vital matters as maternal and child health, domestic prosperity and national economic development." The Government has, therefore, taken a bold and clear decision in favour of family planning and has provided a substantial sum of Rs. 30.5 million for expenditure towards this purpose during the Second Five-Year Plan period 1960-1965. In Ceylon, a family planning pilot project was initiated in 1958—the Government of Ceylon having accepted offer from the Swedish Government to give technical assistance.

Countries in Asia and the Far East are adopting methods which have been used earlier in the economically advanced countries in the West to control mortality and as a result, the populations in these countries are growing at a rapid rate. If Western experience is to be relied upon, and there is supporting evidence from some Asian countries, it will take a considerable time for birth-rates to decline unless a deliberate national effort is made in this direction. As we have seen, some countries notably India, Pakistan and Japan have taken a lead and initiated national policies and programmes for future fertility control. Unless these programmes are intensified and are also adopted by other countries which have not yet taken active measures for the popularisation of family planning, there is a real danger that levels of living may be adversely affected with a consequent deterioration in the health of the people. The future of public health in Asia and the Far East demands immediate attention to the problems of population control.

Municipal Administration

G. K. T.

Reconciling administrative efficiency with popular control is one of the most difficult things under democracy. This difficulty exists not only at the Federal or Union or State level, but also at the local self-Government level. In U.S.A., this difficulty was solved by the appointment of a non-partisan as the chief administrator. He or she is known as the City Manager. He corresponds to the Commissioner of a Municipality in this country. The evolution of this job and the responsibilities it carries are briefly dealt with in this article.

The city manager belongs to a growing profession in U.S.A. It is attracting talented young men and women who find in it chances for a promising career. The profession had small beginnings. During the early days, America was a rural country with few towns. Therefore the question of urban administration did not loom large. Municipal functions were then a simple matter. They were more negative in character such as putting down fires and arresting criminals and these were done by a few citizens on a voluntary basis. Things, however, changed with the full impact of industrialisation and the consequent trend towards urbanisation. Thus, during the first half of the present century, the nation changed from a predominantly rural to urban people. Municipal functions increased rapidly both in numbers and complexity. This in turn created the need for more specialised and technically more competent persons in the municipal organisation. Members of municipal councils were found unequal to their new responsibilities. It was therefore felt that independent officials and commissions might be appointed. At first such commissions were appointed by and responsible to the Council. Later on, they came to be elective officials as did the Mayor himself. It was, however, discovered soon that the system of

electing administrative officials dispersed responsibility more widely and caused these officials to act more irresponsibly than ever. The three decades between 1870 and 1900 have been referred to by one author as the dark ages of American Municipal history. During these decades, Municipal Governments were generally controlled by party organisations that were primarily concerned with keeping them in power. The election of many administrative officials and the appointment to others through the spoil system, made a career service impossible. In most cases, the Mayor ceased to preside over Council meetings and took advice from his political friends. He was often at odds with his Council. Public dissatisfaction grew at this state of affairs. Citizens clamoured for reform. It was pointed out that if politics interfered with administrative effectiveness, it should be divorced from administration.

The sequel was the inauguration of the commission form of Government at the beginning of this century. The commission plan combined the traditional functions and responsibilities of both the Council and the Mayor in a single body of elective Commissioners. There was a small body of three to five members of the Council and they bore the

burden of the work. The plan, however, created difficulties in actual practice. The Commissioners were not qualified to handle technical departments. Further, there was no one to coordinate the several administrative departments and to take overall management responsibility. A solution for this was found in some States by vesting all administrative powers in the Mayor who of course had the Council behind him. In some cases, the Mayor appointed an administrative officer to assist him. Even this arrangement did not prove satisfactory. The last stage in the evolution of this process was reached when the concept of having an overall administrator to be responsible for the management of municipal affairs came to be widely accepted. In 1908, the City Council of Statunton, Virginia, led the way by appointing a City Manager to be solely responsible for the management of the city's affairs. This lead caught on and by and by the innovation came to be acclaimed as the last word in municipal reform. The City Manager Plan became the most dominant form of municipal Government in the United States. The central idea of this plan is an attempt to solve the conflict between democracy and efficiency. Democracy is preserved in the popular election of a Council while efficiency is achieved by the employment of a manager professionally trained for the job of administration. The danger of bureaucracy being irresponsible and unresponsive to the will of the community is remedied by the Council being given final powers regarding revenue and expenditure and complete control over the manager's tenure of office.

Briefly, the main features of Council Manager Government are that the Municipal Council determines all municipal policies, adopts

Ordinances, votes appropriations and appoints the City Manager. The Council is the governing body of the city and the City Manager is its agent in carrying out the policies which the Council determines. The Mayor does not interfere with the administrative functions of the Manager nor do individual members of the Council. The duties of the City Manager include: 1. to see that all laws and ordinances are enforced; 2. to exercise control over all departments; 3. to make recommendations to the City Council concerning the affairs of the city when necessary; 4. to keep the Council informed of the financial condition and the future needs of the city; 5. to prepare the annual budget; 6. to prepare and submit to the Council such reports as may be required by that body and 7. to keep the public informed through reports to the Council regarding the operations of the City Government. The City Manager does not participate in election campaigns. He does not support candidates or identify himself with any party or faction. The City Managers have gruelling work. Sixty-one per cent of more than 800 managers reported in 1957 that their work week ranged from 50 to 60 hours. Twenty-two per cent worked more than sixty hours a week and seventeen per cent from 40 to 50 hours.

The City Manager's profession demands exceptionally ethical standards. City Managers find the strongest support for their position as professional men in their attitude and conduct. Unless one has a strong interest in public service and enjoyment in dealing with people collectively, one is not apt to feel the thrill of a professional career in

(Continued on page 30)

The District Head (OBSERVER)

In the context of the rapid strides which democratic decentralisation is making in most parts of India the question has come to the fore as to the place of the District head in the new setup. One of the most lamentable things that has taken place in the field of Public Administration since Independence is the decline in the status of the District Officer. Under the British rule, he was one of the main pillars of the administration. He was the symbol of governmental authority in mofussil areas. He functioned as the representative of "His Majesty's Government". He was the eye and ear of the Provincial Government. He was the link between the Government and the people. The mass of people in the countryside could not get anything done except through him. In times of distress like flood or famine, pest or pestilence, the people turned to him for succour. He was the local *Mabap* Government. To the rich, he was a refuge; for the poor, he was the protector. No local man, however, eminent he might be, or however influential he might be, could challenge his authority. The Provincial Government thought ten times before they went against his recommendations. In nine cases out of ten, they made it a point to secure his concurrence before they put through any measure. He was the man on the spot and the Government of those days listened with respect to the man on the spot. They scrupulously avoided doing anything which would detract from his official status or authority. To undermine his authority meant uprooting one of the main pillars of administration.

The District Officer of those days also justified the confidence that was

placed in him by the Government. Some of them might have been sun-burnt bureaucrats but they were deeply faithful in the discharge of their duties. They had a sense of mission. What is now called professionalism animated them to a great degree. The essence of this outlook is that they did not do anything which might affect the reputation of the service to which they belonged. It has been said that the Indian Civil Service was a close corporation. In a land of castes, it constituted one more caste. They displayed all the virtues of the caste system. Whatever might have been their weak points, their strong qualities outweighed them. They never spared themselves in the discharge of their duties. The man-in-the-street was impressed by their efficiency.

But all these things suffered a sea change since Independence. Politics have invaded the field of administration and the politician has stolen the thunder from the District Officer. In rural areas, at the present day, it is the politician that counts more than the District Officer, for the politician occupies a position of vantage today. He has direct access to the powers that be. It is up to him to get things done over the head of the District Officer. It is also possible for him to show his influence to a District Officer who chooses to cross his path. These facts have in the recent past brought about considerable weakening of the District Administration. From the days of the Roman Empire the District Administration has been the bedrock on which the superstructure rested. It is also true that if the Britishers were able to rule here for more than hundred years, it was

mainly because of the efficiency of the District Administration. In the welfare State which we have envisaged the Governments are shouldering an increasing burden of responsibilities. It is needless to say that these responsibilities cannot be satisfactorily discharged except in the context of an efficient district administration. The district administration stands closest to the people. In virtue of this fact they only can get things done properly. Nowadays we frequently hear of some of the most well intentioned measures of the Government, falling flat or producing inadequate results. We have heard that well-meant measures have produced difficulties in implementation. We have heard of self-seeking politicians trying to exploit the masses and making capital out of their privileged positions. All these are mainly traceable to a district administration lacking in vitality and strength. The position has been aggravated by the scheme of democratic decentralisation. Representatives of the people as J.S. Mill has once said have a tendency to grab more and more power. The tendency has been reported recently in the press that members of some local bodies want not only more power but also want to boss over the District Officer. This is a dangerous portent. In a welfare State, the emphasis is on service and not on bossing. It is mainly a question of partnership in the same adventure. The Collector or the Deputy Commissioner is not merely one of the many public servants, but he is the head of the district administration. He represents the non-political element in the district and is the embodiment of administrative experience and expert knowledge gathered over a long period of years. The local self-government institution must concern themselves with making use of these assets for the benefit of their areas instead of indulging in methods of self-aggrandisement. It is incumbent on the Governments to preserve the status and authority of the District Officer. Politicians have to be told to keep to their places and organisations like Panchayat Samitis or Parishads have to be asked to realise their limitations. Impersonal rule at the Centre and personal rule at the district level have been the main factors in the efficiency of British administration. If personal rule at the district level is to be maintained, the District Officer must be left alone to play a free and unfettered role.

The way a job is done is much more important than what is done. The spirit in which an undertaking is approached is what counts in getting it carried out.

LOUIS RUTHENBURG

Administration and Public Cooperation

How to enlist it?

M. G.

It is too obvious a fact that Democracy cannot succeed without public cooperation. This is implicit in the very definition of Democracy laid down by Abraham Lincoln. According to his definition, Democracy is Government of the people, for the people and by the people. The last element in the definition, namely, *by the people*, is the most important part of the definition. This postulates the importance of public cooperation. In more advanced countries where the people possess a good level of education such cooperation will not be difficult to secure. Lord Roseberry once said that a democratic Government is like a joint stock company in which all citizens are shareholders. Shareholders are naturally interested in the company in order that their investment is safe. Similarly, the citizens have to take interest in the affairs of the State if the administration is to prove beneficial to them. It is common knowledge that the ancient city States of Greece were efficient because the people took great interest in the affairs of State. In the East, Democracy is a new plant. The soil is by no means congenial; the climate is by no means favourable. Nevertheless, the plant has to be made to grow. To this end, the first thing is to ensure public cooperation. Such cooperation is all the more imperative in the welfare State which is our goal. That this public cooperation is not easily forthcoming is evident from many things. For instance, in the sphere of community development, topical studies, evaluation reports and deliberations in State Assemblies tend to throw light

on the fact that a lot of leeway has yet to be made in the matter of public cooperation. When it is remembered that in schemes under Community Development, no progress whatever is possible without public cooperation, the need for stepping up efforts to secure it cannot be overestimated. If recent evaluation reports are looked into the impression, one would get is that the officers who are in charge of these schemes are mainly responsible for this lack of cooperation on the part of the people. It is often not realised that in its operation, the Community Development Programme is a novel innovation. To start with, what is the definition of a community. The definition has two aspects—one is that it is a body of people living in the same geographical area and secondly it is a body of people having common interests. The first aspect is physical while the second is psychological. The task in community development is to encourage the growth of a community of interest within a geographical community to help to awaken a unifying enthusiasm. This must be a slow but real growth. In this connection, we may quote Dr. Rajendra Prasad. He observed in 1952: "The terms Community Development and Community Project are new, but the concept is of many-sided development as distinguished from development relating to particular aspects. Experience in the working of the Grow More Food programme as well as the programme undertaken by various State Governments and private agencies functioning in the sphere of village uplift has established that all aspects

of rural life are interrelated and no lasting results can be achieved if individual aspects of it are dealt with in isolation." Lasting results can be achieved only if the energies of the administrative machinery, and the best unofficial leadership and enthusiasm of the masses are all enlisted in its favour and concerted action is taken. In other words, Community Development is not a means of inducing people to accept ideas of officials. It is not a means of introducing new methods or innovation. It is a way of encouraging villagers to put into effect practical measure which they believe will benefit them.

This is by no means an easy job. There are many hurdles in the way. Firstly, the villager has to be educated out of his fears. For instance, he fears the city; he looks upon the city people as those who are out to exploit him. Secondly, he fears the Government. Memories of how he was harassed by officials are still green. He fears also the money-lender. In his unhappy rural life, he has found money-lenders to be veritable sharks in human form ready to pounce upon him at any moment. Besides these fears, he is apathetic. This is the greatest hurdle in the way of Community Development. Centuries of struggle for existence has made him apathetic to everything good, bad and indifferent. His fatalism has proved a dead weight on his progress. So the villager has to be cleared of all his fears and dead weights and the ground prepared before measures for his improvement are initiated. In the words of a recent author his spirit has to be built up before projects are built. The spirit of the people is what counts. How to build the spirit? Firstly, it has to be borne in mind that one should never try to work for the people

but rather work with them. It is through their own organisation that the farmers are trained and local leadership is developed. No programme should ever be imposed on the people. The ultimate goal of community development is to bring about improvement primarily through self-help incidentally making use of the services provided by the Government. It is possible to achieve this only through local leadership. Brayne said that with proper leadership anything is possible in a village. There are two kinds of leaderships in a village. One is direct leadership and the other is indirect leadership. In direct leadership the position of the leader is obvious and public; he has accepted responsibility. His leadership may be autocratic, democratic, wise or unwise. In the case of indirect leadership, the indirect leader provides inspiration, guidance and energy and frequently coordination to direct leaders in functional groups. Indirect leadership has broad vision and purpose. It works behind the scenes through others. Much of the success in Community Development depends on indirect leaders. The next question is as to how to sell an idea in a village. Firstly, you have to sell the idea to one or two community leaders. When they are convinced, they will in turn explain the idea to others and gradually a nucleus of enthusiastic people imbued with common interest will emerge and they will spread the leaven through the entire village. Thus only through local leadership can effective co-operation be secured in rural areas.

It may also be emphasized that any proposed improvement in order to be effective must spring from the people and be in the direction of peoples' own desires. The villagers will not readily take orders and

an Indian Sanyasi. He had a particular detestation for strong language. Like Lord Morley, he was against the employment of intemperate language in official documents. The same caution was shown when he took action. He took a lot of time and a lot of care before making the first move, but when he did move, there were no half measures. He worked hard and in working, he hardly cared for personal comforts or convenience. He was a voracious reader and found time for this in spite of hard work. His administrative measures were marked by a broad outlook and a deep interest in the welfare of the people. The patient Indian masses engaged in the task of wringing a scanty subsistence out of the infertile soil affected his sensitive imagination. He realised almost from the first that what the country needed was economic progress. He was not only for increasing agricultural production, but also for widening the horizon of the agriculturist. He organised an agricultural exhibition which was a pioneer effort. He encouraged conferences by agriculturists to discuss their common problems. He realised the inseparable connection between agriculture and cattle wealth and secured the services of an expert to improve the

latter. He had profound faith in the co-operative movement. He realised that the association of people in cooperative societies taught them valuable lessons of self-reliance and self-respect, mutual trust and mutual helpfulness, not to mention punctuality and business-like habits.

His interest in education was phenomenal. He knew it was a powerful lever to raise the standard in a backward country. He started the system of medical inspection of school children. He was a champion of women's education. Physical culture and hygiene had received little attention and Lord Pentland did his utmost to promote these. He sanctioned playgrounds for schools and appointed a Director of Physical Training. To Lord Pentland belongs the distinction of conceiving the idea of an Annual Conference of Collectors. The Collectors were the pillars of district administration and their meeting once in a year to discuss matters of common interest proved to be a step in the right direction. On the political plane, Lord Pentland was against centralisation. In one of his notes, he observed that Gokhale had disapproved the tendency of centralisation in the Government of India.

Democracy is based on the mutual faith of a people, in themselves, in each other, and in a way of life.

JAMES L. KRAFT

Democratic Decentralisation

Some relevant principles

P. A. JOSEPH

II

Democracy and Elections

The recommendations of Balwant Rai Mehta Committee to hold direct elections only at the village level and indirect elections to the Panchayat Samitis and Zilla Parishads raise again the fundamental issue of Direct and Indirect Elections. On that score, it seems necessary to reconsider certain issues connected with elections at this stage. The good purposes of elections are best described by Lakeman and Lambert in their book "VOTING IN DEMOCRACIES". They are: (1) A Parliament representing the main trends of opinion within the electorate. (2) Government according to the wishes of the majority of the electorate. (3) The election of representatives whose personal qualities best fit them for the function of Government. (4) Strong and stable Government: "A system which achieves all these ends, or at least comes as close as possible to fulfilling each, will offer us an electoral instrument which can best provide both democratic and effective Government"⁶. Direct Elections have the following advantages: Direct election is considered democratic in character and people will be conscious of their rights and duties. But Mr. R. M. Jackson gives a caution. "Democracy surely does not require every person in public life to be elected"⁷. When contact between the citizen and the representative is maintained, the voter will have interest in the process and in the

elections. Direct elections are educative in value and provide political intelligence. Voters have opportunities and means of judging the merit of their representative. Many favour indirect elections because they seem to offer some novel experience and advantage. Indirect elections provide for an escape from the evils of direct elections and universal suffrage. But Mr. Herbert Morrison holds the opposite view. "As a whole, the elected authority is a spur to vigour and to uprightness in public administration.....the narrower the franchise, the less of a spur there will be"⁸. The intermediate electoral college is presumed to be more careful and enlightened in exercising the franchise. Propaganda and passion associated with direct elections would be subdued and lessened, if not eliminated.

John Stuart Mill has aptly described the major defect inevitable in the case of indirect elections. "The comparatively small number of persons in whose hands, at least, the elections of a member of Parliament would reside could not but afford great additional facilities to intrigue and to every form of corruption compatible with the station and life of the electors"⁹. The whole election process, though indirect, may be vitiated and the true spirit of democracy routed. J. S. Mill feels that all the advantages claimed under the indirect elections could be obtained

6. Voting in Democracy by Lakeman and Lambert.

7. Machinery of Local Government by R. M. Jackson.

9. Representative Government by J. S. Mill.

even under direct elections. Our Prime Minister Pandit Nehru prefers indirect elections to the direct elections, "Election becomes almost impossible for any ordinary person because of the expenditure involved, because in a vast country like India, there are half-a-million people as voters"¹⁰. At the same time, the Prime Minister says that elections cannot be given up because they may bring about quarrels, groupism and factions and adds "Democracy reflects both our strength and our weakness"¹¹. Arch Dotson favouring direct elections says that "The arrangements recommended seem incompatible at several places with the overriding purpose for which they are made, that is evocation of initiative and the creation of representative and democratic local self-Government... The case against direct election at least at the block level appears to be that (a) they are expensive, (b) they encourage factionalism. But surely the balance of advantage tips the other way"¹².

In the formative stages direct elections to all three bodies, namely, the Village Panchayat, the Panchayat Samiti and the Zilla Parishad would be highly desirable. After the bodies gain mature experience in proper administration, we may switch on to indirect elections to the Samiti and Zilla Parishad and also when we reach that preliminary stage necessary for indirect elections as described by Mill. "To enable the system to work as desired, it must be carried into effect in the spirit in which it is planned, the electors must use the suffrage in the manner supposed by theory, that is, each of them must not ask himself who the member of Parliament should be, but

only whom he would best like to choose one for him. It is evident that the advantages which indirect is supposed to have over direct election require this disposition of mind in the voter"¹³. I am sure our voters have not cultivated and reached this disposition of mind to enforce indirect elections. Mere granting the right of a vote to the citizen is not enough; the voter must be assured, if not guaranteed, of maximum freedom and effectiveness in its use. Instead of debating vigorously on the issue of direct and indirect elections, as has been the case till now, it is proper that in future, discussion, debate and criticism should be diverted to and focussed on, the problems of building up sound public opinion, providing freedom of discussion, and promoting the spirit of compromise, to enable us to build in India a sound system of political behaviour and right ethics.

Financial Freedom

Jackson rightly observed in his book that "Without financial independence, a local authority must lead a very subdued life"¹⁴. It is undisputed fact that local authorities in India in the past did not enjoy much financial freedom and their resources were very poor. It is a pity that the finances of local bodies have not improved substantially even after Independence. Tinker observes "Almost all the Acts were deficient in the following respects: Powers of taxation were not fully defined and the machinery for introducing new taxes or varying existing rates was often never provided"¹⁵. There is an imperative need to improve finances of the local authorities, if the various

schemes entrusted to the local authorities should be successful, and if democratic decentralisation is meant to be a reality, and not a theoretical concept. A number of recommendations was made in the Local Finance Enquiry Committee Report 1951 and in the Taxation Enquiry Committee Report, 1953-54. Dr. M. P. Sharma has also made six major recommendations to the effect of improving the finances and I think they are really valuable and cover the entire subject of local finances on a broad basis"¹⁶.

The following are Dr. Sharma's recommendations: All the indirect taxes are to be abolished as far as local authorities are concerned. Few direct taxes which yield substantial income should be levied and a multiplicity of taxes which do not yield much income should be discarded. Local income-tax may be imposed by the local authorities. Local bodies should be able to tax the increased land value specially in Urban centres. Local authorities must be encouraged to run trading and public utility services. The Local authorities should be authorised to borrow under liberal conditions. Budgetary freedom ought be enlarged. This freedom has not been granted even under Democratic Decentralisation. British Local authorities enjoy great

freedom in this respect. The position in Britain is indicated in the following lines: "Their (local authorities'), budgets do not have to be approved by the Government or by any higher authority beyond the councils themselves. In this respect, they have substantially more autonomy than local authorities in many other countries whose budgets have to be approved by some agent or department, are often delayed and materially altered in the process.... each authority is free to devise methods of budget preparation to suit its particular circumstances, including such factors as its size, the range and character of service covered"¹⁷.

Control over finance is certainly desirable and essential in the case of local authorities but it should not be stretched too far to hamper progress and actually block the useful work that may be undertaken by the local authorities. Financial independence must be real and it must be adequate. At present, financial independence is nominal and there is no financial adequacy aimed at. The success or failure of the local authorities would be exactly proportional to their solvency or bankruptcy, for sound finances and ample freedom to utilise them are concomitants of decentralised democracy.

16. Local Government in India by Dr. M. P. Sharma.

17. Budgeting in Public Authorities. A study group of the Royal Institute of Public Administration, 1959. Page 91.

One of the most destructive causes for inadequate discipline is political interference.

—L. D. WHITE

10 and 11. The Blitz. Saturday, 11th February 1961.

12. The Indian Journal of Public Administration. Vol. 4. No. 1. 1958.

13. Representative Government by J. S. Mill.

14. Machinery of Local Government by R. M. Jackson. 1958.

Rambles in Officialdom

(CANDIDUS)

12

On Government Auditing

In the ancient city of Padua in Italy, there remained a wise old man who kept a school for magicians and his course ended with a passing-out parade in which those who completed their studies had to run a kilometre race in an underground cellar with the Devil chasing them from behind. Those who eluded the clutches of the Horned One and reached the goal with its opening to fresh air above, became good practitioners of the art, those caught by him, were not seen thereafter; in a few cases Dr. Satan, though he could not catch even the last person was able to catch his shadow. Whatever may be the truth of the story, there are only two persons who are not apt to catch you from behind—one is the Devil who may be sporting enough to give you a handicap in the race; and another is the Government Auditor, who waits for you to prepare your full accounts in their proper shape, and is enough of a gentleman not to interfere in the middle and upset things, and still catches you in the end! For him this "catching" business is quite a game with its own set of rules which he strictly follows; you can never say that he catches you by hook or crook. He applies certain 'norms' or methods of check including methods of comparison in the last resort if there are no standards, and rare indeed, are the occasions when he finds everything perfect! By their very nature and set up, nothing is perfect in the Government except perhaps and in a narrow sense that too—the Audit. And what is the use of a perfect audit in an

imperfect machinery, except for aggravating matters?

There is a world of difference between private auditor and his Government counterpart. The former is concerned only in seeing that things are in shape; and if they are not so, he does not mind to lend a helping hand as a professional to put them into shape if that is possible. But not so the Government variety. A Government Auditor in relation to a Government servant is just like a rider on a theorem in Geometry. He is what may be called a further development on the governmental machinery unconnected and unconcerned with the mode or the practical difficulties in the working of the part over which it has to work itself; but with a hidebound theoretical approach to problems and exacting in its application of rules thereon. He is there only for raising 'objections' and pointing out 'irregularities'. In certain units where there is what is called the "Resident Audit" (probably this was devised on the lines of a British Resident being stationed at the headquarters of a native Indian State), every scheme has to go through these watchdogs and approved before being taken up. A progressive Panjandrum at B—when confronted with a veto on some technical grounds to one of his pet projects by the resident auditor (naturally of a rank lesser than himself) could not contain himself. He summoned the resident auditor and sweetly explained to him about the urgency of the project and of his

dissatisfaction about the veto. "My dear Shri....." he declared, "You are here not to show why it should not be done, but rather to show how it can be done; you have to find a way out of the wood!" But all this reasoning was lost on the hardboiled auditor with his traditional training; and the utmost damage the Panjandrum could do was to get the recalcitrant auditor out of his way: and that too by the good offices of another Panjandrum in the audit branch who just obliged him, though himself heartily approving of his minion's stand!

In Government audit "Objections" play a very important part. They play a very important part. Any Government auditor is IPSO FACTO an objector a conscientious objector as he would like to delude himself into. But this process of objecting is like the stinging of an insect, a habit once developed is very difficult to cast off after a time, even assuming that he does not shape into a vicious objector. As a matter of fact, many of them think that their primary duty is to 'OBJECT' and not to 'CHECK'; and gradually the term "Audit Memos" have been replaced by the more significant one of "Audit Objections". These are the cream of work done during an "Audit Inspection" of an office. Many sheets of paper are written on half side of the paper (with space on the right for the replies) and let loose from time to time, some for immediate replies classified as Part I memos, and some for replies later after verification, classified as Part II memos. The matter, however, does not end here like an examination with a question and answer. Further correspondence is created by secondary and tertiary objections (issued after their return to head office) and replies thereto

and the game goes on for a long long period, sometimes, even extending beyond the next regular audit inspection. These audit inspections are like annual circus parties setting out on their camp (remember it is not just a tour), and sticking to a station for at least a two-month period and 'finishing' a number of offices situated in that area; setting the offices and the officers in a flurry: asking for this record and that and issuing objections from time to time. It is an undeniable fact that most executive officers are scared of these 'Audit Inspections' as they feel that if much havoc is played therein, it would reflect upon their "Administration" and lead to trouble; and surely the audit chaps are not unaware of this feeling or slow to take advantage of same.

The main obsession with the Government Auditor is his feeling that he is what you may call "The Financial Policeman" (a policeman of a very special establishment) in the welfare State. He is there to suspect everything on everybody and frame his objections in such a way that this suspicion peeps out of the wordy mass while he quotes the rules and points out the errors of commissions and omission. In this act he is encouraged indirectly by the powers-that-be. Of modern creation is the branch of audit known as "Efficiency Audit" particularly devoted to the catch-in business which starts with suspicion. The choice of the word "Efficiency" is really intriguing as certainly you cannot call the normal kind of audit as "Inefficiency Audit".

As a man of a special establishment, the auditor gets more benefits from every side than a man of his rank elsewhere in officialdom. No

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Lessons in Community Development

KURIANSON

Lesson 5

Rural institute at Sriniketan

Q. You have so far given me some facts about two rural experiments. Are they the only two during the British period? I pursue this question further because I would like to have a clear picture of the position of Rural Uplift during the British period in order that it may serve as a good background in relation to the present-day developments?

A. Yes, I can mention one more experiment. This experiment was done by the rural institute at Sriniketan under the direct guidance of Poet Tagore.

Q. Now let me have some details about this experiment.

A. Sriniketan was situated in the then Bengal Province. It was a very backward area. The soil was poor; cultivation was sparse. Not enough grazing ground. Cattle thin and emaciated. No cottage industries. Too much of litigation which as a western writer once said, was the national sport of India. To add to these, ravages by malaria and other epidemics. The rural reconstruction institute was therefore inaugurated in 1922.

Q. What were the main aims of the Institute?

A. The aims were briefly: (1) to study local rural problems and translate the conclusions into action; (2) teaching the villagers self-help and thus enable them to improve their lot; (3) encouragement of cottage industries; (4) inculcation of the

spirit of co-operation; (5) improvement of village sanitation and make people sanitary-conscious; (6) encouragement of elementary education and (7) development of leadership in rural areas. Two or three things may be mentioned about these aims. "The primary condition of a successful rural development movement according to Dr. Bhagat is to create a spirit of self-help among the rural population. He further says that no improvement will be possible without the creation of this spirit. We are apt to concentrate on one aspect of the problem or other and cultivate a spirit which disables us from a broad and comprehensive view. The whole life of the villager is one complex, interrelated fact and it will not be improved without improving the whole of it. The central fact of village uplift is the villager. Our first aim must therefore be to instil in him the right spirit, the habit and ambition to live a better life and an assurance that such a better life is his birth-right. The Sriniketan Institute strove to translate these into practice.

Q. How did they strive to implement these ideas?

A. The Institute started with rural surveys. The survey lead to the formulation of a definite programme. This was later implemented. The Institute laid special stress on such surveys, observes a writer. In India, every village presents a different problem. One village will

have the caste people dominating it. Another will have the backward classes in a majority. A third will be near an urban area. A fourth one may be in the inaccessible interior. Every village has its own peculiar problems. Hence, preliminary surveys are necessary.

Sincerity is the greatest force in the world. It shines in the eye and lends strength to the voice, so that two people meeting for the first time may judge each other fairly. I can always get along with a man who is sincere no matter whether he is right or wrong, because I know where he stands.

—ARTHUR W. S. HERRINGTON

(Continued from page 37)

orders issued in general about all Governments is applicable to him unless it has the 'concurrence' of the Auditor-General, as specifically mentioned therein. His scales of pay are generally higher; his rules for tour more favourable. He is a privileged class in every sense of the term. Even in the matter of designations, his are special choices; while other departments may have controllers, there are only "Comptrollers" in audit. But pity the poor man for his nature of work with very little humour or human side attached to it. As an official wedded to the 'papers' more than anyone

else, he gets little of those "Life's Little Ironies" which pop up now and then even in a humdrum official life. His progress is like that of a blinkered horse in a furrowed path. In his fetish for rules, he loses his sense of values to the extent that he may even catch you at the loss of a Naya Paise, but blink over the wastage of crores, so long as the wastage is incurred after due observance of the rules. But in Government service, there is no getting away from him. If you can call any Government office as clerk-ridden, the whole Government is Audit-ridden.

For an Administrator's note-book

Efficiency under Democracy

It has been said that inefficiency characterises the Government in a Democracy, and it is the price paid for freedom; while in a dictatorship, the people are compensated for the loss of their liberties by administrative effectiveness. The implication here is that to gain efficiency in democratic Government, management must obliterate individual liberties. Mr. H. D. Smith has characterised this implication as fallacious. According to him, in a system which adheres to the concept that the good of the State takes precedence of the good of the individual, the individual becomes an automaton of the ruling party without any scope for the exercise of his initiative. A dictator cannot permit the initiative of others because it may endanger his position. He trades on the fear phobia of the people. This is not the case under democracy. Under it, the citizen is encouraged to exercise his initiative; he is free and he can use his resources to the best of his ability. Democracy draws its strength from the employment of the best talents and skills of free men and free women. Regimented action is not truly efficient action. True efficiency results when men are free from fear. Then they will be encouraged to apply their intelligence to their tasks. Democracy provides a superior atmosphere for creative efforts.

Personal Touch

Meyer says that administration is a human activity by human beings and for human beings. This aspect is often forgotten by administrators. The human aspect has to be remembered in maintaining close relationship by officers with their staff. Under Bureaucracy, the officer

thought that he was superior to his subordinates and that to keep intimate touch with them was something below his dignity. This was all right then. But in a welfare State, the officer and his subordinates are partners in the same enterprise and this partnership presupposes that there should be closer relationship between the officer and his staff. This is why in many Western countries, staff meetings are arranged weekly or monthly. These meetings provide opportunities for officers to come into closer contact with the staff. It is not enough if they merely move closely with their subordinates. They have to win the confidence of their subordinates. This they can do only if they show that they are interested in them. Recently a missionary speaking to teacher trainees in a training college suggested that they should take opportunities to assist their students in solving their personal problems if any. This can very well be done by officers also in regard to their subordinates. For instance, if any officer enquires his subordinates of his personal problems, and lends a helping hand in solving them the effect on the subordinate as well as on the entire office will be electric. Nothing will improve morale as this.

Administrators

Administrators are not power seekers; they are interested only in doing a job, rendering a service. Secondly, administrators should not be dominant personalities. Otherwise they could not be in a position of leadership. They should be men of character, determined and stubborn, not to be pushed aside easily. They should be men who can stand the wind of popular fancy. They should

also be practical people. They should define their goals and means to attain them. They should not have water-tight compartments in their minds; they should not be mere yes-men.

DIMOCK

Civil Servants in a Welfare State

"Every ounce of their energy, their intellect and their capacity has to be surrendered to the devoted service of their masters, the people. That has to be their all consuming passion and their guiding mission. It needs a full missionary approach for results to be abiding and to carry succour and service, light and hope to those living in hamlets and hutments throughout the country and to apply the soothing balm to sufferers.

G. B. PANT

Good Supervision

An administrative structure has three elements, namely, those at the

top who lay down the policies, then those at the bottom who carry out the policies. In between come those in the middle whose work is mainly supervision. Good supervision needs a number of qualities: (1) A good supervisor must know the technical know how; (2) he must have the ability to cooperate, to enthuse, and unite all those working under him. He must possess qualities of leadership. He should love his job. He should set moral standards and good example to those below him.

ANON

Hard Work

I wish to preach not the doctrine of ignoble cause, but the doctrine of strenuous life, the life of toil and effort, the life of labour and strife, to preach the highest form of success which comes not to the man who desires more easy peace, but to the man who does not shrink from danger, from hardship, or bitter toil.

TEDDY

Bureaucracy has a contempt for the layman. It takes undue pride in its own achievements. It is impervious to new ideas. It despises the amateur and constantly avers that no good comes out of lay thinking and advice. It thrives on a spirit of monopoly and constantly seeks to raise the barriers between itself and the uninitiated.

ANON

Printed by M. G. Daniel at Thompson & Co Private Ltd (Minerva Press)
33 Broadway Madras 1 and edited and published by Thomas K. George under the
auspices of Sardar Patel Institute of Administration Madras 31

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