7. Personnel Administration

INTRODUCTION

The importance of personnel administration has also increased because, of late, there has been such a sudden rise in the number and powers of the public services in all civilised countries of the world that the lovers of democratic traditions have begun to look upon them as a new menace to individual’s liberty.

Civil Service: The term, ‘Public Service’ is rather of recent origin and has a limited application. Its predecessor, civil service, has still the largest application and is well understood. Civil service, refers to purely non-technical services. The term ‘Civil Service’ was coined on the analogy of military and police services. But while the military and police services are concerned with the safeguarding of the country from external and internal dangers, civil service is concerned only with the civil affairs of the state. Hence the term ‘Civil Service’ has come to signify non-combatant branches of the administrative service of the state.

According to E.N. Gladden, “A civil servant may be defined as a servant of the Crown (not being the holder of a political or judicial office), who is employed in a civil capacity and whose remuneration is wholly paid out of monies provided by Parliament.” This excludes members of the armed forces and judicial services. Herman Finer defines the civil service as a “professional body of officials, permanent, paid and skilled.” Of late a new category has been added to the civil service, namely, industrial workers. As more and more enterprises, both industrial and commercial, come under the purview of the public sector, the number of such workers would increase. Herman Finer has classified the British civil service into three categories Administrative, Technical and Manipulative (to execute orders handed down by the first two classes by common physical activity).

ROLE OF CIVIL SERVICES IN DEVELOPING SOCIETIES

The civil services play an important role in the developmental process and in raising the standards of living of the people. For the civil servants to be successful in their role it is important that they make the common man feel that they exist for his welfare and prosperity and that he should co-operate with them in the task of nation-building. According to Jawaharlal Nehru, “Administration like most other things is in the final analysis a human problem to deal with human beings, not with some statistical data Administration is meant to achieve something and not to exist in some kind of an ivory tower following certain rules of procedure and Narcissus-like, looking on itself with complete satisfaction. The test after all is the human beings and their welfare.”

The importance of civil services in the modern Government has been succinctly summed up by Ogg: “The work of the Government would never be done if there were only the Secretaries of state and other heads of departments, the Presidents of Boards. Parliamentary Under Secretaries, Junior Lords, and Civil Lords, in other words, the Ministers—to do it. These people cannot be expected to collect taxes, audit accounts, delivering mail, and carrying messages. Such manifold tasks fall, rather, to the body of officials and employees known as the Permanent Civil Service...It is this great body of men and women that translates law into action from one end of the country to the other and brings the national Government into its daily contacts with the
Commenting on the character and importance of civil service in India, the Simon Commission stated: “In a country of small cultivators, with no accumulated resources and little experience in organisation... private enterprise cannot undertake new and costly experiments. The task of bringing within reach of such a society the benefits of the administrative experience and the applied science of the West was possible for one agency only — the Government; no other had the necessary knowledge or machinery. Thus, the civil service of India, which in origin was little more than revenue collecting agency, gradually took upon itself a very wide range of duties. As the work became specialised, new services had to be created... India looks to Government to do many things which in the West are done by private enterprise.” The brilliant statement serves to explain nature and purpose of Indian civil service.

Today, the civil servants have to play a crucial role not only in the field of political, economic and social development but in efficient running of the Government as well.

The role of the civil services will be discussed under the following heads:
(i) Civil Service and Development Administration
(ii) Civil Service as instrument of Political Development
(iii) Civil Service and Economic Development
(iv) Civil Service, Modernisation and Social Change
(v) Role in Energising, Supervising and Execution—Internal Functioning

(i) Civil Service and Development Administration: Bureaucracy should lay emphasis on the achievement of the targets most rapidly with least waste and least failures. The bureaucracy has to remove the public feeling of distrust, initiate a process of political socialisation and facilitate planning of strategies and identification of the people with the goals. A development administrator has to be action motivated and committed to development ideology and faith should be more free-wheeling, less adhering to administrative forms, less attached to importance of hierarchy and status.

Stress may be laid on the need for experts and specialists acquiring administrative experience and training to enable them to move into positions of administrative responsibilities in various areas and levels of Government. Popular urges and aspirations must be continually led into public administration at all levels. Significant in this regard is the need for increased and more meaningful participation of citizens and interest groups in the process of Governmental policy-making and its implementation. Finally, political skill and administrative energy should be ceaselessly directed to convert what has been called ‘soft state’ into ‘hard state’.

The term ‘Soft State’ is understood to comprise all the various types of social indiscipline which manifest themselves by deficiencies in legislation and in particular in law observance and enforcement, a widespread disobedience by public officials on various levels to rules and directives handed down to them, and often their collusion with powerful persons and groups of persons whose conduct they should regulate. Within the concept of the soft state belongs also corruption.

(ii) Civil Services as an instrument of Political Development: Political development is interpreted as a process of political institution building and people’s participation in it. The civil
services as the expert career based system, has the responsibility of anticipating the policy needs of the country, develop the alternatives and evaluate them and suggest a policy. It is a crucial arbiter in deciding who gels what, when and where. In fine, this is the most important political function of bureaucracy.

(iii) Civil Services and Economic Development: The increasing role of bureaucracy in economic development is the reflection of the dominant economic role of Government in low income countries. The role of civil services in economic development can be generally discussed within two contexts—the ideology of nationalism and the process of planning.

In the Indian context, Dube has observed, “The major symptoms of the malady are—failure to take decisions at the appropriate level, passing the buck, roping in others in decision-making, equivocal recommendation anticipating what the boss wants, rationalisation of failures, underplaying the essentials and magnifying the grandiose covering the failure of smaller Utopias and outright sycophancy.”

As the plan calls for financial resources on an unprecedented scale, the extractive function of public administration — collection of taxes — is to be simultaneously accorded the highest importance. Also, the prevalent system of financial control, which is evidently out of tune with the needs of a developing economy, stands in need of reform.

(iv) Civil Services — Modernisation and Social Change: Efficiency in administration may be desirable, but what is more important is the development of an administrative culture, based on flexibility, freedom and change of traditional forms and techniques when they are found unsuited and which recognises public interest as the supreme end of a democratic Government and administration. Bureaucracy has to act as a dynamic force which follows the will of the people as well as leads it. As Waldo puts it, “it is a part of the cultural complex, and it is not only acted upon, but also acts. The burden of bringing about planned social change is on the bureaucracy and if it fails, the dreadful alternative is violent revolution.”

In the social sector, modernisation process must take into account the difficult task of inculcation of rational values, building up dynamic group attitudes, creating and channelising along constructive lines, new citizen-responses to absorb change and accelerate its pace. The civil service has to plan to provide for an immense variety of instruction and healthy entertainment and wide opportunity for cultivation of the spirit, the mind and the body, which is necessary for the maximum development of their personalities by the citizens. It also deals with the policies relating to helpless and handicapped sections of the community, like the untouchables, women and children.

(v) Role in Energising, Supervising and Execution of Internal Functioning: Some of the areas where bureaucracy plays an important role in administration are:

Role in Policy-Making: No doubt, the political head of the department has a right to exercise general supervision over the work of civil servants, but due to lack of full knowledge about the work of the department and other commitments he has to leave much to the discretion of civil servants. This led Ramsay Muir to remark that “Bureaucracy thrives under the cloak of ministerial responsibility.”

Besides participation in making policies, the higher level bureaucracy is also involved in the traditional role of direction and execution of policy. Role in Legislation: The civil servants not
only prepare the bills for the approval of the legislature but also provide the details of the laws after the legislature has passed the skeleton laws due to paucity of time. They know best the difficulties involved in the enforcement of a particular law and make necessary suggestions to overcome the same. The civil servants even provide the arguments to be advanced by the Minister in support of the various bills on the floor of Parliament.

**Role in Financial Matters**: The civil servants formulate the budget proposals containing details about the proposed expenditure and revenues for the ensuing year. The responsibility for putting these proposals into practice also rests with the civil servants. In short, they virtually control the finance of the country.

**Role in Judicial Matters**: In recent years, the civil servants have come to exercise certain quasi-judicial functions too. The various departments of Government take administrative and quasi-judicial decisions against whom no appeal can be taken to the courts. In other words, the final verdict in these matters rests with civil servants.

**Innovations within Government**: Innovation means a change to something new, a change which may be either wise or unwise, prudent or risky. In Governments where there is a commitment to development, there are greater pressures for innovation.

The basic task of the civil servants is to transform policies into action. With the diversification of the nature of civil service personnel, civil servants of the technical category engaged in various productive and public sector organisations are rendering useful social and economic services to the people. The welfare of the people will, to an increasing extent, depend on the imagination and sympathy and the efficiency with which work is understood and done by the civil servants.

**Classification**
Classification is the act of classifying and is an everyday experience and a useful aid in comprehending and managing things. It means grouping together of persons or things on the basis of some common essential characteristic. In Personnel administration, classification means grouping together of posts into broad classes on the basis of duties and responsibilities. Marshall E. Dimock defines it as “systematic sorting and ranking of positions in a hierarchical sequence according to comparative difficulty and responsibility.”

According to L.D. White, “In its final form, a classification plan consists of a number of classes adequate to enable a place to be found for each existing position, arranged in orderly fashion with respect to each other, and supplemented by a set of rules and regulations for its administration, interpretation and amendment.”

Classification of posts is absolutely essential to a modern public personnel administration. But the basis on which posts are to be classified may not precisely be the same all over the world.

**POSITION CLASSIFICATION**
Historically, the object of position classification has been to provide a basis for fixing fair pay for work performed —for translating into action the principle of ‘equal pay for equal work’. It is prevalent in the U.S.A., Canada, Philippines, Taiwan, etc.
In position classification, the starting point is the individual positions in the machinery of Public administration. A position is a basic organisational unit. Each position represents certain well-defined duties and responsibilities, the latter two terms signifying, the work assigned to a position and the matters for which an employee is held accountable. A position must remain differentiated from its occupant. From the point of classification, it is immaterial if the post is occupied or is lying vacant. According to Stahl, “Position classification is the organising of jobs in an enterprise into groups or classes on the basis of their duties responsibilities, and qualification requirements.”

Before going further, it would be desirable to know the meaning of some more related terms—the service, the class, and the grade. These are in the descending order of generality, that is to say, the service is the broader category of classification, the class is the sub-division of the service, and the grade is the sub-division of the class, in India. The Indian Administrative Service, the Indian Foreign Service, the Secretariat Service, etc., are examples of services. Within these may be classes known as senior, junior or as I, II, III, etc., and within a given class, there may be several grades with different scales of pay attached to them. A position is a set of current duties and responsibilities, which are, as Glenn Stahl observes, “the bricks in the classification wall.” Like positions are grouped together in a ‘class’; a class, thus, is made of positions with duties that are similar in level and kind. According to Stahl, “If positions are the raw material of classification, the class is the operating unit.” The different criteria for evaluation of jobs for purposes of determining their class are:

(a) Nature of occupational field;
(b) Complexity and difficulty in performing duties;
(c) Scope of responsibility; and
(d) Knowledge and skill needed.

Duties in a class should be sufficiently similar so that —
(i) the same title may be applied to all the positions in a class,
(ii) the same test can be used to fill all the positions in all classes,
(iii) persons with the same minimum qualifications can do the work assigned to all positions in the same class, and
(iv) the same salary range may be applied to all positions in the same class.

The term ‘class’ means a group of positions established under these rules sufficiently similar in respect to the duties, responsibilities and authority thereof. The same descriptive title may be used with clarity to designate each position allocated to the class, that the same requirements as to education, experience, capacity, knowledge, proficiency, ability and other qualifications should be required of the incumbents, that the same test of fitness may be used to choose qualified employees, and that the same schedule of compensation can be made to apply with equity under the same or substantially the same employment conditions. In preparing the description of a job, the duties, responsibilities, degree of difficulty and required qualifications are clearly brought out. Each job is broken down into factors, such as, required experience, training, mental efforts, physical efforts, etc. The various jobs are then ranked in order of relative difficulty and grade levels are defined after each job has been ranked. After this, standards are developed for all levels of jobs. The requisite strength of personnel at various levels is determined on the basis of these standards.
Steps in Position Classification Plan

There are four steps in the development of a position classification plan:

(i) Analysing and recording the duties and other distinctive characteristics of the position to be classified (job analysis and description);
(ii) Grouping the positions into classes upon the basis of their similarities;
(iii) Writing such standards or specification for each class of positions as will indicate its character, define its boundaries and serve as a guide in allocating individual positions to the class and in recruitment and examinations; and
(iv) Installation by allocating individual positions to the classes thus described.

Advantages:

(i) It facilitates organisational clarity. This is achieved by
   (a) Use of standard class titles and job specification plans which establish uniform job terminology throughout the organisation.
   (b) Providing definition and description of all jobs, duties and responsibilities.
(ii) Position classification induces competitiveness in the totality of civil service, as such, and thus there is more emphasis on merit rather than seniority.
(iii) It provides a definite target for recruiting personnel possessing specific qualifications to perform specific duties.
(iv) It paves the way for an objective evaluation of the performance of personnel.
(v) It provides a basis for ‘equal pay for equal work’ and ensures that public personnel are paid according to the difficulty and responsibility of their work.
(vi) The system is helpful to those who undertake organisational analysis, work distribution in the organisation, etc.
(vii) It permits lateral entry into civil service from outside the Government
(viii) The placement practices are shaped by the requirements of job to be done rather than to provide a job to a person who has been assigned a certain status by virtue of membership of a particular service or cadre.
(ix) It provides an uniform occupational terminology by grouping similar positions into classes and allied classes into occupational groups, a common language is established with an uniform, significant and defined terminology for the naming of positions.

Limitations:

(a) The duties and responsibilities of a post are capable of clear identification and must be measured — may be seriously questioned at least in the developing countries.
(b) Since the pace of change in a developing society is inevitably rapid, the duties of civil servants necessarily undergo corresponding changes. This implies that the classification plan will have to be kept under continuous revision which would be quite onerous as well as cosily.
(c) Position classification requires for its introduction and installation technical skills of a wide variety and sophisticated order. It is quite expensive and time-consuming to develop them and besides, many Governments may not be able to afford such a paraphernalia.

Position classification has become a debating point in India. Specialists advocate it, while Generalists oppose it. The prevalent ‘service’ concept in Indian personnel administration can be reinforced-with the use of techniques of position classification, especially, at the lower levels of the country’s civil service, for quantification of jobs is more practical at such levels.
**RECRUITMENT**

The process of recruitment is one of the crucial tasks of modern Government and lies at the heart of the problem of personnel administration. The main test of any machinery of recruitment lies in its ability to recruit the right type of persons for the right jobs. Recruitment is the key to a strong public service, and, as Stahl puts it, the “cornerstone of the whole public personnel structure.” J.D. Kingsley says. Public recruitment may be defined as that process through which suitable candidates are included to compete for appointments to the public service. It is thus an integral part of a more inclusive process — selection — which also includes the process of examination and certification.

Pfifiner and Presthus observe, “Personnel recruitment for the second half of the twentieth century will have to be geared to a nuclear physical world in which the solutions of human problems will demand the utmost in human competence. The emphasis will be not only on finding, but on building men who are capable of performing the complex tasks of coordinating institutions growing even more complex.”

One of the United Nations Report rightly states that the core design of progressive recruitment policy in any organisation is the reduction, if not the elimination of favouritism, nepotism and incompetence in the selection process.

The first country to develop a scientific system of recruitment was China where recruitment through competitive examinations was first introduced in the second century before Christ. In modern times, Prussia was the first to introduce a system of recruitment gradually replacing the ‘patronage’ system from 1857 onwards. In the United States, the ‘Spoils system’ was discarded in favour of the ‘merit principle’ by the Civil Service Act of 1883. In India, the merit principle has been in existence since 1853, when it was first introduced during the British rule.

The maladies of the spoils system were so glaring that the civil service commissions were designed as reform movements to uproot the spoils system. Recruitment was, thus, conceived of in purely negative terms — its task being mainly confined to ‘Keep the rascals out.’

According to J. Donald Kingsley, “The rascals have been kept out, perhaps, but so have many men of vision and ability.” Recruitment policies therefore should be positive and calculated to attract the best and the most competent.

**Elements of Positive Recruitment Policy**

(a) Discovery and cultivation of the employment market for posts in the public services;
(b) Use of attractive recruitment literature and publicity;
(c) Use of scientific tasks for determining abilities of the candidates;
(d) Tapping capable candidates from within the services;
(e) Placement programme which assigns the right man to the right job; and
(f) A follow-up probationary programme as an integral of the recruitment process.

**Forms of Recruitment**

There are three main forms of civil service recruitment which are as follows:

(a) **Cadet System**: It is followed in many countries mainly for recruitment in the defence services. Under this system, recruitment is made at a young age, usually between the ages of 16 and 20 years, followed by a long period of institutional training during which
the cadets are given instruction on courses in general education and specialised skills required for the jobs.

(b) **General Mental Ability** : The system which is followed in India and many European countries lays stress on recruiting young men and women after graduation in the liberal arts of basic sciences between the age group of 21 and 28 years. Under this the Government seeks to recruit candidates with broad educational attainments and mental ability. It is based on the concept of career civil service.

(c) **Expertise** : The Government recruits people with specific qualifications, technical knowledge or experience suited for the recruitments to various posts. The age-scale of recruitment varies from 18 to 45 years. This system is followed in the U.S.A. and in Canada to a certain extent. In this open recruitment from outside takes place at all levels of the hierarchy and Government service is not based on the concept of a career civil service. Eligible candidates from non-Governmental positions may also be recruited to Government posts, if required. This system has the same objectives as the ‘lateral entry system’ under which a certain quota is fixed for recruitment to the senior civil service posts from among outsiders not belonging to the same service through competitive selection. The ‘lateral entry system’ may be followed in recruitment on the basis of general mental ability.

**Problems of Recruitment**

The recruitment process involves a number of problems. They are as follows :-

1. **Location of the Recruiting Authority** — This problem is of such general importance that the recruiting authority is determined by the Constitution of the country itself. Generally, there are two methods of locating the recruiting agency. In one system, the power is vested in the electorate. This effective system of recruitment is usually adopted for policy making posts (i.e. chief executive) or in electing personnel of a local administration (i.e. village panchayats). The other system is where the power of appointment is given to a Government organisation. Constitutionally the recruiting bodies called Public Service Commissions function as the personnel recruiting agency on behalf of the Government.

2. **Methods of Recruitment** — There are two main methods of recruitment, one is recruitment from outside and the other is through departmental promotion. The latter is one in which appointment to the higher posts in the service is made only from within the service itself either through a system of promotion or through restricted competitive examinations. It has been argued that the best method is to have direct recruitment in the lower grades and recruitment through promotion in the higher grades of service.

3. **Qualifications of the Employees** — One of the main problems in the recruitment system of modern civil service is laying down proper qualifications to suit the needs of the diverse tasks of administration. Broadly there are two types of qualifications required to public servants — general and special.

(a) **General Qualifications** : The modern State lays down certain general standards for its employees. They relate to his civil status, domicile, sex and age. Since the growth of nation-states it has become a universal practice to recruit only citizens.

The qualification of being domicile is generally laid down in public services in countries with federal systems. This qualification was first introduced in the U.S.A. to give the representation to
each federating unit in the national services. In India, domicile rules were prevalent till 1957 and have been discarded now.

Public service, until recently, was taboo for women in most countries, a restriction which gradually disappeared with spread of the influence of the doctrine of equality, and the increasing employment of women in all types of services. In India, all public services have been thrown open to women.

In countries like Britain and India where the concept of civil service as career has been adopted, comparatively lower age limits for clerical and semi-skilled jobs (between 16-20 years) and for administrative and technical (21 to 28 years) have been provided. But America which does not follow the Government service as a career principle prefers to recruit trained and experienced personnel in public service. Hence, the age scale there varies from 18 to 50 years.

**Special Qualifications**: In respect of educational qualifications, different countries prescribe different patterns. The British system lays down definite educational qualifications for entrants, with an emphasis on liberal education (classical and the humanities). In India, every university graduate can sit for the civil service competitive examinations and the subjects are so broad based as to include the widest range of university subjects. The American system being influenced by the doctrine of equality does not prescribe any educational qualifications. Anybody who qualifies in the competitive examination may enter the civil service. Technical experience is an additional qualification often laid down for technical services. This is essential to fill up technical posts in Public administration by professionals like doctors, engineers and lawyers. The public servant must possess executive ability, tact, resourcefulness, integrity, energy, faithfulness and capacity to get along with others. He should be a leader of men, and imbued with a sense of public interests.

4. **Methods of Determining Qualifications**: The following methods of determining qualifications have been adopted in most countries today:
   (1) Personal judgement of the appointing authority,
   (2) Certificates of character, ability and educational qualifications,
   (3) Record of previous experience — educational and occupational, and
   (4) Examinations.

**Written Examination**: Written tests may be either essay-type or objective type in form. Essay type is meant to examine the power and clarity of expression and the standard of logical thinking of the candidate. The objective type is usually employed to test the general knowledge and speed of thinking of the candidate. Either or both types are employed in civil service recruitment. Written tests fall under the following main categories:-

1. **Ability tests**: They may be either objective or essay type in form. In both, the purpose is to assess the general mental ability of the candidate, his memory, response to problems and power of reasoning. Besides, other tests have been derived in the U.S.A. to test the specific character traits of candidates. These may be listed as follows:
   (a) General Intelligence test was invented by Binet and Simon of America in 1905. It is a device of measuring the mind through such measures as Intelligence Scale and Pressey Series.
   (b) Unit Trait system was devised by L.L. Thurstone and his group. It is a process of identifying unit traits of intelligence, for example, perception, space factor, memory, reasoning ability and comprehension.
(c) Social intelligence test was also devised by Thurstone and his group. It measures the quality of social intelligence, that is, the quality of adaptability to all kinds of new situations and ability to influence people.

(d) Administrative ability test is known as the Gottschchold test and it tests the administrative ability. Some of the qualities tested are
(i) ability to appraise people;
(ii) capacity to take prompt decisions; and
(iii) social behaviour.

(e) Mechanical intelligence test is used to test the ability of mechanical performance needed for lower level skilled and semi-skilled grades, e.g., clerks, typists and machine operators.

2. **Aptitude Tests**: Various aptitude tests are extensively used for recruitment in the defence and other technical services in the U.K. and the U.S.A. which are meant to test the particular aptitude of the students towards that job.

3. **Achievement Tests**: The academic qualifications laid down for recruitment to various services are referred to as achievement tests, for example, in India the achievement test for taking the civil service examination is graduation.

4. **Personality Tests**: Various kinds of complex personality tests have been devised in western countries to discover all possible traits of human personality, such as the Laired Personal Inventory method was devised to measure emotion and temperament; Bern Reuter Flanagan Personality Inventory to test confidence and sociability; and Alloport A.S. Test to test qualities of ascendance and submission. These are highly complex psychiatric devices meant to test hidden traits of human personality.

5. **Oral Interview**: However, the most common, the least complex and expensive method of personality test is the viva voce (also called the oral interview). This test is normally supplemented by a written test. The interview is generally conducted by a board of three to five experts consisting of members appointed by the civil service commissions. These tests can never be entirely free from bias or subjectivity. They are meant to test the candidates’ alertness, intelligence, presence of mind and general personality.

**Recruitment System in India**

In India, recruitment system is essentially based on the British pattern. Recruitment qualifications at the initial stage are not based on any kind of specialised knowledge or experience. The method of testing merit of the applicants is to assess the general knowledge of the candidate on a variety of subjects. Entrance to civil services is based on merit which is tested by competitive examinations open to all citizens irrespective of religion, sex, caste or creed. Direct recruitment to the administrative and most of the executive services is made on the basis of competitive examinations based mainly on the following:

(i) Civil Services Preliminary Examination (objective type) for the selection of candidates for the main examination;
(ii) Civil Services Main Examination (Written);
(iii) Interview of those candidates who have qualified in the written test at the final state of recruitment.

**TRAINING**

Training is increasingly becoming an integral part of the contemporary administrative system. Indicative of this growing realisation is the setting up of training institutions and devising of suitable training programmes in most countries. Training is the systematic imposition of skilled knowledge to all categories of civil servants for their advancement and efficiency in service.
According to William G. Torpey, training is “the process of developing skills, habits, knowledge, and aptitudes in employees for the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of employees in their present Government positions as well as preparing employees for future Government positions.” According to A.D. Gorwala, the general conception of training is a mixture of many elements. “In one sense, training means the imparting knowledge of facts and their inter-relations — knowledge essentially of specialised or professional nature.... In another sense, training involves the teaching of techniques which require the coordinated handling of tools and appliances and physical faculties rather than of ideas.... In still another sense, training entails the formation of mental and physical habit patterns to ensure that the same stimuli would always produce the same automatic responses; finally, training implies what the good gardener does to the growing sapling....”

Training moulds and shapes the entrants to internalise the organisational skills and character, and helps them to adapt to new environments.

Training helps to build integrity and morale in the public servants by developing the requisite mental attitudes to questions of personal and public conduct. The role of training has been brilliantly analysed in the report of the committee on the training of civil servants (popularly known as the Asheton Committee Report), submitted to the British Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1944. The five main aims of training are:

(a) attainment of precision and clarity in the transaction of business;
(b) continuous adjustment to the changing socio-economic needs of our times;
(c) gain a broad overview of administration instead of narrow departmental vision;
(d) vocational training is needed to understand the nature of present tasks and to undertake new responsibilities; and
(e) enliven the nature of routine tasks by making them more interesting.

Simon lays emphasis on three factors which have given particular urgency to training for Government service in developing countries. These are:

(a) the need for innovation in administration to meet the demands and challenges of our times;
(b) the rapid multiplication of Government tasks and duties; and
(c) the acute shortage of skilled manpower in developing countries.

**Objects of Training**: The main object of training is ‘efficiency’. Efficiency has two important aspects —

(a) technical efficiency in the present work of the employee or some higher work to be entrusted to him in future,
(b) improvement of his morale. It is connected with the outlook and the attitude of the employee towards his work. When he is able to see his work as an essential part of the larger effort directed towards the service and the well-being of the community, it acquires a new significance and importance for him and calls forth from him a better effort than before. An employee must understand the legal framework under which he is to operate. He must be provided with the basic knowledge of social sciences to understand the intricacies of social environment. With the knowledge of social sciences he can react with the environment favourably.

Training must also aim to cultivate a new altitude and behaviour in human personality.
A very important object of training is the inculcation of or indoctrination into, an uniform technique or procedure of action. This is particularly so with the training of military officers who as a result of a common training at the staff college or academy can be pretty sure in the field how their brother officers would react to and behave in a particular situation.

**Training Methods**

Many types of training techniques have been evolved in various countries, mainly the U.S.A.

The methods are as follows:

(a) **Training by Experience**: This consists in putting the new entrant to a job, and to leave him to learn from its work. In many departments the new trainee is first put in the registry so that he may quickly get a bird’s eye view of the functions and the distribution of the work of the department as a whole, and then he is transferred from branch to branch at suitable intervals. Visits to other organisations doing similar or allied work, and tours of observation to semi-government bodies and corporations may also be organised. The Ashteton Committee on the training of the civil servants recommended that promising officials in their early thirties should be granted ‘Sabbatical leave’ to pursue an approved course of instruction or undertake specific research work in the country or even abroad.

(b) **Lecture Method**: The lecture method is one of the commonest and oldest methods of training in classroom teaching. However, to make it more effective it should be supplemented with post-lecture debates and discussions, seminars, conferences and other audio-visual methods.

(c) **Syndicate Method**: It is now widely followed in training institutes in various parts of the world. In this method, a topic under instruction is assigned to small groups of trainees who are asked to conduct a thorough study of that subject under the guidance of the teachers. Syndicates are of two types — problem solving and knowledge gathering.

(d) **Conference Method**: This method gathers together the trainees from one or more departments into a meeting under the chairmanship of a senior officer. Discussion on selected problems, in which the trainees themselves are the principal participants, follows. The function of the Chairman is to guide the discussion by putting in an occasional word here and there. Two things are essential for the success of this method. Firstly, the trainees must form a homogenous group and they must feel free to put forward their several points of view. This method has been widely followed for supervising training in the U.S.A.

(e) **Case Study Method**: Under this method, an intensive and in-depth study of a particular subject is undertaken by narrating the actual field experience of working with the problem to trainees by experienced persons. The case narrative is first studied and then debated upon by the students with the teachers.

(f) **Sensitivity Training**: It is one of the latest methods of attitude conditioning of civil servants to groom them towards requisite modes of behaviour. Trainees are exposed to groups who make them aware of their peculiar character traits (if any), thus providing them an opportunity for self-analysis and improvement.

(g) **Role Play and Management Games**: Under this method, trainees are told to enact concrete roles related to their jobs as a part of demonstrative training. Management games are also similar in nature. After the play-acting a debate takes place on the character acting of each trainee in a discussion of creative criticism.

(h) **Incidence Method**: It is a problem-solving approach meant to develop decision-making skills in the trainees. Students are given instructions on basic administrative facts and problems. On the basis of these facts some problem areas are identified and students are asked to write solutions to these problems and defend their answers.
Types of Training

Training may be of several types. These are as follows:

(a) **Formal and Informal Training**: Formal training requires classroom lectures, seminars, debates and discussions combined with tutorials and work projects. It may be given at a particular venue during a specified period, after which a degree or certificate may be awarded to the trainee. It may be full-time or part-time, pre-entry or post-entry in nature. Informal training is training by experience which the employee gradually acquires in the course of the actual doing of the work. This has been the traditional method of training in Public administration and still holds the field to a large extent. In the case of average employee, it may lead to the formation of bad habits and breed much frustration and discouragement. Formal training is free from the above defects.

- a test of intellectual ability and scholastic attainments through written examinations on subjects of the candidates’ choice (optional papers);
- a written test common to all candidates, meant to test the capacity of clear and logical thinking, memory, expression and general knowledge (compulsory papers); and
- an interview to assess a candidate’s personal qualities.

Recruitment by promotion is also made at lower levels of services. Following the recommendations of the Kothari Committee, the recruitment to the All-India and Central Services (Class I) is made on the basis of a combined civil services examination common to all the services in three stages:

- Civil Services Preliminary Examination (objective type) for the selection of candidates for the main examination;
- Civil Services Main Examination (Written);
- Interview of those candidates who have qualified in the written test at the final stage of recruitment.

(b) **Short and Long-Term Training**: The difference between them is a matter of the duration of the training course and calls for no comment except that such duration depends upon the ease or difficulty of the subject matter of the training and the exigencies of the service. During times of emergency like war, for example, the demand for short term training of new recruits, military as well as civil, is insistent.

(c) **Pre-entry and Post-entry Training**: Pre-entry training seeks to prepare future recruits for the service. In a sense, all education in schools and colleges is a sort of pre-entry training seeking to prepare the students, among other things, for State service. The term pre-entry training is, however, limited to referring vocational or specialised training. In India, there is hardly any specific pre-entry training scheme in existence. In the U.S.A., a rather wide pre-entry training scheme exists (for candidates selected for administrative and managerial positions) where students in the course of their technical education undergo internship or apprenticeship in selected organisations before taking up formal employment. On the other hand, post-entry training refers to training after appointment and not before it. It may be formal or informal in structure and content. Lectures may be combined with work experience.

(d) **Departmental and Central Training**: Training is departmental when arrangements are made for it within the department or the office itself. Such training is usually imparted by the more experienced officers of the department. For less specialised varieties of training, specially for the higher officers, there are central training institutions. Sometimes individual departments also maintain their central or regional training institutions, e.g., the police training schools and colleges in many of the Indian States.
(e) **Skill and Background Training**: The purpose of skill training is to instruct the employees in some specialised technique or a complicated system of law or procedure, e.g., the teachers’ training is primarily intended to develop skill in the art of teaching. Training of craftsmen and manipulative employees is almost entirely a skill training. Background training, on the other hand seeks to teach certain subjects which help the trainee to understand the political, administrative, economic and social background and consequences of his work. Its purpose is to broaden his mind generally. The preliminary training imparted to the cadets of the administrative class at the Musoorie school is an example of background training.

The Ashteton Committee suggested some more kinds of training — centralised training, training for mobility, initial training, training for supervision, training for higher administration, vocational training, background training, further education, etc.

**Organisation of Training**

The different channels through which training can be imparted are as follows:

(i) Senior officers of various departments may themselves undertake the responsibility of training juniors.

(ii) Training may be conducted in the organisation by outside institutes.

(iii) Employees may be sent to outside institutions or universities to get training. Both formal and informal training is necessary if the employee is to specialise and keep an active interest in his job.

**Training in India**

Training for civil servants in India must be attuned to the following goals in addition to make its recipients competent and efficient:

(a) Training must inculcate in the recruits respect for the traditions of parliamentary democracy which India has adopted. This point needs emphasis in view of the authoritarian basis of the Indian administration in the past.

(b) Training should aim at fostering an essentially national outlook, combating in the process, the feelings of regionalism, communalism, casteism, etc.

(c) It should foster emotional integration with the people.

(d) As civil services are mostly manned by urban people, having little knowledge and appreciation of rural life and problems, training programme should take special note of this factor, so that the employees may not ignore the realities of situation in rural areas. Training must provide rural bias to the employees.

(e) India’s destiny is linked up with the successful implementation of the successive Five year plans. It should be an important aim of training to make the employees ‘Programme oriented’.

According to the Planning Commission, “Next to recruitment the training of personnel has considerable bearing on administrative efficiency. Each type of work in the Government requires a programme of training suited to it. In general in all branches of administration, it is necessary to provide for the training of personnel at the commencement of service as well as at appropriate intervals in later years. In this connection, we would emphasise the importance of careful grounding in revenue and development administration for recruits to the Indian Administrative Service and the State Administrative Services.”

Post-entry training of civil servants in India is the responsibility of Central and State Governments. This initial post-entry training is imparted in two ways—institutional training (for
Administrative, Policy, Audit and Accounts, and Income tax services); and training under the guidance of senior and experienced officers (for Defence, Accounts, Customs, Postal services, etc.) There are various central secretariat training schools which train new recruits to the Central Secretariat Service. Systematic facilities for post-entry training do not exist for the class II and subordinate services. Here the emphasis is on on-the-job informal training. However, some departments like the railways and posts and telegraphs run staff colleges to train their staff.

Various administrative bodies, however, regularly conduct refresher courses for public servants. The National Academy of Administration conducts refresher courses for officers of the I. A.S. with ten to fifteen years service. The refresher course is meant to impart specialised training in administrative thought and practice. Refresher courses for senior civil servants are also organised by the Indian Institute of Public Administration.

Young recruits to the Indian Civil, Police and Foreign Services get their initial on probation training at the National Academy in Mussoorie before proceeding to other specialised institutions to get their particular service-oriented training. An important consideration for introducing a common introductory five-month course in Mussoorie for all civil service recruits was to enable them to have a knowledge of the political, constitutional, economic and social context in which the administration functions, besides acquainting them with the machinery of Government and the broad principles of Public administration. A new pattern of sandwich type of training was introduced for the I.A.S. probationers at the National Academy in July 1969. Being problem-oriented the training is based largely on the experience and the observations of the probationary I.A.S. officers in the field of district administration during practical training in the States.

For top business and Government executives, the Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad, provides a four-month course at the college. The objective of the staff college is the development of executive and managerial practices of the administrators, both in business and industry as well as in Government.

Many training schools have been set up in several States to train recruits to the higher levels of the state services.

In India, institutionalised training programmes have greatly expanded in number, scope and nature. Refresher and orientation courses, seminars, workshops and conferences form the major techniques of in-service training of civil servants. The Central Government grants study leave liberally to enable them to undertake post-entry training in service.

The major flaw in our training system is the lack of a sound and integrated policy on employees’ training. Training facilities are not equal in all Government departments nor are coordinated in a unified pattern. Another disturbing fact is that no class relationship exists between training and promotion, hence many employees are not often encouraged to undertake training. Flaws also exist in the content of the training courses which need to be modified in keeping with the advancement in modern administrative thought and practice as well as the changing socio-economic climate of the administration.

Training is thus, an action process by which capabilities of the personnel can be improved, to meet the organisational needs in terms of their knowledge, skills, and attitudes required in performing organisational tasks and functions, within relatively short period of time.
The content and techniques of training in any country cannot be static, but flexible and dynamic in character, changing according to the socio-economic conditions of society and the needs and aspirations of the people.

**PROMOTION**

The word ‘Promote’ is derived from the Latin expression pramovere, meaning ‘to move forward’

The dictionary defines ‘promote’ as
1. To exalt in station, rank or honour; to elevate; to advance.
2. To contribute to the growth or prosperity of (something in course); to further the progress of, to promote learning.
3. To advance from a given grade or class as qualified for one higher.

Promotion, in the words of L.D. White is “An appointment from a given position to a position of higher grade, involving a change of duties to a more difficult type of work and greater responsibility accompanied by change of title and usually an increase in pay.”

In fact, promotion refers to advancement in rank and status, usually (not necessarily immediately) accompanied by increase in emoluments. A good promotion system is useful to the employees individually as well as to the administration as a whole. According to the Fulton Committee, “The right promotion at the right time is an essential part of the process of developing to the full talents of men and women in the service.”

Promotion may be looked at from two points of view. From the point of view of employee, it is an advancement from a lower grade or class of the service to a higher one carrying a larger salary and higher duties and responsibilities. While from the point of view of the employing authority it means filling up the higher posts by the selection of the fittest persons from within the service. As a matter of principle, public interest rather than the interest of individual employees should be the ruling consideration in making promotions.

**Need for Promotion**

The need for promotion arises from a variety of factors. These factors are as follows:
(a) Promotion is a reward to an employee which entails a change in his position and status.
(b) An organisation is enabled to retain the services of its personnel by the device of promotions. Man is a growing creature and if his need for recognition and advancement is not adequately satisfied by his organisation, he is apt to seek change, thereby causing a large turnover of staff.
(c) A system of promotion is essential to help build morale and efficiency in public services. Unless the civil service has adequate promotional avenues, it will not be able to attract ambitious and talented young men and women towards it.
(d) A sound policy of promotion fosters a feeling of belongingness in the personnel, contributes to a measure of continuity in policies and practices and leads to building up of traditions and conventions.
(e) A proper promotion system helps in retaining the services of the ablest amongst its employees and also in giving them an opportunity to improve their capabilities and qualifications.
(f) A promotion system must be based on the principles of equity and fair play. If promotions gel governed by favouritism, unjust prejudice, nepotism and corruption, the ‘left outs’ will in all
probability continue floating in the same organisation nursing grievances against employers. The consequent low morale affects organisational productivity.

Essentials of a Promotion System

W.F Willoughby lays down the following conditions as a basis of a promotion system;

1. Adoption of standard specifications setting forth the duties and qualifications required for all promotions.
2. The classification of these positions into distinct classes, series, grades and services.
3. The inclusion of all positions (except those of a policy-making character) into this classification.
4. The adoption of the principle, as far as possible, that superior positions will be filled by promotion from lower positions.
5. The adoption of principle of merit in determining the selection of employees for promotion.
6. The provision of adequate means for determining the relative merits of employees eligible for promotion.

The first and second conditions ensure adherence to the merit principle. The third and fourth would ensure that all employees are eligible for promotion. The fifth emphasises that promotions be made on the criterion of merit. The last factor stresses the adoption of a scientific method.

Principles of Promotion

The need for principles of promotion arises because the opportunities for it are limited. If there were enough of higher posts to permit the promotion of everybody entering service up to the highest in due course, a search for principles of promotion would be unnecessary. But the administrative structure for obvious reasons has to be pyramidal, broad at the base and tapering towards the top till it ends at a single point. The result, therefore, as L.D. White puts it, is that there ‘arises the underlying and irreconcilable conflict in any promotion system. Large number of employees, normally ambitious and intent on success....and under heavy economic pressure with the passing of years face a limited number of higher positions in which vacancies occur at relatively irregular and infrequent intervals. No form of promotion system can solve this dilemma’. A large number of public servants, therefore, cannot get promotion to their satisfaction. Nothing is more destructive of the morale of public services than the impression that promotions are capriciously made. Hence, principles of promotion is very important in the study of administration.

There are two main principles of promotion, namely, Seniority and Merit. They may be applied either as alternatives or simultaneously.

Seniority Principle: The seniority principle is widely prevalent as a method of promotion in most countries. According to Dr. Finer, “It is automatic, and avoids the need for making invidious distinctions between one person and another, of placing the young over the old, of measuring the responsibility for the result of promotion.”

The principle of seniority is that the length of service should determine the order of precedence in making promotion.

Merits:

(a) It is objective, easy to follow, and gives everyone a chance.
(b) There is little room for nepotism or favouritism in its application.
(c) It determines the order of precedence according to age and experience which is in conformity with the established usage in society.
(d) It reduces unhealthy rivalry or bitterness in the organisation thereby promoting harmony and increased morale in the services.

**Drawbacks:**

(a) It does not necessarily lead to the selection of the best among those available and eligible for promotion.
(b) Seniority does not necessarily coincide with age. Specially in a grade which is partly recruited directly and partly by promotion and so it may not be able, after all, to prevent younger people being placed over the older.
(c) It leads to demoralisation and complacency in service, among the more talented officials.
(d) Unless the proportion of higher posts to the lower is large, and vacancies in the former arise at regular and uniform intervals, the principle of seniority is unable to ensure the reaching of the higher positions by every officer and his holding it for a reasonable period. According to Gladden, “All members of a grade are not fit for promotion, promotions are usually few and far between an abnormal rather than a normal process; while changes in personnel are most likely to be subject to irregular fluctuations.”
(e) Even if the principle of seniority were free from the above defects and could offer universal satisfaction to the claims of all for promotion, the question would remain whether it is a rational and just principle of promotion.
(f) The principle may be successful for the lower posts but for the higher ones special type of qualities may be required.

In principle, authoritative opinion seems to be agreed, that

(a) In promotion to the higher posts, merit should be the only consideration to the total exclusion of seniority;
(b) In promotion to middle posts, merit should be the determining factor and seniority a secondary one; and
(c) In promotion to lower posts, seniority should carry weight, but even here care should be taken to ensure that exceptional merit is rewarded by quick promotion.

In spite of all the arguments against it, seniority is still firmly entrenched as a principle of promotion in all except perhaps the highest ranges of the service.

**Merit Principle:** The principle of merit is the rival of the principle of seniority. The case of this principle in determining promotion is practically unassailable. This ensures that the best person is promoted to the higher post ‘based on specified criteria alone’. Merit is, however, a complex concept and includes besides intellectual attainments as revealed by degrees and examinations, several other factors like personality, capacity for leadership, strength of character and so on. It is, therefore, not easy to measure it objectively, and several methods for testing it have been suggested.

**Methods of testing Merit**
The four main methods to ascertain merit are as follows:

(a) **Written Examination:** Written examination can be conducted when there is an open competition or when there is limited competition or to ensure a minimum pass. Examination is more or less an objective method of determining merit. The merits of the system are that it eliminates chances of corruption, favouritism and arbitrariness. Apart from it, memorising things
for taking an examination is extremely irksome to older employees. It is used especially where
the number of candidates from whom selection is to be made is rather large and where
specialised knowledge is an important requisite for the posts to which promotions are to be
made. Promotional examinations are generally followed at the lower levels of the public
services. It may be competitive or qualifying in nature.

(b) The discretion of the Head: It is an old and respected principle. The determination of
merit for promotion may be left to the judgement of head of the office or department concerned,
who has personal knowledge of the various employees and their work in his organisation. Such
personal knowledge is, however, possible only in small organisations, and the correct use of
discretion depends upon the integrity of the head concerned. This also helps the departmental
head to maintain discipline and authority in the department. It has the advantage of being both
simple and comprehensive. It is highly subjective and may easily create the impression of
favouritism or arbitrariness in promotion among employees. It often leads to unhealthy rivalry
and causes considerable ill-will among those who may miss out for promotion. The
departmental head is unable to keep a close touch with their subordinates or to form an accurate
opinion of their merits and capacities as public organisations are too vast and populous in nature.
In spite of its criticism, this system is provided with certain safeguards. The departmental head
might be assisted by a promotion board, constituted by him from amongst officials of his own
department. This board may review the record of the concerned employee. Moreover, a system
of appeals can also be provided. The actual promotion should be in the hands of the head of the
department concerned but the appeal against wrong promotions should be heard by some outside
agency.

(c) Efficiency Rating: The system of efficiency rating originated in the U.S.A. for
scientifically assessing the service record of public employees. It is based on two main factors,
namely, the classification of all governmental posts and the ‘mechanical evaluation of workers’
qualities. Efforts are made to judge different traits of employees. In large organisations where
the head cannot personally know all the employees, such records and ratings furnish a valuable
aid to his judgement in selecting for promotions.

There are three major systems of efficiency rating. These are as follows:
(i) Production Records: They are used to assess the work of a mechanical character such as those of typists, stenographers and machine operators.
(ii) The Graph Rating Scale System: Assessment is based on certain categories of trails of an employee’s character such as accuracy, initiative, resourcefulness and dependability. Each quality is graded into different classes like ‘excellent’, ‘very good’, ‘satisfactory’, ‘unsatisfactory’.
(iii) Personality Inventory System: It includes a broad list of traits of human character relevant to employment. From these the rating officer has to select only those items which are relevant to the characteristics of the employee.

(d) Viva Voce: The written examination, personal judgement and efficiency rating can be
combined with viva voce tests which can be of open and limited nature. The viva test gives
the advantage of having a total look at the person and his work by a group of seniors competent to judge.

Promotion should be regulated on the following conditions:

1. Length of service;
2. Proved efficiency and special merit;
3. Regularity of attendance;
4. Integrity and good behaviour;
5. Seniority should be a predisposing factor for promotion and not predetermining factor.

In fact, a compromise of the two extremes of pure seniority and pure merit should be followed.

However, there are certain criticisms levelled against promotion. These are as follows:
(a) Poor reporting system
(b) Promotion granted on extraneous considerations
(c) No suitable criteria to judge merit
(d) Delayed promotions
(e) No policy regarding the nature and quantum of posts
(f) Many administrative hurdles in the promotion
(g) Neglect of staff associations
(h) Unequal opportunities for promotion
(i) Promotions are made within classes and often within cadres of a class.

Promotion in the public services in India is based on the seniority and/or merit principle. For selection posts (largely in Class I and Class II) the criterion of selection is merit. The officers considered for promotion are arranged in order of seniority, their number being limited to from three to five times the number of vacancies available for promotion. In the case of non-selection posts (Class III and IV), promotion is made on the seniority principle, unless any one is otherwise rejected or considered unfit. Generally, the basis of promotion has been seniority at lower levels, seniority-cum-merit at the middle ranks and merit at the senior grades of the civil service.

**Sound Promotion System**
There are certain features which give rise to sound promotion system. These are :
(a) Judicious selection of able young people with the required educational background and the necessary attributes of character and motivation.
(b) The system followed in the confidential reports on employee’s performance should facilitate assessment of performance, personal qualities of workers and identification of the true potential of the candidates with as much objectivity as possible.
(c) Careful training should be imparted to them in those aspects of administration which cannot be acquired beforehand.
(d) During the period of probation, they should be assigned a variety of tasks by which their aptitudes can be tested and after that the candidates may be retained on a career basis or released.
(e) Rational forward planning of their assignments to ensure their maximum utilisation and the proper development of their aptitudes.
(f) Promotions should be linked to training and professional expertise and should ensure opportunities for growth and development in career.
(g) Improving their qualifications by in-service training or at a later stage of their service, by refresher courses.
(h) An open system of promotion permitting the ablest officers to serve in the higher posts, whether in headquarters or the field.
(i) To avoid any kind of subjectivity, promotion boards should be established and take recourse to a system of appeals where necessary. For this purpose an appeal board should be built. A representative of the head of the organisation concerned should present the case of the organisation before the appeal board.
PAY AND SERVICE CONDITIONS OF THE CIVIL SERVANTS

A man chooses his career on the basis of pay which he expects to receive. Mason Haire remarks, “pay in one form or another is certainly one of the mainsprings of motivation in our society.” An adequate and sound salary structure together with other working conditions is the sine qua non for the organisational efficiency. The aim of the organisation should be to create and maintain such conditions whereby an employee feels like giving his best, gets satisfaction out of his job and is suitably rewarded.

Factors of Salary Scales

(a) Cost of living: This method is to link up the salary scales or the allowance or bonus attached to them to the cost of living index. This secures automatically an adjustment of pay rules to the prevailing cost of living. The salary can be adjusted to the rising prices:
   (i) By making a percentage addition or cut in the salaries according to the rise and fall in prices;
   (ii) Revising the pay scales;
   (iii) Link up the salary scales to the dearness allowance based on the cost of living index, which automatically adjusts the pay scales to the prevailing cost of living.

(b) Equal pay for equal work: It is based on the principle that the physical, mental and intellectual capacities of employees are different and they perform jobs of differing levels of responsibility. The natural guiding principle should be equal pay for equal work.

(c) Man-power availability: If the man-power for particular type of job is abundant, the employer can hire workers at lower rates, which ultimately leads to job dissatisfaction among the employees.

(d) Legislation: The minimum wages legislation has a tendency to complicate the machinery which ultimately proves to be a major negative effect. The Pay Commission (1957) laid down certain definite tests to judge the adequacy of the conditions of services. They are:
   (i) Whether the Government are getting recruits of the requisite standards;
   (ii) Whether public servants are generally continuing to be efficient through their service; and
   (iii) Whether there are not many premature retirements, or resignations in order to take other employment.

(e) Social considerations: There should be certain minimal disparities between the highest and the lowest salaries. The pay structure of the Government employees should bear some relation to the general economic conditions prevailing in the country.

(f) External relativity: The scale of pay of the employees should be fairly comparable to rates of remuneration applicable in other organisations functioning in the same field of activity. day’s leave for having worked eleven days. In countries like U.S.A. and U.K. this leave is not allowed to accumulate for more than 30 days. In India, the leave has been allowed to be accumulated for a period of 180 days, now 240 days according to the Fifth Pay Commission. This leave may be encashed at the time of retirement.

(g) Capacity to pay: The ability of the employer to pay to the employees is an important factor in the determination of salaries or wages.

(h) Collective bargaining: The continual rise in the salary levels of the employees and the increase in the fringe benefit programmes is generally more as a result of bargaining pressure of the employee’s union than any other single factor. The staff associations and labour unions often try to put pressure on the employer to pay more.
Regional variations in remuneration: In India, local or regional allowances are given to public servants in five kinds of circumstances, namely,
(a) to meet the high cost of living in certain cities or areas,
(b) to compensate for the hardships of service in areas whose climate is not conducive,
(c) to compensate for the hardship of service in remote or difficult areas,
(d) to meet the higher cost of living and special requirements in hill stations like warm clothing, quilt, etc., and
(e) to compensate for the rigours of the field service.

These allowances vary according to the pay of the public servant concerned.

Service Conditions
The employer should try to get best out of the employees and for this it needs to ensure working conditions in which efficiency and maximum possible job satisfaction are maintained.

There are various kinds of service conditions. These are as follows:
(i) Leave: Employees require leave for rest and health during sickness, or to attend to their private business. There are several kinds of leaves:
   (a) Earned or Privilege Leave: This is the amount of leave which an employee is entitled to annually for having done duty during the rest of the year. It is given on full average pay and its purpose is to enable the employee to take rest for a certain period so that he may return to duty fresh and invigorated. The amount of the annual leave, therefore, varies according to the employee’s length of service and the nature of his work. In India, earned leave is permissible at the rate of 1/11, that is one day’s leave for having worked eleven days. In countries like U.S.A and U.K. this leave is not allowed to accumulate for more than 30 days. In India, the leave has been allowed to be accumulated for a period of 180 days now 240 days according to the Fifth Pay Commission. This leave may be encashed at the time of retirement.
   (b) Sick Leave and Leave on Private Affairs: Sick leave and leave on private affairs, as their names indicate, are meant for different purposes; but in India under the Revised Leave Rules of 1933 both of them were linked together under a scheme of half-pay leave. In India this leave is admissible for 20 days in a year. This facility of commutation is available only in the case of half-pay leave on medical grounds but not when leave is taken for private affairs.
   (c) Casual Leave: It is usually available for 14 days in a year. It is not allowed to be combined with any other kind of leave. Its purpose is to enable the employees to get leave for a few days whenever required to meet some need suddenly arising. Barring cases of illness or emergencies which cannot be foreseen, casual leave should be applied for a few days in advance.
   (d) Study Leave: It is granted to the employees for improving their scientific, technical or professional qualifications which may be useful for the Government work. It is available for a maximum period of two years during the whole service.
   (e) Maternity Leave: It is available to the female employees for a period of three months—six weeks before and six weeks after delivery.
   (f) Extraordinary Leave without Pay: This type of leave constitutes an interruption in service and is not counted towards increments, pension and other service benefits. It can be granted when no other kind of leave is available and when the employees specifically desire so.
(ii) **Holidays**: Holidays differ from leave in being granted by the employing authority by an advance announcement or rule so that it does not have to be applied for. In Central Government, five day week has been started and Sunday and Saturday are holidays every week. Besides these, holidays are also given on occassions of national and religious festivals.

(iii) **Hours of work**: Hours of work cannot be the same in all employments because the requirements of their work vary. In U.S.A. the most common work week is 40 hours. On five day week, it comes to nearly 8 hours per day. The most common working hours are from 9 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. However, in some organizations work has to be done in shifts round the clock.

The considerations in deciding about the hours of work are:

(a) Workers expectations about greater leisure;
(b) Overtime work (It may be paid at the usual time rate, or at \(\frac{1}{2}\) or 2 times of that rate);
(c) Rest periods;
(d) Alternate work schedules.

(iv) **Office accommodation and staff welfare**: Adequate and suitable office accommodation and arrangements for staff welfare also form an important part of the conditions of service. The provision of up-to-date equipment and good accommodation is a contribution towards a contented staff which the employer can fairly be asked to provide. The resulting improvement in organisation and increase in efficiency in our view provide a good return on the outlay involved. Other staff amenities are adequate heat, light, air and quietness in the office, enough lavatories, a rest room for women staff, a clean and pleasant canteen serving food at reasonable prices, a library, a garden, playgrounds, a convenient transport system to and from the homes of the staff, clubs and societies devoted to recreational and cultural objects, a staff magazine, etc.

(v) **Health care**: The objectives of health care facilities in the organisation are to get physically fit employees, to train the employees in health and hygiene, to reduce loss of work-time and to generate a feeling of well being and peace of mind in the employees. Health care is of two types:

(a) On-the-Job health care: Includes pre-entry examination (healthy individuals are recruited in the organisation) and postentry general health care (it includes the general health care facilities available right in the work place to take care of the common ailments and emergencies.

(b) Group Health Insurance: In India, free medical treatment is provided to the Government employees and their families under the Central Government Health Scheme and various other schemes sponsored by the Government. Where facilities are not available, the employees are permitted to avail of the treatment by private doctors which is reimbursed.

(vi) **Housing**: There is a provision for concessional housing facilities. The rent is much less than that prevailing in the market. Those employees who are devoid of housing facilities, they are given a house rent allowance upto a certain percentage of their salaries to enable them to rent private house. Housing loans are also provided by Government to its employees on concessional rate of interest.
Working conditions:

Ventilation: It is very important to maintain proper supply of oxygen to the workers. The air should be free of pollution.

Lighting: Proper lighting system should be maintained in the workplace. The intensity of light can be measured by a photometer.

Noise: It can be reduced by provision of soft or resilient floor coverings and sound-absorbing wall coverings.

Sanitation: General cleanliness should be maintained. Drinking water should be provided. Toilets should be clean.

Machinery of Negotiation regarding Conditions of Service:

Dissatisfaction among the employees with the existing rate of payment and other conditions of service is bound to arise from time to time, and unless there is machinery for its ventilation, discussion and removal, it may keep on smouldering and burst into disputes and strikes dislocating the work of the services. The need for such machinery is all the greater in the sphere of the public services, because here there is no direct contact between the employer and employee.

In case of the public service, the employer is the state, which in actual practice is represented by its higher officers who are not free to deal with their subordinates in the matter of service conditions. These considerations make it necessary that dissatisfaction and possibility of disputes should be brought to light, discussed, and settled as early as possible. This can be done only by the provisions of a suitable and adequate machinery for the purpose.

RELATIONS OF THE CIVIL SERVANTS WITH THE POLITICAL EXECUTIVE

(a) Under the Parliamentary system of Government which India has adopted, executive power in each department of Government vests in a Minister who is a member of the legislature and is responsible for its policies and performance.

(b) The Minister is an amateur who does not possess much experience or knowledge of the working of his department. He is, therefore, assisted and advised by a permanent head of the department or Secretary.

(c) The Minister, as a member of the Government, formulates the policy of the department under his charge and it is for the Secretary, assisted by his team of civil servant assistants, to carry out the policy.

(d) The civil servants furnish facts, figures and precedents on which policy is based. In some cases, policy questions may even be initiated by them. The size and importance of the Prime Minister’s Secretariat is one small evidence of the increasing role that the civil servants play in making of policy.

(e) Normally, it is none of the business of a civil servant to question the merits of a policy laid down by the Minister. But it is both his right and his duty to point out to the Minister the drawbacks of a particular policy decision. He must give his advice frankly and fearlessly and then carry out orders.

(f) In India, senior civil servants have been found wanting as far as tendering frank and fearless advice is concerned. There has been a general tendency to give the Minister the advice he would like to have. The Administrative Reforms Commission observed that “a
further development of this unhealthy trend is the emergence of personal affiliation leading to an element of politicisation among the civil servant.” Too many Secretaries find out orally what the Minister desires and then trim their notings on the files to suit his wishes.

(g) The tendency of Ministers to treat senior civil servants not as advisers but as hirelings and the willingness of many civil servants to accept this role has been one of the serious weaknesses of Parliamentary Government in India.

(h) Ministers, either with an eye on the next election or under pressure from their supporters, friends or relations, ask for administrative actions which do not conform to rules or which involve unfairness and discrimination. Such actions often relate to matters of transfers, postings, promotions, recognition of institutions, and issue of licences, grants, etc. There are not many senior civil servants who refuse to yield to ministerial pressure in such matters.

(i) There are large scale transfers of senior civil servants which often follow a change of Government in the States. Even at the Centre, Ministers are known to insist on having Secretaries of their choice.

(j) It’s a common complaint that senior civil servants act as darbaris to their Ministers.

**The Question of Responsibility**

A Minister can punish erring officers and refuse them protection where they have defied or exceeded his orders or been unfaithful to his policy. But as far as the legislature is concerned the responsibility for the working of his department rests entirely on his shoulders.

This has important implications:

(a) When the work of a Minister’s department arouses criticism in the Legislature or in the press, he cannot say that the fault lay with the civil servants.

(b) Individual civil servants should not be criticised in public or in the legislature. The reason for bureaucracy’s ‘nameless, faceless and speech-less’ character and for the anonymity and silence of the civil servant is that the political head of the department, a Minister, takes all responsibility in Parliament and outside.

In India, however, names of senior civil servants are frequently dragged into parliamentary debates and in a number of cases Ministers have criticised civil servants in the legislature instead of defending them against such criticism as they should.

**Neutral Vs. Committed Bureaucracy**

Under the concept of neutrality, bureaucracy serves as a permanent instrument of Government under conditions of changing party control, by acknowledging and adopting neutrality. According to O.P. Dwivedi and R.B. Jain, “Such neutrality is the working premise for the loyal support of any lawful Government whatever be its ideological stance. On the other hand, it may and does foster a personal disengagement from any kind of political choice, including the difference between constitutional or unconstitutional means or ends in the actions of the Government of the day.”

In India, the concept of civil service neutrality began to be attacked after Mrs. Indira Gandhi expressed dissatisfaction at the slow rate of socio-economic change in the country. She blamed the bureaucracy for sabotaging the Government programmes and expressed the view that only a ‘committed bureaucracy’ could bring about social transformation envisaged in the Five Year Plans and in progressive legislation. She felt that the bureaucracy in India with its background, education and training had isolated itself from the masses and, thus, was unable to keep pace
with the rapidly changing socio-economic scene. Several reasons have been given in favour of the view that neutral model has not worked in India according to its basic spirit.

- The myth of neutrality of Indian bureaucracy has been exploded. All organised groups have their political activity; India’s bureaucracy cannot be an exception.
- Too much political interference at all levels of the administration have forced the bureaucracy to abandon its neutrality and follow the directives of the political masters.
- The Congress Government did not regard itself as a party, but as a faith in all its aspects.
- Due to their different social and economic backgrounds, there has not been, by and large, proper rapport between the Ministers and top civil servants, making it difficult for the latter to stay neutral.

- Continuous emphasis on neutrality has led to ideological indifference among civil servants. They are divorced from the basic philosophical, social and economic controversies behind decisions of the Government.
- Political neutrality creates a dilemma for the civil servants. It lies in the paradox of civil servants being in and yet out of politics. It is accentuated in a political system overstrained by sharply contradictory pressures on it.
- In a society like ours where bureaucracy is caught between intentional competing political forces and strong tendencies towards social fragmentations and national disintegration, neutrality is difficult to practice.
- Civil servants are part of society and are, thus, bound to represent the conflicts rampant in society.

Conclusion: It is not very easy to draw a clear line between ideological commitment and political neutrality. It does not solve the problem by saying that civil servants should be committed not to the ideology and programme of a particular party but to ‘national objectives’ as they are defined in the Directive Principles of State Policy laid down in the Constitution. Similar confusion is reflected in a statement like this: “In the Indian context, the civil servants need to have a commitment to the high principles of public good as embodied in the Constitution, namely, promotion of justice—social, economic and political and the Directive Principles of State Policy.” Such terms as ‘national objectives’ and ‘high principles of public good’ are likely to be interpreted differently by different parties.

The correct equation between Government and the civil servant, according to K. Santhanam, is that “while Government servants, are expected to take a detached view of the political motivations of actions required of them, the party in power should also refrain from actively converting them to their political faith or brain washing them to a degree that would affect their impartiality or neutrality.”

**ADMINISTRATIVE ETHICS**

The prevailing standards of ethical behaviour of public servants in India are not high enough, and demand considerable improvement. The recent disclosures of ‘scandals’ involving both political and permanent executives have shaken the confidence of the people in the morality and rectitude of their rulers. The entire administrative system is thick with charges of corruption, nepotism, favouritism... and the like, and there is open demand for the establishment of independent tribunals or appointment of Ombudsman to deal with such cases. The growing size of the Government and the increasing impact of it on people’s lives call for high ethical standards on the part of Government employees. These days the pressure of work is so heavy that administrators do not have time to reflect on the ethics of their actions. It is true that
most of the public administrators are perceived to function in a state of moral anesthesia. Today, the public administrators not merely execute policies and decisions made by the political executive; they advise during policy-making process and execute them. In India, general public treat administrators as their source book to know about various programmes. Such a crucial role of civil servants has made them prone to be more authoritarian in their dealing and behaviour with the public with a very dim sense of account-ability.

The Government of India has formulated rules of conduct for the officials to bring all the administrators under a single code of discipline. These rules are of a prescriptive nature and their violation by public officials invites various forms of official displeasures, including punitive actions. It may be noticed that these rules do not govern the public officials during their official hours and for official activities alone. They go far beyond; they regulate all aspects of their life, making little distinction between what may be called official life and private life. A public servant is expected to lead a life which not only keeps him above criticism but also retains and enhances citizen’s confidence in the Government. A public servant must also honour the implications of the various conduct governing rules taken as a whole. The public servants should maintain honesty and integrity, with particular care for weaker sections of society, and should never be, or appear to be, unfair or discriminatory. Public servants should respect the right of the public to information on all Government activities and transactions except where they are debarred from releasing information by provisions of law or valid instructions. Public servants should promote and exhibit appropriate behaviour and standards of excellence and integrity in his public and private conducts. They should support the juniors in the latter’s efforts to resist wrong or illegal directives and in abiding by the code of administrative ethics. Administrative ethics is a positive concept and includes strong moral and intellectual inputs. Corruption is one of the manifestations of low ethics in Public administration. The principle of political patronage is another moot point. Today, a Minister prefers a civil servant who is prepared to carry out his commands regardless of his officer’s moral conviction. In this respect, a civil servant is the main culprit. He has mastered all the rules and regulations and can prepare a case favourable to the Minister’s viewpoint to gain his favour. Low ethics in administration demoralises the civil service and adversely affects its performance. To upgrade the morale of public servants, a conference of Chief Secretaries was held in Nov. 1996 on the issue ‘Agenda for an Effective and Responsive Administration’. In this conference, a code of ethics was determined for the public services in India. The objective of the code is to prescribe standards of integrity and conduct that are to apply in the public services.