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JOURNAL OF

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Vol. IV, No. 1, May, 1974.

A Simplified Critical Path Method Applicable to Developing Countries.

Some Reflections on Current Administrative Reforms in District Administration.

An Appraisal of the Need for Management Services in Development Planning with Special Reference to Sri Lanka.

Professional Dedication as a component of Organisational Performance.

Evaluation of Administrative Training : Some Experiences.

Models of Modernization—II

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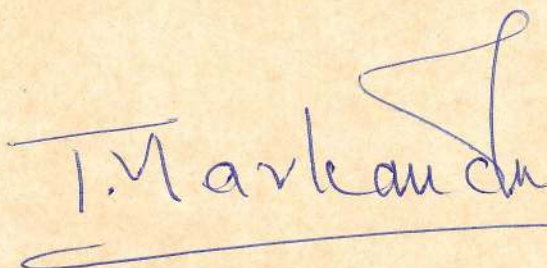
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JOURNAL OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

EDITORIAL

R. G. GOMEZ

In this issue attention is turned to certain specific problems experienced currently in public sector administration.

Certain problems with the District Administration and of the Hospital Services, both of which are of major interests to the the public and to administrators, are examined by persons who have been working within these systems for long periods. In both areas major changes have taken place over the past few years and these articles access the effects of some of these changes as well as other pointers to what needs to be done. These are controversial topics and it is possible that readers with different views may like to contribute their own viewpoints to the Journal.

Two articles speak of particular methods usable in the administration of developing countries. One suggests a simplified critical path method applicable in certain circumstances in a much simpler fashion than the orthodox network analysis. The other articles is a note on the need for the management services in development planning.

The examination of Models of Modernization begun in an earlier issue of the Journal is contained in this issue.

Finally this issue contains two articles on different aspects of organisational performance. One article evaluation the strength of professional dedication as a component of performance while the other details some experiences in the evaluation of administrative training.

A SIMPLIFIED CRITICAL PATH METHOD APPLICABLE TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES *

N. S. Ladduwahetty

Introduction

ALL developing countries aspire towards rapid economic growth, and in order to achieve this objective have formulated plans of varying degrees of complexity. Unfortunately, the full benefits of these plans have seldom been realised. One of the principal reasons for this failure has been the problems associated with implementation of the plans. Since the successful implementation of plans for economic growth is invariably connected with the successful implementation of the projects that comprise them, it becomes relevant to investigate the causes underlying the failures in project implementation.

What does project implementation involve? Any project should first be planned and programmed. This initial planning and programming must be in such a degree of detail as to identify the activities required to implement the project. Furthermore, it must cover financial planning and organisational planning. The second stage is the review of progress of the project during its execution. The third stage is the taking of appropriate decisions in the light of the progress made. The fourth and final stage is the up-dating or modification of the plan or programme in terms of the decisions taken in the third stage.

This form of project implementation, whilst being followed in isolated cases even in developing countries, is not being used for the vast majority of projects which, though small in magnitude, together contribute considerably to economic growth. One of the reasons for this is that the majority of personnel engaged in the implementation and control of projects, though familiar with the techniques to some extent, do not appreciate the benefits of these techniques to a degree that encourages their application.

* The author has developed this technique independently. While the simplicity of the method has left him convinced that 'someone must have thought of it before', he has not been able to locate such a method in the books and journals that he has read. He would be grateful to any reader who would communicate with him the details of any identical method that has been published earlier.

The author would also like to express his gratitude to Mr. J. R. Diskin, U. N. Advisor on Systems Analysis, who by constructive criticism of earlier drafts of this article, has assisted in moulding it into its present form.

Present Techniques

During the past few years, various techniques have been developed as aids to Project Control. These techniques vary from the simple Bar-Chart or Ghant-Chart to more sophisticated techniques such as PERT (Programme Evaluation and Review Techniques) and CPM (Critical Path Methods), to mention a few. Whatever the technique used, project management is effective only if timely and accurate review is undertaken along with the necessary decision-making functions that need to be carried out at the appropriate management level. Therefore the programming technique should be readily understood by management, and it should also lend itself to quick review. With this in mind, let us consider whether the existing techniques are suitable for application to developing countries.

The simplest form of project control is by means of the Bar-Chart. This technique can be appreciated and understood by most managers. It has the further advantage that up-dating the programme in the light of actual physical progress is within the ability of most technical and administrative personnel. This technique has one major drawback, in that it does not convey the interdependencies between activities. For instance, if water is required to commission a plant, it will not be possible to indicate what bearing any delay in the water supply scheme would have on the commissioning date. Another drawback is that, when up-dating a Bar-Chart, one only records the work completed up to the date of review and does not forecast the time for completion as in CPM and PERT.

Both PERT and CPM overcome both these drawbacks, namely that interdependencies of activities can be indicated clearly and, at any time, forecasts of completion dates are based on the current levels of performance. These techniques therefore make it possible for a Project Manager to assess what impact the level of performance, at any given time, has on the overall project. Furthermore, these techniques enable the 'float' on an activity to be determined.

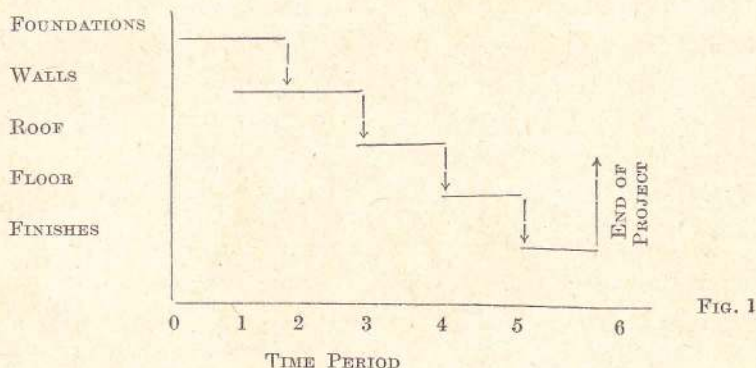
There are drawbacks, however, in the application of these techniques in developing countries. All stages of planning, programming and evaluation using these techniques need trained personnel. Even the drawing of the original network requires trained personnel. This training must be comprehensive enough to enable the determination of the earliest start time, earliest finish time, latest start time and latest finish time of an activity. The Project Manager responsible for the execution of the project should also have an understanding of the technique, if the information conveyed by the network is to be appreciated. This implies that either an effective training programme must be organised, or trained personnel must be obtained from some specialist organisation. It becomes necessary therefore to look for a technique which could incorporate the simplicity of the Bar-Chart with the advantages of PERT and CPM. If such a technique could be developed, Project Control could be effected without incurring much expenses and without the need for highly trained personnel and it could be of particular importance in developing countries. The

technique presented below, which was applied successfully to the construction of the Lanka Porcelain Factory at Rattota, Sri Lanka, combines the advantages discussed.

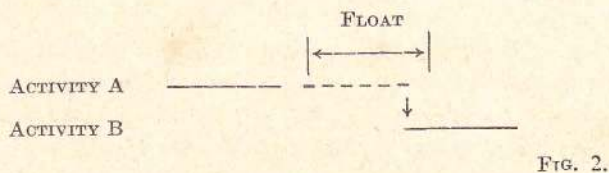
Description of Techniques

The technique suggested consists fundamentally of drawing a Bar-Chart representing the various activities and indicating the interdependencies by vertical lines. This simple method draws on the simplicity of the Bar-Chart and the advantages of PERT or CPM.

Let us consider construction of a simple building. A Bar-Chart could be drawn for the foundations, walls, roof, doors & windows, floors, and finishes as separate activities. Even in this simple example, all the activities are interdependent. For instance, the construction of the walls cannot be completed without completing the foundations. Therefore a vertical line is drawn, indicating this interdependency where the foundations are completed at least one week ahead, which may be the curing time (Fig. 1). This implies that any delay in the completion of the foundations beyond the latest finish time would affect the completion of the wall construction and hence would affect the total project.



While interdependencies are denoted by the vertical bars, the horizontal bars can be used to show the earliest start time of an activity and the Latest Finish date of that activity. If, for instance, a particular activity cannot start on the date the related activity finishes, the difference in time periods could be shown by a dotted line which indicates the float on the activity (Fig. 2).



What is the level of detail possible with this technique? Let us assume that the major activities needed to execute a project have been identified and the time duration estimated (which is a necessary requirement for any technique). The Bar-Chart can then be drawn showing the interdependencies, as described above.

This macro level of programming could then be extended to any level of detail required to monitor an activity. Let us consider one of the activities considered in Fig. 1, e.g. Roof (Fig. 3).

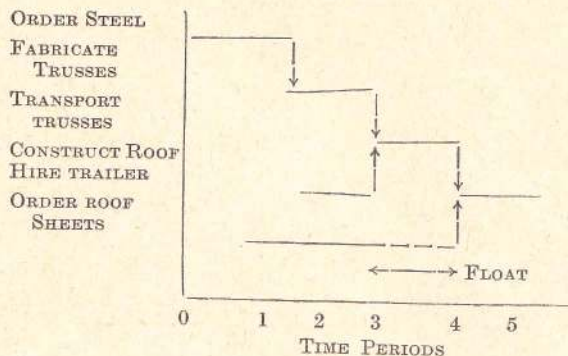


FIG. 3

If this degree of detail is applied to all the activities considered in Fig. 1, we would have to control about 30 activities. If services such as water, electricity, roads, etc. are considered one could easily end up with about 45 to 50 activities. The technique enables the program to be up-dated very quickly merely by drawing to scale the time for completion of each activity based on the current level of performance at a given time against each activity, and the shift of the vertical interdependencies will indicate whether the Project is on schedule, behind schedule or ahead of schedule (Fig. 4).

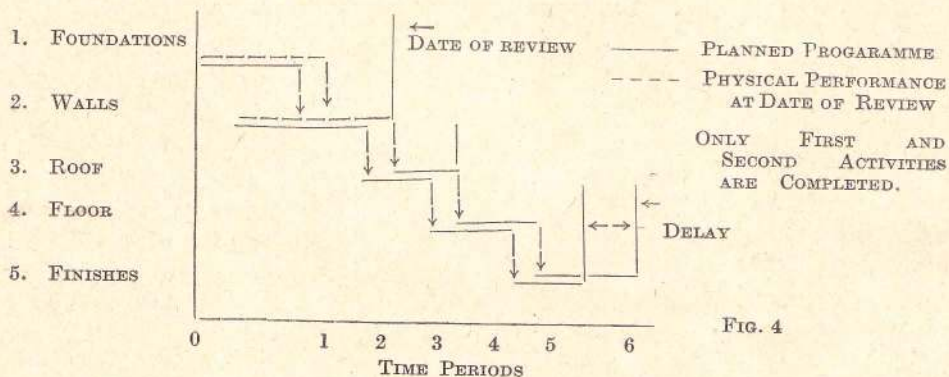


FIG. 4

If, at the date of review, only part of an activity is executed, an estimate is made of the time for completion of that activity. A projection is then made of the final completion date of the Project assuming the estimated duration of the activities that have not started.

ADVANTAGES OF THE TECHNIQUE

- (1) The only requirement is to estimate the duration of each activity and the logical relationship between each activity.
- (2) No specialist skills are required.
- (3) None of the special nomenclature necessary in CPM is required. The description of the activity is written along the bar.
- (4) The entire process is manual.
- (5) Once the times for completion of those activities under execution are estimated, the up-dating of the Program could be completed in a very short time entirely manually without too much management involvement.
- (6) The planned program and the up-dated program could be understood readily by top management and the implications of the present level of performance could therefore be easily appreciated, thereby enabling decision making to be more effective.
- (7) In simple terms, this technique has the simplicity of the bar-chart and the breadth of information of CPM, without the need for special skills and at a minimal cost.
- (8) The technique is so simple that, even at the supervisory level, the technique could be used to plan work at the shop level. Since this technique uses a graphical method when evaluating progress, it is called GRAPHICAL EVALUATION TECHNIQUE (GET).

Application of GET to Project Control on Time Basis

How could GET be applied to time analyse a programme. The first task is to draw a programme where each activity is represented by a horizontal line, the length of which represents the estimated duration of the activity under consideration. The number of activities and the degree of detail will vary from programme to programme. If, during the review stage, one or more activities require closer control, additional bars could be drawn at any stage of the project to present more detail than envisaged initially.

The horizontal bars could then be connected by vertical lines to show their interdependencies. This then represents the GET programme.

How could one up-date this programme in the light of actual physical performance? Any form of programming requires an efficient management information system which conveys timely and accurate information regarding the actual physical performance of each activity. The objective of the information system is to assess rapidly the extent of work performed on each activity, and to ascertain the time required to complete the activity.

The information gathered from the information system is used to up-date the programme. The manner of up-dating is merely to draw a horizontal bar from the date of commencement of the activity, up to the date of

review and extending to a point beyond the date of review, indicating the time for completion of the activity under review. After completing this task, the appropriate vertical lines are drawn connecting the related activities. The position of the vertical line at the end of the last activity will convey the status of the Project as at the date of review (Fig. 4). The process of up-dating the planned programme is extremely simple. The task can be performed by a draughtsman with only a minimum of training in the technique.

Up-dating GET programme could be done accurately if the following recommendations are followed. Firstly, along the length of the bar representing the duration of the activity one could fix markers indicating the number of work units planned to be completed in certain time periods. The units of work could be based on a system that enables one to ascertain the quantum of work done very readily. This helps the programmer to assess the work done and estimate the time for completion of the activity (Fig. 6).

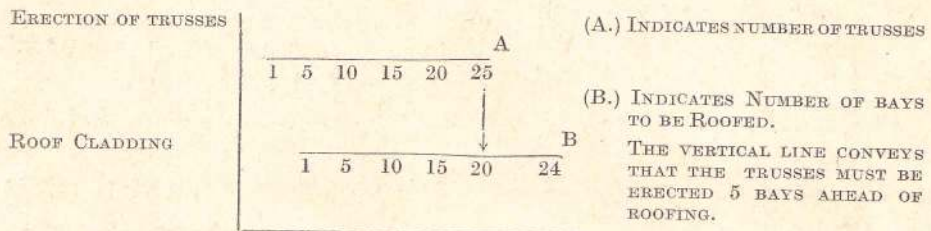


FIG. 5

The second recommendation is concerned with the grouping of activities for the GET programme. Experience has shown that it is best to group the activities in terms of objectives. For example, if one is drawing a programme for a chemical plant it is best to identify the final products and by-products of the process and to determine all the activities needed to achieve this objective.

This principle could be extended where GET programmes are drawn for each organisation engaged in the execution of projects. Each of these programmes could be manually controlled and a clear indication of the entire project at MACRO level could be followed by the reviewing authority.

Resource Analysis

There are two basic objectives when scheduling resources :

- (1) To level the demand on resources with a constraint on the total project duration.
- (2) To minimise project time with a constraint on the availability of key resources.

Could these two objectives be achieved by a manual process? If one were to consider the multitude of small and medium scale project that have to be implemented in order to achieve economic growth, the number of resources that restrict a project are few in number. Considering only those resources, scheduling of resources can often be done by a manual process.

In the case of small and medium scale projects to be implemented in developing countries, the resources that influence a project are invariably skilled technical personnel, materials, or key equipment. Money is seldom a constraint because, if the project is budgeted for, money provision is available. Skilled and unskilled labour is seldom a constraint on project implementation. Therefore, if the resources that restrict a project are sufficiently few, then the two primary objectives could be achieved by a manual process.

The actual process of resource scheduling is explained in many textbooks. If, for instance, a histogram of the usage of a specific resource is prepared, it is quite a simple process to carry out a levelling exercise, but this is no longer true if a multiplicity of resources are considered. It is therefore suggested here that the planned programme should be modified to suit the availability of only one or two key resources.

The levelling of resources would not only enable costs to be minimised, but would help from an organisational point of view. However, in developing countries, the more relevant exercise would be to plan the programme to suit key resources.

Cost Control

The standard methods of cost control could readily be applied once the programme is prepared. The main features are to derive the planned cost curve and the actual cost curve. Further curves such as the Budgetary Cost curve, could also be derived. However, having prepared the planned cost curve (an exercise which is possible manually), the important item is to collect accurate data to obtain the Actual Cost curve.

In developing countries, the type of costing is not sophisticated. At any time, it is possible to ascertain the total money spent on labour, materials, plant and salaries. With this information, one could calculate the amount spent in any period. This information is sufficient to derive the Actual Cost curve. It is adequate, in a developing country, if the project can be executed within the money allocated (estimate). Therefore the relevant and pertinent aspects of cost control could readily be calculated manually, if the planning technique is simple.

Application of Graphical Evaluation Technique to Lanka Porcelain Factory at Rattota in Sri Lanka

Description of Project

The Government of Sri Lanka decided to establish a factory to produce high quality porcelain in collaboration with Messrs. Noritake Ltd. of Japan. The plant was to have a capacity of 1,000 tons of porcelain annually.

At the preliminary discussions with Messrs Noritake Ltd., it was decided to programme for commercial production to start in one year. The civil works alone consisted of the construction of approximately 100,000 sq. ft. of industrial buildings including machine foundations, the construction of a water supply scheme to deliver 50,000 gallons per day, the construction of offices, canteen, locker room, housing and other associated works such as effluent disposal, roadways and fencing. Installation of process machinery was to commence in February 1973. Since the installation of machinery was to be carried out under the supervision of Messrs. Noritake Ltd., it was realised at the outset that the success of the scheme would depend on the progress made on the civil works.

Progress Control

In order to ensure that the civil works would be executed according to the planned schedule, approval was obtained to prepare a critical path network, against which progress could be monitored using the ICL PERT package.

The network shown in Appendix I indicates the activities at a macro-level. However, each of the activities shown in the network was broken down into further detail in order to ensure accurate progress evaluation. The construction of each separate building is shown as one macro activity. Most of these activities had time durations of three to four months.

In view of the short time available for the execution of the civil works, it was agreed that progress on this project would be reviewed weekly. This meant that each activity had to be broken down into a great degree of detail if effective control of the progress was to be maintained. With this end in view, each of the activities in the main network was further detailed into activities such as foundations, precast columns, erection of columns, erection of trusses, roof cladding, machine foundations, side cladding and finishes. Those activities which were common to all the buildings were shown as ladder activities as indicated on Appendix I. Each activity in the ladder was given a separate duration and identified uniquely. This resulted in the total number of activities amounting to approximately 630. The progress regarding each of these activities was reported and the time for completion of each activity calculated at each stage of the up-date.

The network was up-dated at regular intervals using the ICL PERT programme. Since the machinery installation could not be delayed, specific completion dates regarding the civil works were established and this information was used to calculate the float. The average computer time required to run each up-date was about one hour.

Up-dating Using GET Method

In order to do a comparative study between the CPM technique and the GET method, a GET programme was drawn. This meant the drawing of each activity to scale so that the length of the bar denoted the duration.

as in the case of a normal bar-chart. The respective interdependencies were also indicated, as in the case of the CPM network. This is shown in Appendix II. The ladder activities used in the CPM network are drawn as a bar-chart in the GET method, with similar leads and lags.

When up-dating the GET programme, all that was required was to estimate the time for completion of each activity, as in the case of the CPM technique, and marking these on the programme. If the activity was ahead of schedule, the length of the bar would be shorter than that given in the programme, and if the activity was delayed, the length of the bar would be longer than the original bar by a corresponding degree. The interdependencies which are indicated vertically in this method were then used to re-position the remaining bars, and the final positions of the last vertical line then indicated the state of the project as at the date of review.

Conclusion

Rapid economic growth depends largely on the successful implementation of numerous small and medium scale projects, and to a lesser degree on a few large projects. The technique described above is simple and straight forward, thus enabling field staff and project managers, with the minimum of training in project planning and evaluation techniques, to plan, evaluate progress and take the necessary decisions for the successful implementation of small and medium scale projects. In this respect it is particularly useful to developing countries.

Since the implementation of Civil Engineering projects are of particular significance to developing countries, this technique is best suited for Civil Engineering projects. For instance, in the examples referred to earlier, the start time of an activity is flexible in Civil Engineering, whereas in Production Engineering start times and finish times are more precisely determined. Therefore, the vertical dependencies are connected with the start time of activities only if there is a physical constraint.

Further, the main problem in developing countries is the implementation of project on schedule. In this respect a simple time-based technique that can be easily applied is particularly relevant.

The main intention in developing countries is to achieve project implementation within the scheduled time and within the budgeted allocation. As evident from the foregoing, these two objectives could be achieved if the planning and programming technique is simple enough to permit resource scheduling and cost control. GET is a programming technique which is simple enough, in terms of skills necessary, yet sufficiently comprehensive to enable effective project implementation.

The up-dating of the CPM technique required the following stages:—

- (1) Time for completion of each activity had to be established.
- (2) The appropriate forms for the punch-card operator had to be filled in by a trained person.
- (3) The punched cards for the computer were then punched and fed into the computer. The computer time for each up-date was about one hour.

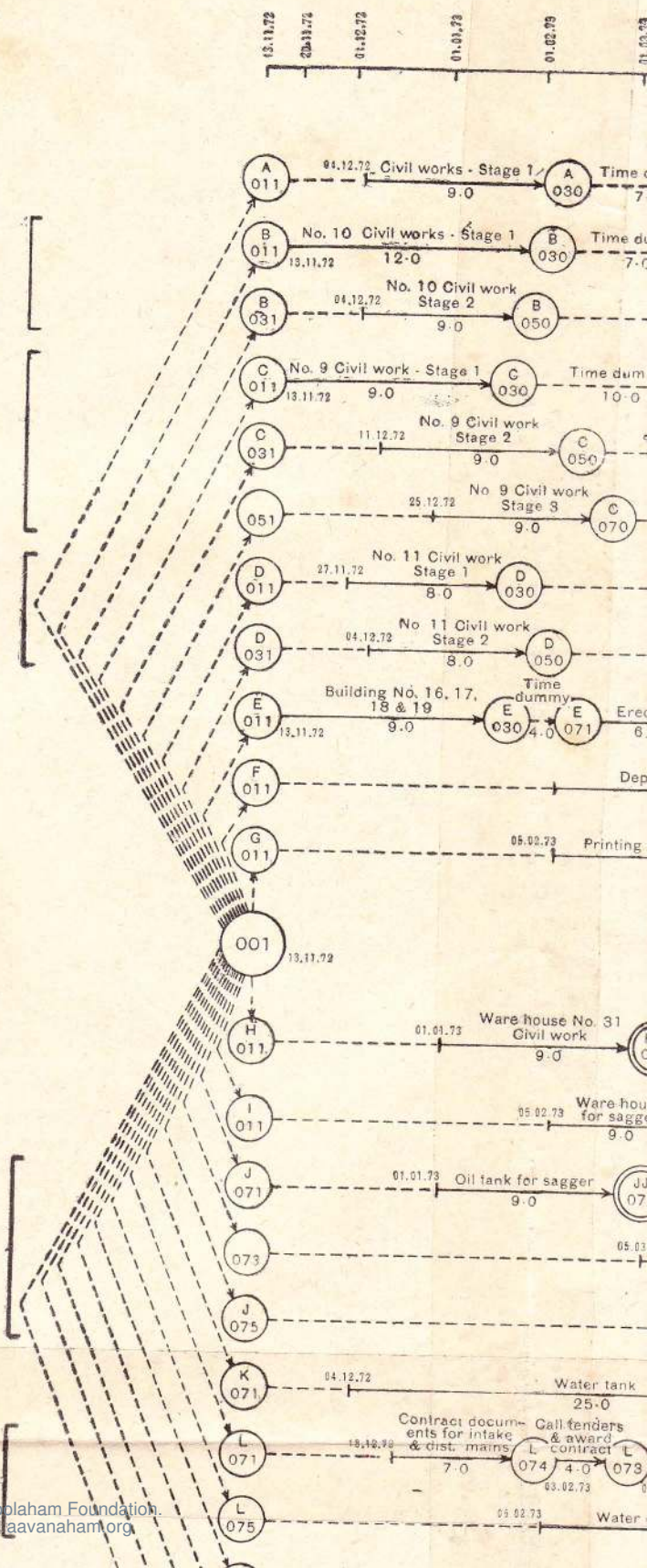
Up-dating the programme prepared by the GET Method involved the following:—

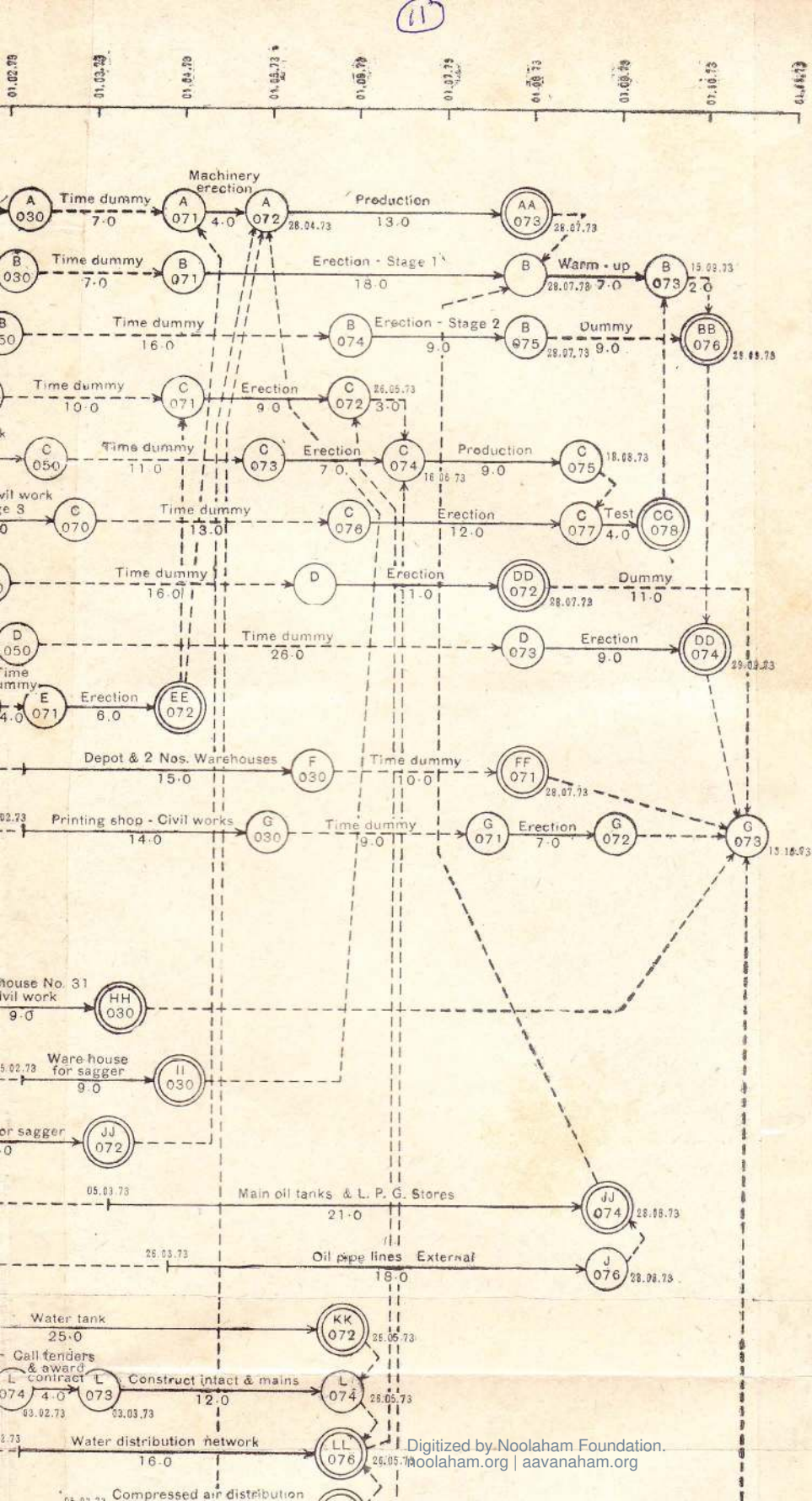
- (1) Here, too, the time for completion of each activity was established on the level of performances as at the date of review. This stage was identical to stage 1 in the CPM technique.
- (2) This information was given to a draughtsman who drew the up-dated programme with the vertical interdependencies manually. The entire process took about one hour.

The comparative costs of the two techniques, per up-date are estimated as :

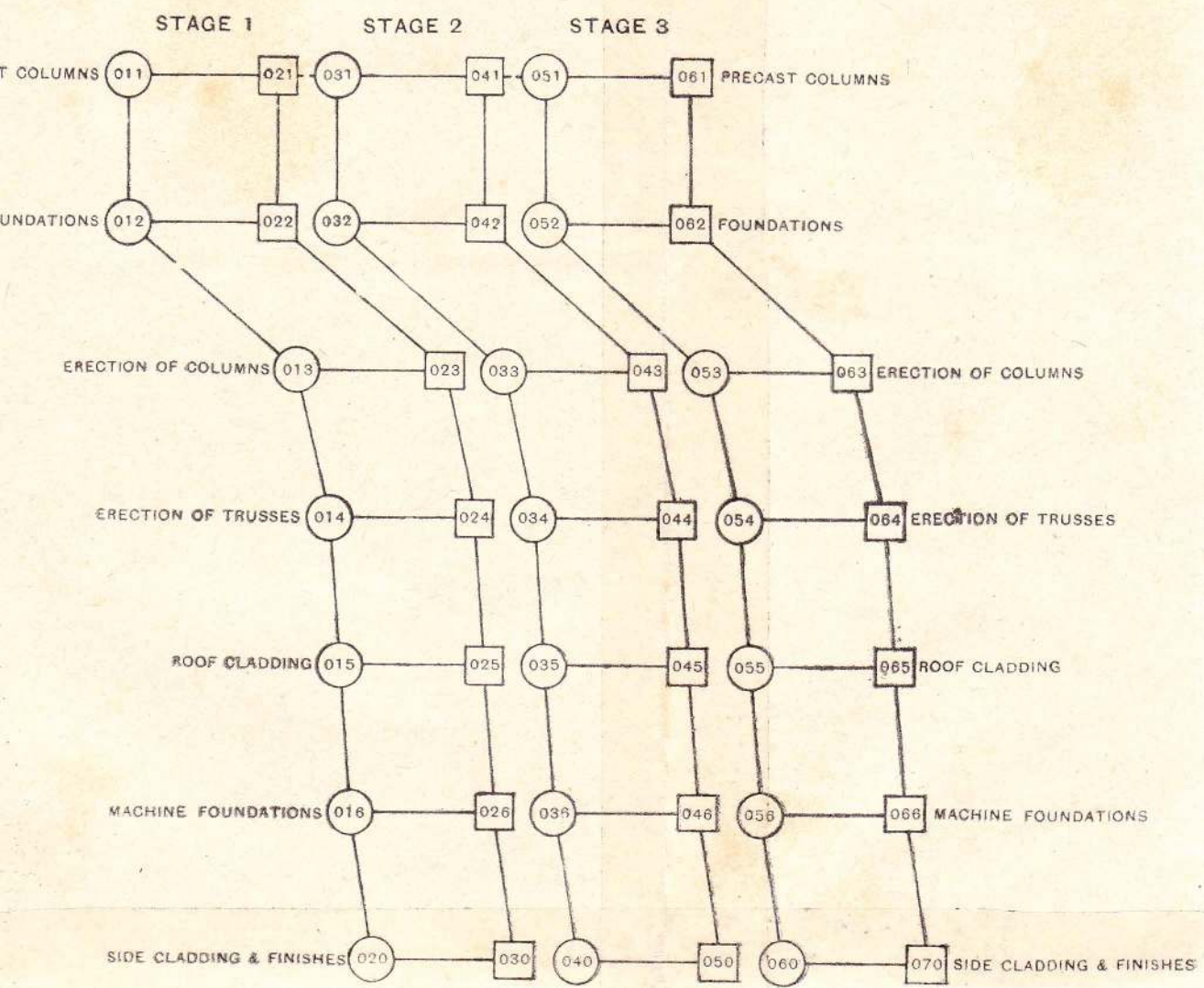
CPM Rs. 510
GET Rs. 8

- A SAGGER SHOP
- B GLAZING & FIRING SHOP
No. 10
- C PREPARATION & FORMING
SHOP No. 9
- D DECORATION & FORMING
SHOP No. 11
- E BUILDINGS No. 16, 17,
18 & 19
- F DEPOT & 2 No. WAREHOUSES
- G PRINTING SHOP
- H WAREHOUSE No. 31
- I WAREHOUSE FOR SAGGER
- J FUEL OIL TANKS AND L. P. G
STORES
- K WATER TANK
- L WATER INTAKE & DELIVERY
(MAIN & INTERNAL DISTRIBUTION LINES)



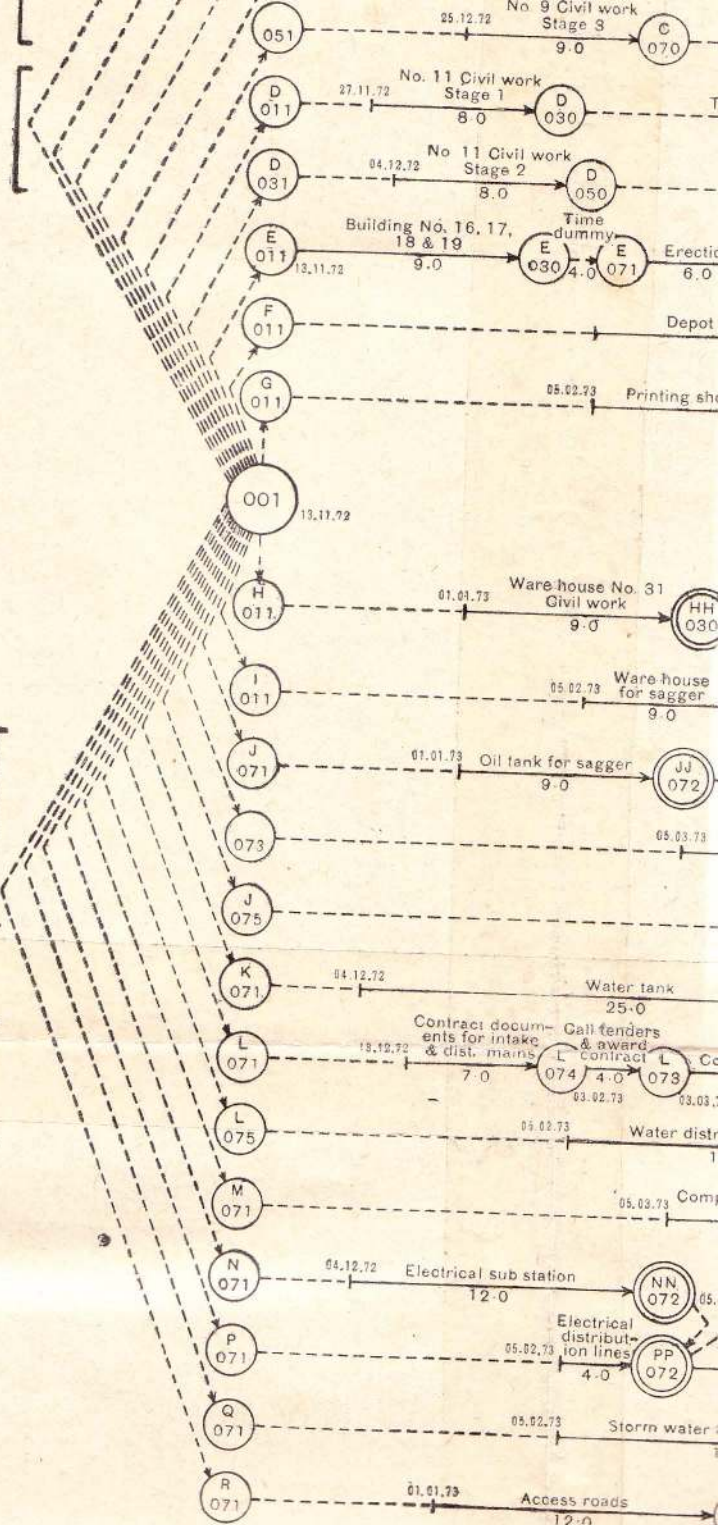


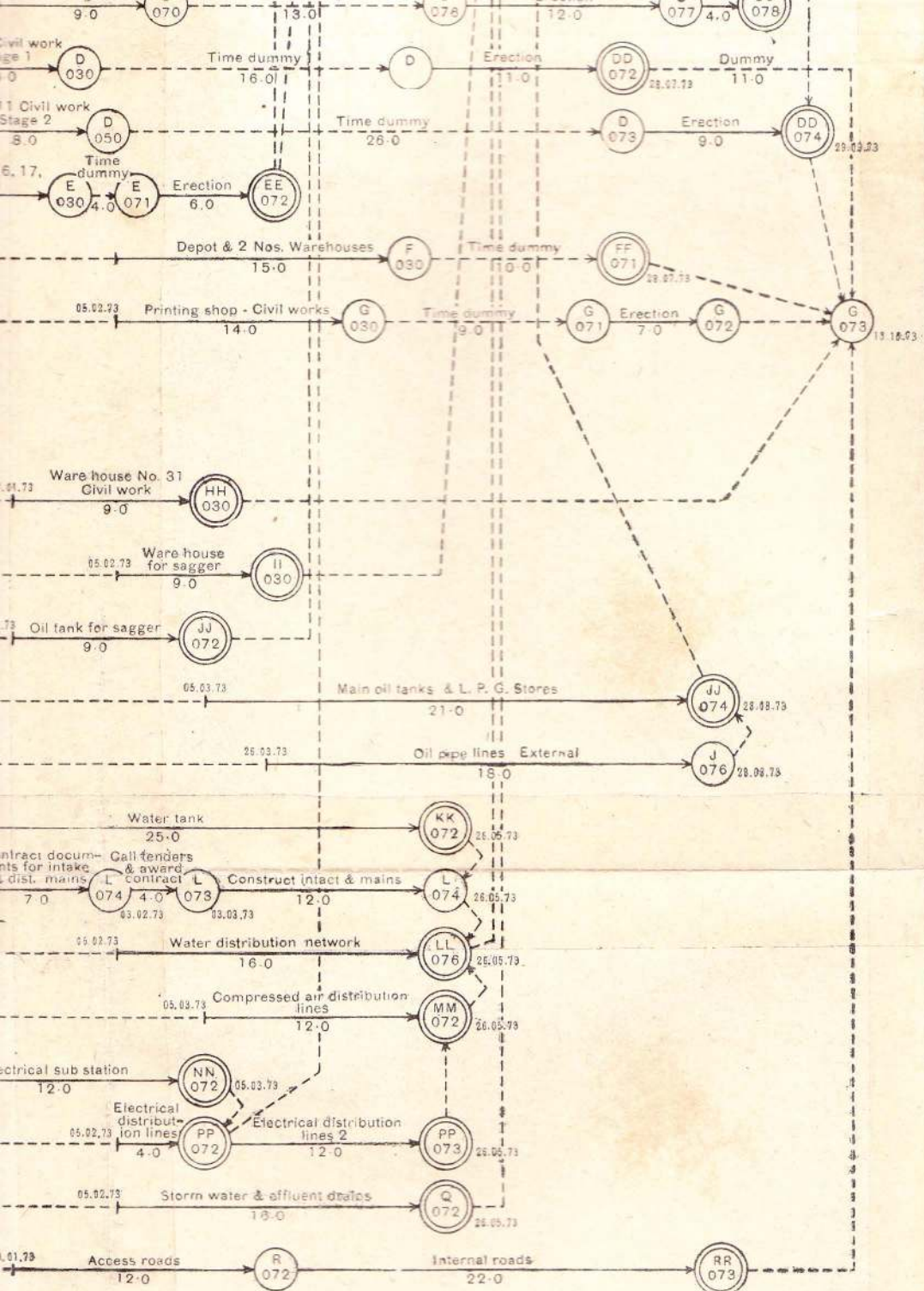
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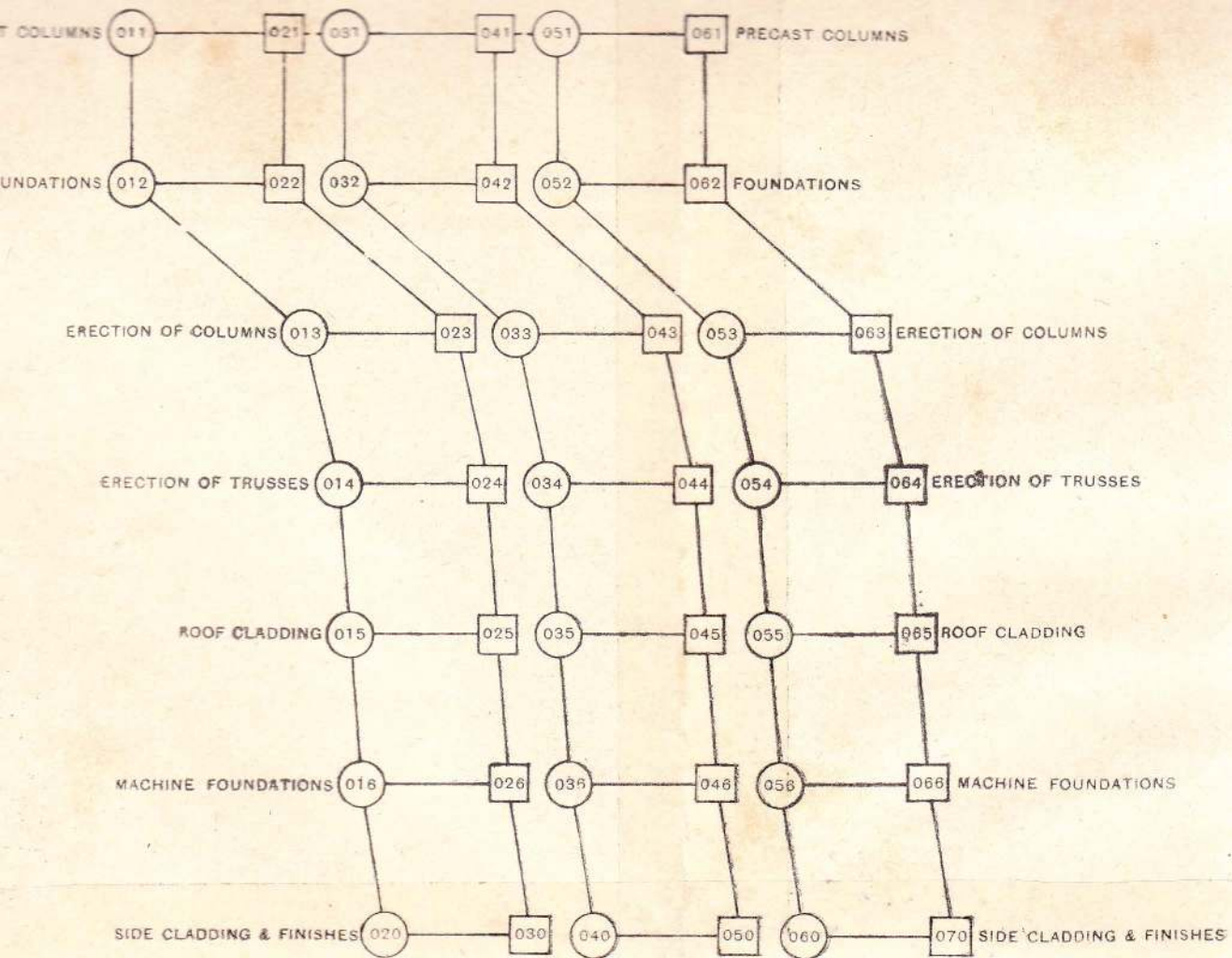


- D DECORATION & FORMING SHOP No. 11
- E BUILDINGS No. 16, 17, 18 & 19
- F DEPOT & 2 No. WAREHOUSES
- G PRINTING SHOP
- H WAREHOUSE No. 31
- I WAREHOUSE FOR SAGGER
- J FUEL OIL TANKS AND L. P. G STORES
- K WATER TANK
- L WATER INTAKE & DELIVERY (MAIN & INTERNAL DISTRIBUTION LINES)
- M COMPRESSED AIR LINES
- N ELECTRICAL SUB STATION
- P POWER CABLES
- Q STORM WATER & EFFLUENT DRAINS
- R ROADS

3-A 06812 (74/05)







1972	1973
NOVEMBER	JANUARY
DECEMBER	FEBRUARY
	MARCH
	APRIL

GLAZING & FIRING SHOP NO. 10

PREPARATION & FORMING SHOP
NO. 9

DECORATION & FORMING SHOP
NO. 11

BUILDING NOS. 16, 17, 18 & 19

DEPOT & 2 NOS. WAREHOUSES

PRINTING SHOP

WAREHOSE NO. 31

WABEHOICE FOR CACCOER SHOB

erection

civil works

civil works stage I

civil works stage II

civil works stage I

civil works stage II

civil works stage III

civil works stage I

civil works stage II

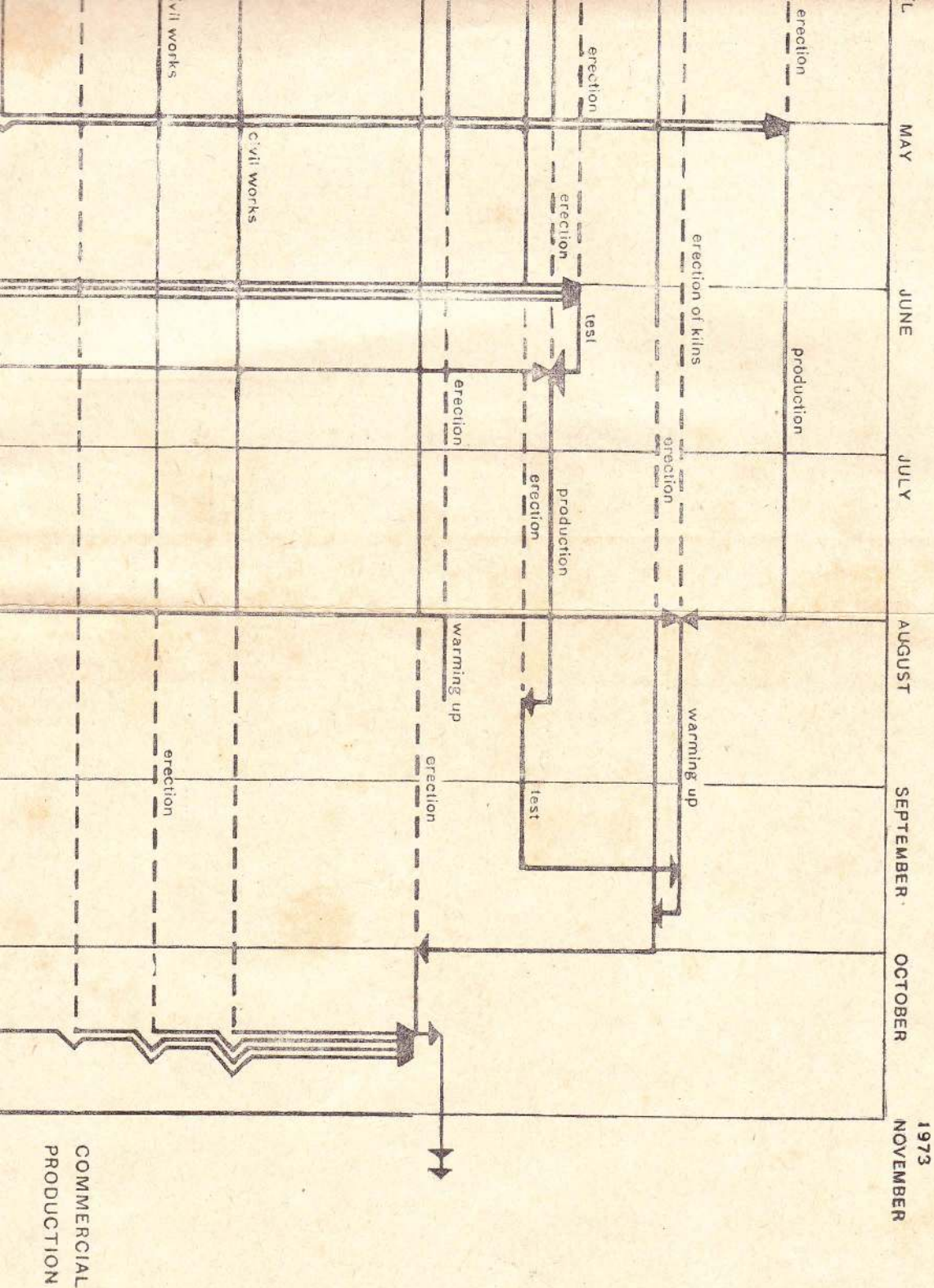
civil works

civil works

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FACTORY — RATTOTA PROGRAMME

Appendix II



PRINTING SHOP

WAREHOUSE NO. 31

WAREHOUSE FOR SAGGER SHOP

FUEL OIL TANKS & L. P. G STORE

WATER TANK

WATER INTAKE & DELIVERY MAIN
& INTERNAL DISTRIBUTION LINES

COMPRESSED AIR LINES

ELECTRICAL SUB-STATION

POWER CABLES

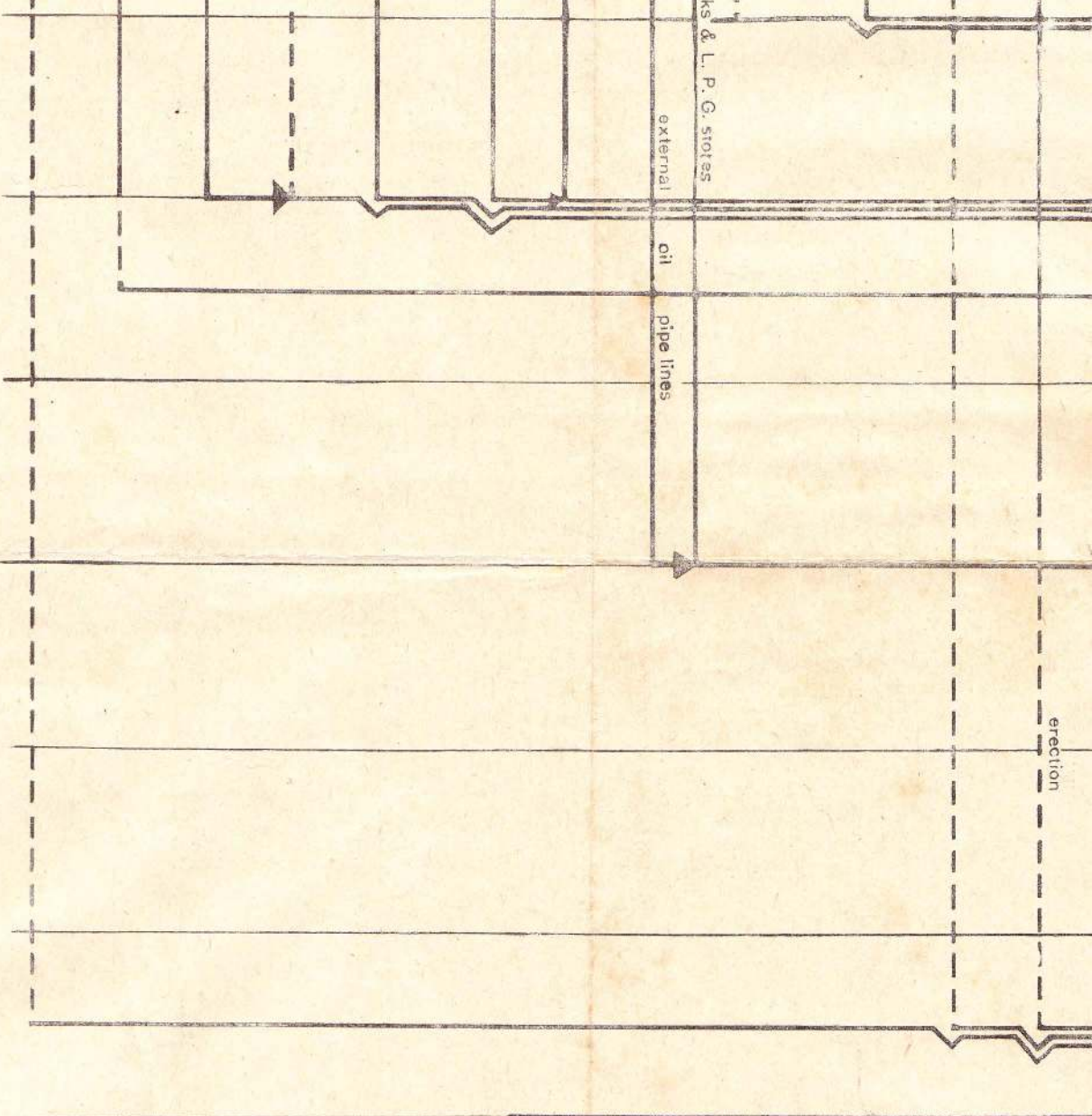
STORM WATER & EFFLUENT DRAINS

ROADS

civil works

oil tank for sagger shop

main oil tanks &



COMMERCIAL
PRODUCTION

Some Reflections on Current Administrative Reforms in the District Administration.

B. S. WIJEWEERA

THE year 1973 will earn for itself a special place in the history of Public Administration in Sri Lanka. For the first time we have displayed an innovative spirit and an ability to mould and modify, to suit local conditions, the administrative apparatus that was bequeathed to us by the British along with the Soulbury Reforms. The reference here is to the institution of District Political Authority which was set up almost by Prime Ministerial fiat¹ towards the beginning of October, 1973. We are not concerned here with the political and economic forces that led to the setting up of this institution (in fact this idea had been in the air a long time before the precipitation of an economic crisis) nor are we commenting very much on the limited financial decentralization that was a corollary to this innovation. We single out this institution for comment because it is unique—an experiment in Government which, to our knowledge, has no parallel in countries following Parliamentary-Cabinet type governing practices.

This paper is not an attempt at justifying this institution (in fact we anticipated these developments)², because we are of the view that it is essentially transitional in character, and hence will give way to other developments due to the very forces it will generate and by which developments it will be superseded eventually. Rather, our intention is to surface some of the problem areas this institution has created for the present administration, analyse such problems and identify the forces that the institution would generate, and, if possible, stipulate desirable directions in which these forces could be harnessed in order that the developments and changes that will emerge will be for the better management of the affairs of this country.

Constitutionality

We bring this out as the first problem area because of its fundamental nature and because of our firm belief that any administrative innovation must withstand the test of constitutionality or be preceded by an appropriate constitutional amendment. We are also aware that doubts have been expressed in certain quarters concerning the

1. The announcement was made by the Prime Minister on the 20th of September at the Bandaranaike Memorial International Conference Hall whilst the cabinet deliberations on this proposal were going on. The Cabinet formally approved this proposal, which was by then a fait accompli, at its meeting held on the 27th of September.

2. Document No. 13/2/337, *Representations from Individuals*, Constituent Assembly Proceedings. Memorandum dated 20th September, 1970 Submitted by the Government Agent, Badulla to the Steering and Subjects Committee. See also *Administration Report of the Government Agent Badulla District for 69/70*, Government Printer, 1971.

constitutionality of this institution. For purposes of analysis we would like to discuss this problem at two levels, general (i. e. taking the pith and substance of the constitution) and specific (i. e. taking into account the detailed provisions of the constitution).

If one searches for the basic principles of the present constitution one cannot fail to see the principle of political direction of the Administration by a leadership that commands the confidence of a majority in Parliament. In fact there is nothing to search, it simply stares at one's face, and we use the words 'political direction' deliberately because we cannot think of a leadership that has come into power on a political platform acting otherwise. We would go further and say that this was also the spirit of the former Constitution, the Order-in-Council of 1947, which provided for the Executive to be from the ranks of Parliament, and that this has been a basic premise to which all Governments that have ruled this country since the Soulbury Reforms have subscribed. In fact, if one goes back further in time one will realise that our constitutional history, from Donoughmore times, has been characterized by a process by which the elected representatives demand and achieve, in stages, a full control of the administration of this country. Hence, to our reckoning, this concept of political direction of the Administration is not a new one, nor is it one that is inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution. Whether this political direction is something that should be maintained only at the apex where it has so far been, or whether it should permeate to other levels of the administration is a matter of detail and convention and it is in this respect, if at all, that a problem of constitutionality arises.

When we go from the general to the level of detail there is to be found no specific provision in the present constitution for the setting up of District Political Authorities. In fact it is a truism that no such institution was contemplated at the time the present constitution was promulgated. Two reasons may be adduced for this. First, one cannot expect a written constitution to provide for every possible development that may take place subsequent to its promulgation. Second, constitution framing has also to draw its inspiration from accepted, tried-out and widely discussed constitutional practices prevalent at the time of making of the constitution, and as pointed out earlier, the institution of District Political Authorities is an unique experiment hitherto unheard of in Parliamentary democratic countries.

The more crucial issue is whether the setting up of District Political Authorities requires a prior amendment to the Constitution or whether it can be accommodated within existing constitutional provisions. Our view is that it could be accommodated, simply, by appointing the District Political Authorities as Deputy Ministers in charge of administrative areas. We also contend that the Deputy Ministers so appointed could be assigned subjects and functions (in respect of which their assistance is required) and assigned geographical areas of operation by Order under the hand of the Prime Minister.

This device of appointing District Political Authorities as Deputy Ministers has two important advantages. Firstly, it could provide for the formal co-ordination at a district level of multi-disciplinary programmes such as Food Production, which cut across departmental and ministry boundaries (and jealousies) and which entail problems of co-ordination. Secondly, it would fix precisely the position of the District Political Authority in the administrative hierarchy and its relationship to functional ministries and

departments. This latter aspect is somewhat ambiguous and confusing today because of the fact that in some districts ministers have been appointed as District Political Authorities.

District Political Authorities and the Administrative Power Structure

We have so far dealt with the problem of constitutionality, but there are equally important issues that this device raises, especially those pertaining to the Government's power structure.

First, the District Political Authority is not only a co-ordinator of specific programmes, but also a disburser of funds for district works of medium and small nature. For the present, the financial resources are small (about 7-10 million rupees per district), but as time goes by it would expand and so would its scope and impact. Hence, local pressure groups which had hitherto been lobbying in Colombo—in ministries and departments—either through their Members of Parliament or other contact men, for small anicuts, tanks, V. C. roads, school buildings, etc. now find themselves in the position of having to lobby the District Political Authority. In practice, this boils down to convincing their Member of Parliament that what is being pursued is something that should be given priority. Further, the Members of Parliament (especially the Government Members of Parliament) who hitherto had to spend quite a lot of their time getting ministerial sanctions and chasing files up and down the corridors of ministries and departments (not to mention their follow-up at the regional offices), now find themselves to be an integral part of the very decision-making body which has the power to authorise these items. The result is a loss of clientele where the ministries are concerned, at least the ones affected by these developments, and a consequent loss of bargaining power.

In making the above observations we are not unmindful of the fact that decentralized allocation of resources can seriously cramp the style of an individual ministry. For instance, this year, some districts did not provide any funds for capital works in the educational sector, and, perhaps, the Minister will be able this time to divert the wrath of the affected pressure groups towards the respective District Political Authorities. But if this happens two years running he is as good as crippled. This then raises a very fundamental issue of the extent to which he could be held responsible for the proper discharge of his functions. Having to negotiate ones way through a scrupulous Planning Ministry and a stringent Treasury was bad enough, but bargaining with 22 separate District Political Authorities would make the task of ministers immensely more complex.

The second problem arises from the growing importance of the Prime Minister's Office under the new dispensation. Traditionally, this has been a very small office with an equally small select staff attending mainly to the public relations aspects of the Prime Minister's duties. Its initiative in policy making was marginal, and in this field its main function was to serve as the link between the Head of Government and the policy making instruments, the Cabinet and the Ministries. With the institution of District Political Authorities, which are directly attached to it, the Prime Minister's Office takes on a new dimension, and for the first time establishes a direct link with the 22 districts and their

administrations. Admittedly, the District Political Authorities could not have been attached to any other Ministry without in turn transforming such Ministry into some sort of super-ministry. Hence, the most appropriate place was the Prime Minister's Office. However, this has vast implications. Now, the Prime Minister's Office will be cutting across ministry boundaries and exerting a direct influence on the administration in the districts, and more important, it will be opening itself to direct local influences on matters that are functionally the responsibility of ministries. We would like to amplify this by quoting a circular sent by the Secretary, Ministry of Public Administration, Local Government and Home Affairs, in consultation with the Prime Minister's Office :—

Every Government Agent, A. G. A., D. R. O. and other officers concerned should act in accordance with the decisions and instructions of the Political Authorities in their District and should extend to them the maximum possible co-operation. Wherever there is a problem arising from the fact that such instructions may run counter to a Ministry circular or any other rule or Regulation, I expect such situations to be reported to the Prime Minister's Co-ordinating Secretariat for clarification and resolution of the problem. Where necessary, the Co-ordinating Secretariat will consult the Ministry concerned.³

The implications of these instructions are that the Prime Minister's Office is now assuming a greater initiative in policy-making. Over the years and with the probable expansion of the ambit of subjects coming within the purview of District Political Authorities, this trend could very well lead to the eclipse of some ministries as policy making instruments and lead to what is commonly called the "Presidentialization" of the Office of Prime Minister.

This phenomenon of 'Presidentialization' is not something new to countries following a Cabinet form of Government. It has been the subject of comment in Britain for a long time,⁴ and in recent times in Canada, notably under Trudeau.⁵ In these countries it has been regarded, by some, as a means of investing the administration with the quality of charismatic leadership—the prerogative of any Prime Minister.

The third problem area that we select for comment is one that concerns a basic premise on which governments are formed and are maintained. To us, all governments are coalitions, we mean, of interest groups. It may be that in the case of the present one (and the previous ones) the political nature of the coalition is dominant, but even in instances where governments are formed from among the ranks of a single, cohesive, political party, coalitions do operate. They are coalitions that reflect diverse combinations of communal, religious, caste, regional and sectoral interests. The ministers inevitably get drawn into these interest groups and become the chief spokesmen for them at the decision-making

3. Circular No. AB/DC/17 dated 10th December 1973.

4. Richard Crossman, in his Introduction to the 1964 edition of Bagehot's *The English Constitution*. Humphrey Berkeley, *The Power of the Prime Minister*, London, 1968.

5. Denis Smith, *The Transformation of Parliamentary Government in Canada in Apex of Power*, (ed Thomas A. Hockin), Prentice-Hall, 1971.

level. On many an issue the position taken by them reflects the interests of the group or groups whose cause they choose to espouse, and also the extent to which these interest groups constitute their main political support, both within the Government and outside it. At the apex these differences are reconciled at Cabinet level by a consensus on important policy directions, but there is a silent understanding that back in the ministry each person is obliged to cater to sectional interests. At the operational level, the district official sees this very clearly, begins quickly to understand its mechanics of operation and acts accordingly. The District Political Authority on the other hand, is an entirely different proposition to an official who has to carry out instructions issued to him. Firstly, he is a political party man, and, in the context of a coalition of political parties, may view with disfavour those instructions which in his opinion will jeopardise the local interests of the party to which he subscribes. Secondly, he is also a politician in his own right with definite loyalties towards interest groups within the district, which in turn look up to him for leadership. In such a situation it would not be unnatural for him to be at variance with some of the instructions emanating from Colombo. What he does on these occasions and how he reacts to them will depend, inter alia, on his political judgement. However, our contention is that in the institution of District Political Authority there lies this germ of friction which could be a source of constant irritation and which, if allowed to grow, could eventually lead to the undermining of the coalition nature of any government.

So far we have taken the institution of District Political Authority and have analysed some aspects of its impact on the administrative power structure at the Centre. Before proceeding any further, we would like to lay down a few other comments on certain developments that are taking place at the Centre. These developments, though unrelated to the institution of District Political Authority, are very relevant for purposes of our analysis in that they too involve the administrative power structure of the Government.

The Planning Process

In the early years after Independence whatever planning there was, was done by the Treasury. It was more a control function than a planning job. Resource allocation too was not a very difficult task and any persistent minister was assured of getting his major programs through whilst the Treasury contended itself with saving a few rupees here and there on things like overtime, cadre, travelling, etc. The interference of the Treasury was disliked, but it was never a serious threat to other ministries to the extent of transforming the Ministry of Finance into a super-ministry. With increasing interest on national economic planning there emerged the Department of National Planning. But it was not till 1965 that the planning process was linked with the budgetary process and thereby took hold of the management of the economic affairs of this country. Always with a top economist at its head, the Ministry of Planning, since 1965, has grown in importance helped by two vital factors. First, it has always had in the person of the Minister of Planning the weight of the Prime Minister behind it. Second, and no less important, it was commissioned at a time when we were just beginning to feel the crunch of a deteriorating foreign exchange situation. This, coupled with the subsequent escalation of the financial situation into a crisis, largely contributed towards strengthening the hand of the Planning Ministry in the matter of resource allocation. Hence by early 1973, the Ministry of Planning had grown into a very powerful institution.

The country's planning mechanism underwent substantial change in July, 1973, when the Government, acting on recommendations made by a Cabinet sub-Committee, set up a Planning Council of nine Cabinet Ministers for the purpose of planning and assigning priorities in the matter of allocation of resources. The Council was to function through nine sub-committees called Sectoral Committees (to some of which other Cabinet colleagues have been co-opted) each dealing with a broad policy area, such as Agriculture and Fisheries, Administrative Machinery, Industry, Irrigation etc. The supporting staff for these Sectoral Committees, both for secretarial work and research, was to be found from the Ministries of Planning and Plan Implementation.

A noticeable feature of this development is that though the Planning Ministry is still there in a big way it has certainly lost its commanding position in the planning process. Further it has created a curious planning mechanism whereby a minister is both the supplicant and judge.

We are not interested here in getting ourselves involved in the conflict between economic imperatives and political realities ; partly because it is futile and partly because of our belief that the truth lies somewhere in-between in a synthesis which provides for a reasonable approximation to an optimal decision making process. Further, the present impasse is only a local manifestation of a dilemma being experienced the world over, especially in developing countries⁶. Our intention rather is to draw from these developments some important conclusions which will lend support to the theme of our analysis of District Political Authorities.

Nowadays, one does not have to labour the point that in any country planning is a must and the poorer the country the more this should be so. Hence, expenditure planning and the allocation of resources, which form an integral part of the overall planning process should be both authoritative and rational. In this respect we are far behind time by any standards of modern budgeting.⁷ In order to ensure that decision-making is authoritative, it has to be done at the highest political level, preferably by a small but representative group reflecting the political realities of the Government. In the Planning Council as it is presently constituted—a sort of inner cabinet—we have an excellent device for the authoritative allocation of resources. But, could it function rationally and objectively even to a reasonable degree of approximation ? Our answer to this is, no. First, no person can be that objective about a cause that he himself has championed and on the acceptance of which may rest his prestige. Second, the supply side of resources is going to be increasingly characterized by a condition of scarcity, which would mean the elimination of a large number of programs which are otherwise excellent. In the context of a coalition of political parties, such elimination is bound to cause heartburn and friction, making rationality exceedingly difficult to achieve. As we have observed earlier, one should not be the judge and supplicant at

6. Mike Faber and Dudley Seers, (ed), *The Crisis in Planning*, Chatto and Windus, 1972.

7. No doubt we have introduced programme budgeting but we are merely going through the exercise of programme budgeting without the planning of priorities, an essential pre-requisite to any meaningful PPB system. In fact, very little of the classical budgetary process has changed.

one and the same time, and if judge one must be, then we have to pose the question whether one has to be the supplicant. In terms of constitutional practice whereby Cabinet Ministers are assigned functions and subjects and are made responsible for the administration of prescribed agencies and departments the minister is responsible for the provision of funds, for the running of these departments and for commissioning of new programs. A serious shortfall in the allocation of resources will not only curtail his programs, but also, in the long run hamper the effectiveness of his administration, its ability to deliver the goods, and in the ultimate analysis his political image. Here we come up against another cardinal issue, namely, the doctrine of ministerial responsibility. It is this doctrine that we wish to question and to which we address our mind in the next section.

The Melting Pot

In view of the sacredness of this concept of ministerial responsibility we would prefer to preface our remarks by quoting at length some authoritative comments.

The internal problem relating to the organisation of central ministries is largely the result of a self inflicted wound. The principal reason why the British have been so reluctant to rationalize administrative institutions and to improve ministerial control is the doctrine of ministerial responsibility. This doctrine requires no exposition here, but it is clear that ministers and senior advisors have invoked this doctrine in order to justify remote rather than direct control of other(their) institutions. According to the doctrine if the minister assumed direct control he would automatically become responsible to Parliament for every detail of the administrative work.

The ridiculous point about this doctrine, which is one of the central theoretical features of British constitutional law, is that no one believes in it. No sensible Member of Parliament expects a minister to resign over a fault of administration, which is the doctrine's implied ultimate sanction. It may be a useful tag for harrying ministers in Parliament, but even then it smacks rather of a game of verbal cowboys and Indians. A minister resigns, or is effectively dismissed, if he really becomes too embarrassing to have on the front bench, or if he manages to earn the overwhelming hostility of his own party's backbenchers and has the jib of a scapegoat, or if he becomes too closely associated with a policy which events prove either disastrously wrong or likely to lead to electoral suicide⁸.

Chapman's argument is that no minister has any direct control of the administration of his departments in any real sense, and hence, by implication, a direct control of the execution of policy through them. We would go further and submit that, at the present juncture with resource allocation being characterized by a condition of scarcity and uncertainty, very few ministers have any direct control in any meaningful way of even the formulation of policy pertaining to their functions.

8. Brian Chapman, *British Government Observed*, Allen and Unwin, 1963, p.38.

In the future, policy formulation will not be merely a matter of vitality, research and initiative of individual ministries but more a function of resource supply and the overall national priorities dictated by political, economic and societal realities. In this context, we must surely begin to re-examine our societal goals and objectives—whether we desire a rational ordering of priorities or whether we prefer to perpetuate a constitutional shibboleth at any cost.

In making a case against the doctrine of ministerial responsibility we are not in any way preaching irresponsibility. Responsibility should be there—at the level of policy formulation—on the Government and on the Cabinet as a whole as the doctrine of collective responsibility implies. At the level of execution and administration, we could with success follow the European and American example and remove the cloak of anonymity that surrounds the bureaucracy and demand of departmental heads and agency heads a greater degree of accountability and answerability, at least in respect of those whose appointments are considered to be of a political nature. In this respect we would like to quote Chapman once again.

But fiction or not, this doctrine (of ministerial responsibility) seriously affects the internal organization and working of central ministries. First, it has furnished the theoretical grounds for maintaining, indeed insisting on, the anonymity and constitutional irresponsibility of civil servants..... Nobody really believes that senior civil servants are faceless, pliable, sexless creatures without fixed ideas, or intellectual eunuchs impartially proffering advice with all deference and humility to the great man in the ministers office. The cognoscenti know perfectly well who are the *eminences grises* in a particular ministry. Their real strength, and the real dangers of the doctrine of ministerial responsibility, is that they are unassailable⁹.

There is another facet of this doctrine that we are very much concerned about. It involves one of the basic principles of democratic theory, namely, the most important decisions which are binding on the community, should be made not by a leadership that consist of specialists or experts, but by a co-ordinating authority which can decide the proper place of each specialism in the life of the community.

To be able to do this demands very special qualities but not the qualities of the specialist. It demands, to put it roughly, the ability to think in terms of the good of the whole community, to survey all the different specialisms and their relations to each other, and to evaluate the particular contribution of each¹⁰.

This, of course, is the ideal, but to the extent to which a country's higher decision making apparatus approaches this ideal, one can also be sure of the quality of its decisions. Our contention is that the operation of the doctrine of ministerial responsibility not only militates against the realization of a reasonable approximation to this ideal, but also has the effect of exposing higher decision making to the dictates of specialism. We refer to the 'cult of personality' which develops as a result of this doctrine. Every minister is

9. Ibid p. 38-39

10. G. C. Field, *Political Theory*, Methuen, 1969, p. 108.

made to feel that he (as distinct from the Government as a whole) has to show positive results, the more spectacular the better, in order to account for his stewardship and to boost his public image. In this pursuit, even well intentioned criticism could become an obstruction, and where theory demands objectivity, a delicate balancing of specialism and 'the general good', what dominates is a determination to press for one's specialism against all odds. Our purpose here is neither to highlight human failings nor to single out the politician for the personality cult, but to drive home the argument that the design of institutions must take into account human behaviour.

The third drawback in the application of this doctrine is that it places too heavy a work-load on the shoulders of ministers in regard to the administration of departments and agencies. Given all the good intentions in the world, the day-to-day tasks of practical politics and the details of departmental administration weigh so heavily on a person, that short of super-human powers only a few could within the span of their period of office bring to bear on policy that 'very special quality' that is the prerequisite to good decision-making. In this connection we would like to refer to an observation made by the Seers Mission.

One great obstacle here, of course, is the enormous pressure on the time of ministers, strikingly evidenced, by the queues always present outside their offices. Ministers need to be protected from such pressures *so that they have time to study and discuss the central issues of policy*¹¹.

This, is in regard to their speciality. When it comes to the higher function of aggregation individual ministers are far too harassed or overwhelmed with their work to give much serious attention to the problems of others.

In this section and the previous one we have had at the focus of analysis the concept of ministerial responsibility and we have seen how it breaks down in the face of modern demands of PPB theory, constitutional theory and democratic theory. It had been a very valuable concept, but its inadequacies in meeting the stresses and strains of modern government are too glaring to be glossed over. If this doctrine is to be modified then where do we fit in the political control of execution of policy and the control of the administration, without which no government could be effective. It is at this stage that we would like to go back to the point from which we left off in the analysis of District Political Authorities.

A Synthesis

It has been a long way from the District Political Authorities but it was a necessary detour in that we had to prepare the ground for what is to follow in this section. At this stage we would like to recapitulate the main points that we made in connection with the District Political Authorities. We demonstrated how they could reduce the clientele of ministries and even impair their effectiveness through a control of funds, indirectly enhance the power and authority of the Prime Minister's Office vis-a-vis the ministries, shift the policy making initiative from ministries and, in the last analysis, even seriously undermine the coalition nature of governments. We are not suggesting that any of these things will happen. In fact it would not be too off the mark if we were to suggest that the District

11. Report of the Seers Mission, *Matching Employment Opportunities and Expectations*, I.L.O. Geneva 1971, PP. 152-153. Our *underlining* for emphasis.

Political Authority may even succumb to these forces it has unwittingly unleashed upon itself. Only time can say, but if this were to happen we consider it a national tragedy. Beacuse, apart from personalities, the institution of District Political Authority, in our view, symbolizes two key elements of a development strategy—decentralization and democratisation.

Decentralization is a key element in this institution because through its functions not only have the funds for any appreciable and vital range of programmes been decentralized, to be controlled, expended and accounted for at a district level but also, the very political decision-making process has been decentralized in order to preside over this disbursement, authoritatively.

In regard to the claim that the District Political Authorities symbolize democratisation, we would like to look at it in relation to the representative nature of that small group that is invariably involved in any decision-making function. From this point of view we make the claim that the group associated with the District Political Authority for decision-making purposes at the district level is far more representative of the people and their aspirations than any counterpart group in Colombo with the exception, of course, of Parliament. This is a strong claim to make and we will attempt to justify it. If one looks at the major decision-making bodies that are in Colombo and their individual members fairly closely, one cannot fail to notice, by and large, the social homogeneity that binds them together, whether they come from the political sector, bureaucratic sector, academic sector or the private sector. They form a closed corporation—a sort of confraternity—in which the members share common attitudes and values. We are not denying that among them, especially among the political elite, there are some who either by birth, upbringing or inclination have their roots firmly grounded to the soil. But even in these instances, whatever their private philosophies may be, the cumulative effect of having to live in the metropolis, to be in constant contact with each other both at official and informal gatherings, of having to cut off, to a great extent, the rural and rustic element from their lives due to the nature and pressure of their work, is that, they become very much the unfortunate victims of this society than its masters. On the other hand, at the district level, there is no such alliance of common attitudes binding the group together. They are from mixed backgrounds with very diffused social contact with each other, and, above all, the dominant political sector of this group is very much more rural and rustic than its counterpart in Colombo. Further, the very nature of the work they are involved in exposes the decision making process, to a very high degree, to rural and local influences. This, then is the thesis on which our claim that the District Political Authorities symbolize a process of democratisation is based. To those apologists of 'elitism' we offer no defence. We admit that this is, indeed, a value judgement.

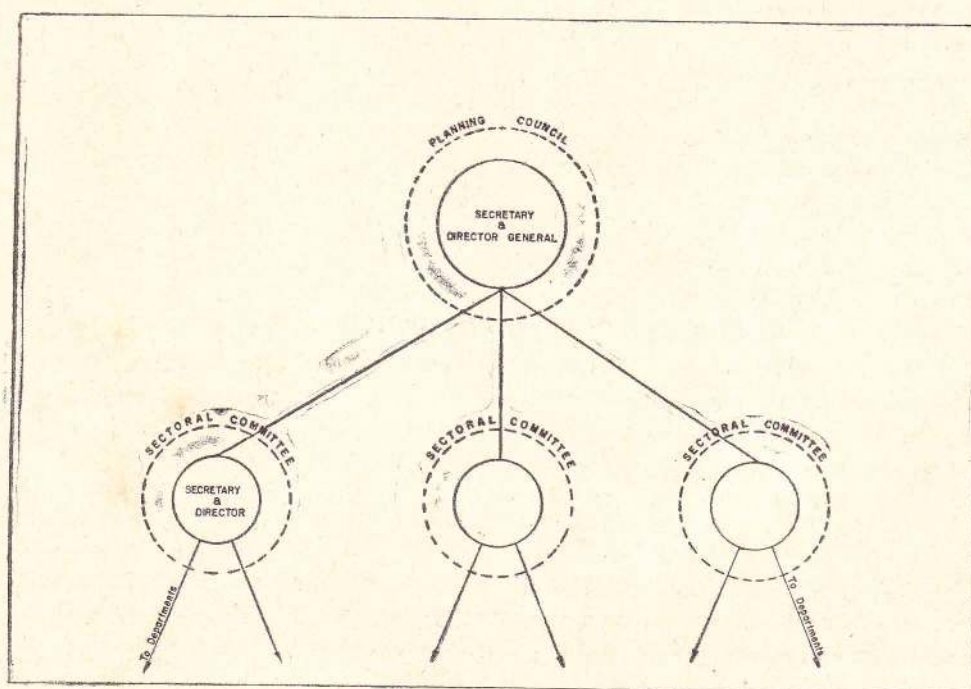
Our analyses have now brought us to the cross-roads. On the one hand there is the breakdown of both the concept and practical value of ministerial responsibility brought about by the demands of modern government and on the other hand there is this conflict between this concept and the institution of District Political Authorities.

As an answer to these inconsistencies and anomalies, we suggest a positive strategy of closing down the ministries in Colombo and setting them up in the districts thereby absorbing the District Political Authorities into them. This, in conceptual terms, involves a modification of the doctrine of ministerial responsibility from one of functional responsibility to one of spatial responsibility.

In this pattern, except for the Prime Minister, every Minister will be in charge of a particular district for purposes of co-ordinating all government activities and controlling the overall execution of governmental policy through them. For purposes of policy formulation there will be no ministries to preside over, but the ministers will function through the Sectoral Committees, Planning Council and the Cabinet. Today, in regard to policy formulation, there is considerable over-lapping in the work done by ministries and the Sectoral Committees. In a country which can scarcely afford valuable expertise, this is a criminal duplication. In the suggested structure the bureaus of the Sectoral Committees together with the departments will be the sole repositories of expertise in respect of the areas of policy falling within their ambit. Without getting into an explanation of detail we would like to present diagrammatically (see annex) the structures of policy-making as it is presently constituted (Fig. 1) and how it would be under the suggested pattern (Fig. II).

At a glance one can notice that a five-tier structure has been simplified into a four-tier structure, thus avoiding the duplication referred to above. The other basic difference will be that the new Directorates of Planning and Policy will not only serve the secretarial and research needs of the Sectoral Committees, but also be the chief instruments for directing and controlling the departments and agencies under their charge, thereby taking unto themselves almost all the functions that are now performed by ministries.

The problems of re-organization are such that not only must one take into account, in the moves, the kings and queens, but also one must be able to fit in even the knights and the bishops. For this purpose we would like to take the Planning Council, the Sectoral Committees and their supporting staffs as components of a single administrative unit and depict them below showing their hierarchical relationship under the proposed pattern.



The administrative head and chief executive of the planning unit will be the Director-General and he will also function as Secretary to the Planning Council. He will be supported by the Directors of Planning and Policy, who will also function as the Secretaries of the respective Sectoral Committees. In the search for persons to man these key posts one does not have to look far, because in the present Secretaries of Ministries there is a ready reservoir of talent and expertise which could be harnessed for this purpose.

There is also the other possibility of ministers wanting to take along with them to the districts some of their key men presently in departments and ministries, thereby raising the general standard and quality of the District Administration. There has been, in recent times, too much comment and too little constructive action on the poor quality of the District Administration. This is due partly to the centripetal forces exerted by the ministers themselves in attracting men of ability to their ministries and departments. A reversal of this process would not only lead to the upgrading of the District Administration but also provide such able men with the richer experience of working in the districts.

A Justification

We do not want to go over the ground covered already by taking one by one the various issues that were raised during the stages of preliminary analysis, but suffice it to say that the proposed pattern meets them all, adequately. However, before concluding we would like to substantiate the claim made by us that this would lead to the formulation of better policy.

In regard to the practice of PPB, we raised the problem of a minister being presently both supplicant and judge, thereby negating the rational ordering of priorities. In the proposed scheme the ministers would not be supplicants, because they will not be having any functional departments or agencies under their direct control and hence would not suffer any loss of prestige as a result of a denial of funds. Of course, there would be the supplicants, *i. e.* the departmental heads and agency heads, who would stake their claims for resources and on the strength of whose claims the ministers will decide the priorities. But unlike what obtains now there will be no winners or losers in the budgetary stakes, at least, among the ministers. There will be certain sectors that will win and certain others which will get a low priority, but the district-wise arrangement of ministries will ensure that every one of them will get the district share of the 'winnings' of the favoured sectors. The result of this would be, in the long run, a more rational and objective approach to the ordering of priorities.

In the passage quoted by us, the Seers Mission made a passing reference to the need to protect ministers from "the queues always present outside their offices" so that they could concentrate on the formulation of policy. Whilst endorsing this objective we are left wondering whether this 'protection' is in fact feasible or even desirable. A minister is first a politician and then a policy-maker, and to a politician clientele is strength, a means of contact with the electorate; and no amount of brilliance or success in the

functions assigned to him is going to compensate for the lack of dialogue that will result in "protecting" himself from his exacting clientele. The greater danger, however, is that by so "protecting" himself the minister will become a pampered but caged bird mainly conditioned by the attitudes and values of that "closed corporation" about which we have had the occasion to comment. To us, queues are a reflection of reality, and one can cut oneself away from this only at the risk of alienating oneself from the real world. Queues are a necessity and our argument is that when working in the districts the ministers would get a chance of making a virtue of them. Our surmise is that unlike the ones in the ministries in Colombo, the queues that will form in the district offices will not be confined on functional lines to, say, educational matters, local government matters, land matters and so on, but will portray a cross-section of the total needs and aspirations of the people living in the district. Through this device, the ministers would get a chance of viewing the performance of the Government as a whole as reflected in these demands, and of identifying the weak and vulnerable sectors for remedial action, without, of course, having to tread on some other minister's corns. The second salient feature is that being pushed into the role of co-ordinator of all government activities within the district, a minister would invariably develop the characteristics of an "all-rounder" as opposed to a specialist, and thereby gradually acquire those "very special qualities" that democratic theory prescribes for its ideal rulers. The cumulative effect of these tendencies would be, in the long run, to provide for better policy.

Conclusion

Myrdal once observed that "the key to development lies in men's minds and in the institutions in which their thinking finds expression", and by this token, it is necessary to take our own institutions and periodically evaluate the extent to which they meet the needs of contemporary society. It may be that something that we have got used to, or even cherish, may not be the answer to the present problems. In such a case we must have the good sense to change. Admittedly, changes entail individual and collective re-adjustments. But the story of Mankind, and indeed of all living organisms, is one of change, adaptability and survival, and so it is with human institutions. The urgent need of today is development, rapid development which will erase the dichotomy in a society in which one section is reaching out for the fruits of cybernetics whilst the other is still grappling with the basic necessities of life. It is to this end, in all humility, that we offer this design—a design for development.

THE STRUCTURES OF POLICY-MAKING

FIG. I

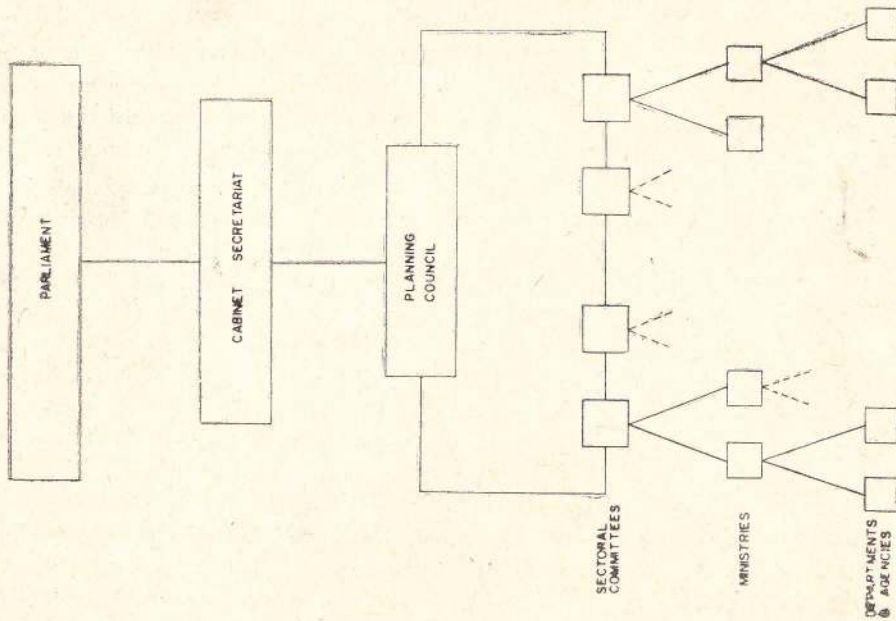
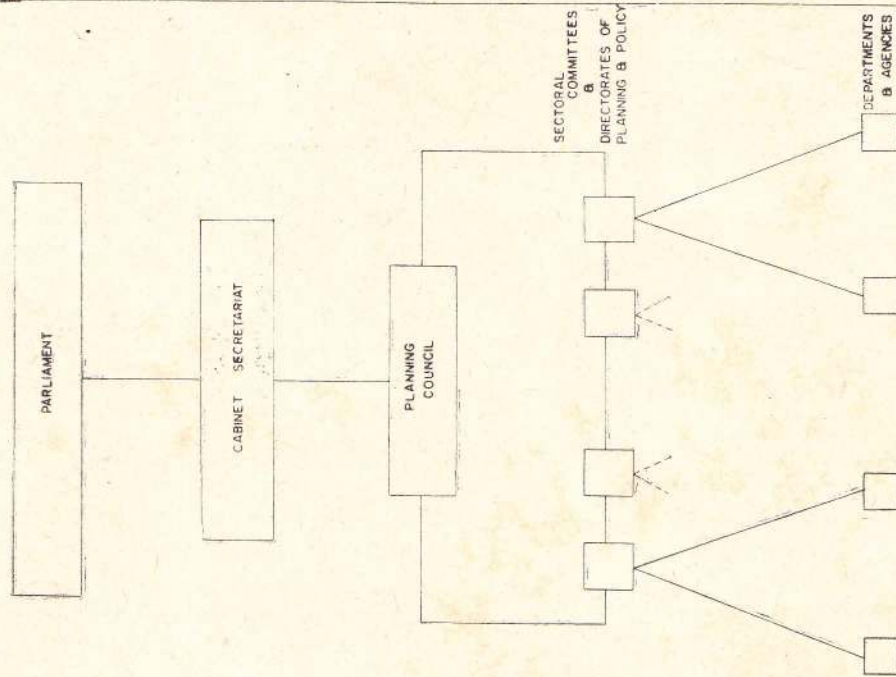


FIG. II



THE IMPROVEMENT OF HOSPITAL ADMINISTRATION

Dr. Kingsley Heendeniya

THE Government spends about 300 million rupees a year to run the Health Services in our country. Each year, the services expand a little and with the increase of population and demands of the people, more money is required annually. More doctors, nurses and other trained staff have to be employed, more drugs and equipment have to be bought, hospitals have to be improved and modernised, services have to be laid out in line with trends in sickness and death, and in general, the Government has to compete with other national priorities to satisfy the expectations of the common man. It is therefore imperative that we try to get the maximum use of every rupee that is spent, and seek better and efficient ways of spending our resources. Otherwise, the cost of the Health Services will spiral every year without a corresponding progress in the health of our people.

In this article I shall confine myself to a discussion of how we can run our hospitals better. As an example, I shall take the administration of a 500-bed General Hospital in a provincial town.

A General Hospital anywhere in the world is a big integrated complex. It consists of an Out-Patients Department, the basic specialities of general medicine, general surgery, paediatrics, obstetrics E. N. T., Eye, dentistry; related clinics and other specialities like psychiatry and thoracic surgery; essential units like blood bank, radiology and pathology laboratory; wards, dispensaries, operating theatres, duty rooms, linen and store rooms, kitchen and pantrys, administrative section, staff quarters, electricity, water, sewerage, telephones, ambulances, cycles, handcarts, a mortuary and sometimes even a separate burial ground; there are Consultants, House Officers, Apothecaries, Pharmacists, Nurses, Midwives, Attendants, Technicians, Clerks, Overseers, Labourers, Cooks, Stewards, Seamstresses, Watchers, Electricians, Plumbers, and in all over 25 categories of skilled and unskilled staff. All of this from the O. P. D. to the sewing needle—is **MONEY**. Even the air (oxygen) that some patients breathe has to be bought at a price. In our country all this money is found from taxation and is therefore public property. The public have a right to know how the money is expended and see that it is spent wisely.

How much does it cost to run a 500-bed hospital? What does it cost on the average to treat a patient at the O. P. D., at the indoor? How is the money spent—on salaries, drugs, food, stores, electricity and so on? In what many ways can this money be better spent? In short, how can we

eliminate WASTE? The chief way in which we can run our hospitals better, or for that matter any institution, is to identify wasteful expenditure on personnel, equipment space and time.

A 500-bed hospital costs the Government between 1½ to 2 lakhs of rupees a month or stated in another way, 400 rupees per bed per month (see Fig. I). This is the rent one would pay for a five-roomed house in the city. (In Britain, providing one hospital bed costs as much as putting up three new houses). There are about 40,000 hospital beds in the Government Hospitals in this country. Of the 300 million rupees spent by the Government annually on hospitals, about 65% is spent on salaries.

Fig : I

A 500-bed hospital employs about 350 trained and untrained staff consisting of about 10 Specialists, 30 House Officers, 80 Nurses and Nursing Sisters, 200 unskilled employees and the rest made up of technicians and clerks. (See Fig. II).

Fig : II.

In terms of services and in respect of better services to the people what do this data mean? The loyalty and devotion to work of a handful of Specialists is crucial to the efficient management of the hospital and the services it gives to the patients. A hospital would be nothing without its team of medical, para-medical and other personnel and it is not surprising that a large team should cost as much as 65% of the bill. Insofar as wages measure the value of services rendered, a heavy responsibility and obligation to society is cast upon the team, especially upon the Specialists and the medical administrator. Efficiency is measured in terms of money—can we do for 50 cts. what we are now doing for one rupee, without impairing standards? Quite apart from the saving involved in this type of approach to medical services, this is the approach to efficient management of any institution or enterprise in any part of the world, including the affluent countries.

Prescribing Habits

The medical profession traditionally disdains cost. It is generally thought by both the doctor and his patients that cheap items of service are not in the best interests of the patients and the profession. The belief is sedulously nourished by the trade in drugs and medical equipment. It is wasteful to perpetuate these commercialised beliefs and exploit the credibility of patients. For example, many patients who come to the O. P. D., do not require expensive antibiotics and/or vitamins. A recent study has shown how stopping wasteful prescribing of ONE antibiotic can save the Government about 250 rupees a week, at one hospital.

About 300,000 rupees is spent annually on drugs for one provincial hospital and the bulk of this is in foreign exchange. Everybody knows how precious foreign exchange is to a developing country such as ours. The saving from a change in prescribing and investigatory habits can become

cumulative and self-perpetuating. But it cannot be done by administrative fiat. It must come about by voluntary consent and realisation of the economics of medical care, by the vast cadre of medical and para-medical personnel in this country. There are good reasons to believe that the majority of the doctors in this country (the Specialists and the young House Officers in our hospitals) will rally round and stop wasteful therapeutic and investigatory practice (such as X-Rays *voluntarily*, when they are shown the way by example and leadership.

Diet

The next major item of expenditure in our hospitals is diet. The diet bill for a month of a 500-bed hospital is between 25,000 to 30,000 rupees. A recent analysis of dieting of patients revealed that 25 to 33% of this money is sometimes spent on extra items of special diet to patients, such as eggs, liver, malted milk, king coconuts (at 80 cts. each), jelly and oranges (at 40 cts each). No one would grudge sick people a nourishing diet that will serve to cure or relieve them from suffering. For example, it is legitimate medical care to give a pregnant mother who has come for her fifth confinement, a long stay in hospital with its recuperative rest from drudgery and a diet rich in proteins such as eggs and milk. But, as the study showed, there is generally no *medical* justification to spend as much as 25 to 33% of the money on extra diet. In the same way as for drugs, we cannot afford irrational dieting of patients at public expense. The rationale to observe here is that patients in Government hospitals should be provided an *adequate* diet and not the best that money can buy. Dietary controls (See Fig. III and IV) brought about at this hospital reduced the percentage spent on extras to 17 by a simple procedure of medical *discrimination* of dietary *needs* of individual patients and by substitution with cheaper nutritionally equivalent food (e.g., limes for oranges).

Overcrowding

Tied to drugs and dieting is the problem of overcrowding of patients in our hospitals. This is a problem all over Asia and the poorer countries of the West. It is the bugbear of medical administration. It affects all aspects of medical care—nursing, morale of staff and patients and environmental sanitation of wards, e.g., toilets. None of the wards in our hospitals is designed to carry an overload of patients. Besides space, there is no staff to give adequate medical attention to say, a ward of 70 patients meant only for 32. Some wards in the hospitals studied carried as much as 150% overcrowding.

From any point of view of efficiency—be it cost or standard of medical care—overcrowding has a vicious influence on staff, patients and equipment. Therefore, overcrowding must be reduced or eliminated. How can it be done? The problem has to be attacked at three points— at admission of patients to hospital, at the stage of diagnosis and during convalescence

No patient who can equally benefit as an out-patient should be an in-patient. Although the true criterion for admission should be the curability of the patients' condition, in our country (and elsewhere) doctors have to yield to social pressure such as poverty, distance, transport problems and old age. But such considerations can be countervailed by 'attack' at the other two points of the problem to a great extent. The role and the importance of the Specialist medical officers come into focus here, in the efficiency with which they instruct and supervise the work of junior colleagues and by their anxiety to return patients to the community as quickly as possible. On the average, it costs 14 rupees a day to treat a patient in our provincial hospitals. (It may be noted that in Britain, the equivalent is three times as much as it costs to stay in a good hotel). In the hospital that has been studied, about 22 to 26% of the patients stay up to two weeks, and less than 1% go on to stay for longer than six months. Placed in its correct perspective therefore, the problem of overcrowding is not contributed by those who use our hospitals as hotels or convalescent homes, but by the slow rate of *turnover* of the bulk of patients. Screening at admission, early diagnosis and adequate nursing under the personal instruction and supervision of the Consultant Staff can control overcrowding. This has been demonstrated in the hospital under study. (See Tables I, II, III and IV).

Waste

The theme of preceding paragraphs has been *waste* in our hospitals and how to eliminate it. Waste is of two types: that due to use and that due to disuse. Waste due to use is again divisible into waste from excessive use and waste from under-use. Similarly, there is waste from disuse when serviceable items are not used and when repairable items are not repaired. Numerous examples can be given to illustrate this dichotomy of waste.

Health Education

The foregoing discussion is incomplete without a word about the duty of patients and the general public of this country. One of the important aims of Health Education is to teach people how to *USE* the available health services properly. People use something properly when they are aware that it exists and when they know how much it costs to provide. Ostensibly, the health services of our country are offered free to our people.* But of course, people know that the Government spends money to run them like any other service. The concept of a cost nevertheless is vaguely understood. It is essential that our people know the value of what is offered to them free. It is essential that the people be informed of the various services that are available to them (when, where and at what time) so that they may *USE* them at the *right time* and for the *correct purpose*. About 75% of the conditions that our people suffer from

* The paper was written in 1972. A 25 cts. O. P. D. stamp levy has since been introduced.

and bring to hospital can be prevented if they use the available preventive and curative services properly and gather for themselves the skills and the habits of good living.

Nobody goes to hospital for having nothing better to do. Their problems may not come within known signs and symptoms or within the powers of the doctor to correct. Yet, there is something inestimable that the doctor can do for the patient. He can COMMUNICATE with the patient with sympathy and eagerness in a way that is intelligible to each patient. There is a great deal of evidence that lack of proper communication in the doctor-patient relationship leads not only to waste of money but also to waste of human life.

Summary

Our hospitals can be run more efficiently if the medical administrator and the staff conjointly set about to identify the points of waste and introduce changes to eliminate or control waste. Doctors and patients must be made aware of the cost of medical care so that both will use the available resources of skill, space and time efficiently.

Table I.—Frequency Distribution of Admissions

Number of Daily Admissions	Frequency			
	June, July, Aug., 1970		June, July, Aug., 1971	
20-29	..	3	..	7
30-39	..	9	..	12
40-49	..	21	..	21
50-59	..	24	..	22
60-69	..	18	..	18
70-79	..	13	..	7
80-89	..	4	..	4
90-99	..	0	..	1
Total	..	92	..	92

Table II.—Frequency Distribution of Discharges (excluding Deaths)

Number of daily Discharges	Frequency			
	June, July, Aug., 1970		June, July, Aug., 1971	
10-19	..	4	..	13
20-29	..	3	..	15
30-39	..	13	..	8
40-49	..	18	..	14
50-59	..	25	..	11
60-69	..	16	..	11
70-79	..	7	..	8
80-89	..	3	..	1
90-99	..	1	..	8
100-109	..	2	..	3
Total	..	92	..	92

Table III.—Frequency Distribution of Total Indoor

Total Daily Indoor	Frequency	
	July, 1970	July, 1971
475-499	.. 0	.. 1
500-524	.. 0	.. 2
525-549	.. 0	.. 11
550-574	.. 4	.. 9
575-599	.. 7	.. 6
600-624	.. 9	.. 1
625-649	.. 4	.. 1
650-675	.. 4	.. 0
675-699	.. 3	.. 0
	31	31

Table IV.—Variability of Admissions, Discharges and Total Indoor

	Average		Standard Deviation	
	1970	1971	1970	1971
Admissions	.. 55	53	.. 18	15
Discharges	.. 52	49	.. 18	26
Total Indoor	.. 601	557	.. 38	35

An Appraisal of the needs for Management Services in Development Planning with Special Reference to Sri Lanka

M. W. J. G. Mendis

THE scientific study of management and its development as an art and a science is comparatively new. Therefore, the utilization of management services as an instrument of development planning is also relatively new; particularly in the developing countries. Its importance as well as its effectiveness in the planning process has now begun to be recognised and its need has specifically begun to be felt in these countries. In fact, international agencies are now including in their Aid programmes to these countries an increasing component of management services in order to ensure more effective utilization of the inputs of assistance being provided.

In Sri Lanka (Ceylon), three agencies receiving United Nations assistance have been in operation with the objective of providing management services in various areas of development activity. These agencies comprise the National Institute of Management, the Academy of Administrative Studies, and the Management Consultancy Division of the Department of Public Administration. A Co-operative Management Services Centre sponsored by the ILO/SIDA was also declared open on 12 July, 1973.

In addition to the above, the UNDP through its sponsorship has just inaugurated a specialised agency, namely the Asian Centre for Development Administration (ACDA) with its headquarters at Kuala Lumpur in Malaysia, to provide assistance in Management training and Management Services in the field of development planning to the countries in the Asian Region of the world.

The ACDA is intended to help Asian Governments to speed up their development from planning stage to actual execution by offering a combination of key level management training, problem-solving research and consultancy services.

This paper is being written with the intention of examining the development planning machinery where management services can be of much help particularly in strengthening the decision-making processes in the context of the new framework of planning that is emerging in Sri Lanka.

In view of the above, it will therefore be appropriate to initially outline the framework of planning machinery that is presently operative in Sri Lanka.

Upto July, 1973, the responsibility of planning was entrusted to the cabinet sub-committee on Planning (for purposes of policy-making) and to the Ministry of Planning and Employment which acted as a servicing agency to this Sub-committee. The Chairman of the sub-committee and the Minister for Planning being the Prime Minister.

The methodology adopted by the Ministry of Planning in its formulation of development plans has been to treat development programmes by sectors, (e.g., Social overheads, Agriculture, etc.) and to co-ordinate the investments in such sectors through a configuration of macro-economic goals and objectives. This Ministry has therefore been largely concerned with the detailed quantitative economic analysis and research essential for formulating overall and sectoral plans. The functions carried out by it, included the evaluation and assessment of development programmes prepared by the sponsoring Ministries/Institutions with a view to recommending such programmes and projects for provision of local funds and foreign exchange where necessary.

In order to carry out such work, the Ministry of Planning and Employment comprised the following Divisions until July, 1973:—

- (a) Planning & Progress Control Division ;
- (b) External Resources Division ;
- (c) Economic Affairs Division ;
- (d) Employment Division ; and
- (e) Regional Development Division.

The last named of the above was created only in 1971 with the intention of decentralising part of the development efforts of the Government. In connection with this, Divisional Development Councils have been established through the Regional Development Division to secure the “popular participation in the development effort” The Regional Development Division is responsible for co-ordinating and directing the activities of the Divisional Development Councils to lay down regional development policy; and to allocate funds for the implementation of approved, projects formulated by the Divisional Development Councils.

By June, 1973, there were 592 Divisional Development Councils set up throughout the Island in its local authority areas. These Councils consist of Government Officials and representatives of the various local organizations as the people's committees, cultivation committees, co-operative societies, village committees, etc., and constitute the main link between the numerous government agencies on the one hand and the local community and its representative institutions on the other. The main functions of the Divisional Development Councils are to identify, formulate, and implement development projects in the fields of agriculture, industry and economic overheads for their respective areas of jurisdiction. These Councils are also expected to prepare an integrated development programme for their areas, to co-ordinate the popular effort and the services made available by the Central Government and to review the progress of the development effort and make recommendations for corrective action.

There was a change of emphasis in July, 1973, as it appeared that the planning process and techniques hitherto adopted were not having the desired impact on economic performance.

Thus on 9 July, 1973, the Government created two separate Ministries, one for Planning and Economic Affairs and the other for Plan Implementation. They replaced the earlier Ministry of Planning and Employment. The Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs would be mainly responsible for the formulation and appraisal of economic policies and the preparation of national and regional plans. The Ministry of Plan Implementation would chiefly be concerned with monitoring progress in implementation and the achievement of targets.

On 14th July, 1973, the Government also announced the inauguration of a National Planning Council. In announcing this decision the Director of Cabinet Affairs stated in a press communique that "... this is the latest reform effected to the Planning machinery by the United Front Government in pursuance of its policy enunciated in the Common Programme of 1968 and its subsequent election pronouncement and as a means of speeding up of the pace of economic development".

The "Ceylon Daily News" editorial of 16th July, 1973, commenting on this re-structuring of the planning machinery stated, "The first thing to be said however is that the re-structuring of the planning process is clearly a fruitful outcome of the Government's own critical appraisal of how the planning machinery has worked in the past three years. Three years in office has afforded enough experience by which the Government can judge how efficiently its own machinery has been working. Plainly, this experience has exposed basic defects, organizational imperfections, problems of personnel, weaknesses in co-ordination and so on. In other words, the need for change".

The National Planning Council consists of nine Cabinet Ministers as members, with the Prime Minister as Chairman. The Members other than the Prime Minister, are the Minister of Irrigation, Power and Highways, the Minister of Foreign and Internal Trade, the Minister of Public Administration, Local Government and Home Affairs and Minister of Justice, the Minister of Industries and Scientific Affairs, the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Plantation Industry and Minister of Constitutional Affairs, the Minister of Agriculture and Lands, and the Minister of Housing and Construction. The Secretary to the Cabinet will act as the Secretary to the Council. The Secretaries of the Ministries of Planning and Economic Affairs and Plan Implementation will be closely identified with the functioning of the Council.

A Government communique states that "The Planning Council will effectively ensure a genuine accord between the measures adopted for economic development and the Government's political outlook and national policies based on the people's aspirations. The Council will function in close collaboration with the two Ministries, (i.e., Planning and Economic Affairs, and Plan Implementation), the Cabinet Office and Prime Minister's Office in its working relationship with all ministries."

Nine Sectoral Committees have been formed under the Planning Council and each of them will be chaired by a member of the Council. Other Ministers whose subjects fall under the respective Committees will also be members of the Committees.

The Sectoral Committees are—

- (1) Foreign Finance ;
- (2) Irrigation, Power and Highways, Construction, Posts and Telecommunications ;
- (3) Trade—Domestic and Foreign, Co-operative, Shipping and Tourism ;
- (4) Administrative Machinery—Central and Local, Regional Development and Management Development ;
- (5) Industries and Fisheries ;
- (6) Food, Agriculture and Minor Irrigation ;
- (7) Social Overheads (Education, Health, Sports, Cultural Affairs, and Social Welfare), Housing, Transport and Mass Media ;
- (8) Domestic Finance, Employment and Wage Policy ; and
- (9) Plantation and Labour Relations.

These committees will be supported by Officials concerned with the relevant subjects and will also draw in talent and expertise from outside. The inflow of views of persons with general experience, maturity, sound judgment and correct perspectives drawn from various walks of life is expected to reflect broad agreements among the various interests of the community.

Apart from the institutional framework of planning so far described, planning and programming units have also been established in the various Ministries. These units have however co-ordinated with the Ministry of Planning only on the basis of “ad-hoc arrangements” and there does not exist institutional or formal links between the Ministry of Planning and Project level operations through the Ministries.

Meanwhile, the Minister of Public Administration, Local Government and Home Affairs has also sponsored the decentralization of the Administration and the Budget. The Government’s decision to adopt this proposal was announced in a policy statement outlined by the Prime Minister on 23 June, 1972.

The implementation of this proposal commenced as from 1974. In this connection, the Minister of Public Administration, Local Government and Home Affairs had previously discussed the measures being taken to decentralise, with the Government Agents and Assistant Commissioners of Local Government with a view to preparing the ground for same.

The entire approach by the Government now reflects a massive change from the situation that has so far existed in Sri Lanka. The emphasis is to involve the participation of the people in the development effort and to

achieve a greater degree of relationship between the sectors of the economy. In fact, an U. N. Report has stated that "... it has now been recognised that planning in the past had tended to suffer from too excessive an emphasis on top/down approaches. Although some form of interaction between the centre and the sectors has been introduced in the past this had not been carried through on a systematic basis and as a result macro-economic plans had been formulated in relative isolation from the thinking that was going on in the sectors". This new approach of the Government is therefore geared not only toward a greater co-ordination between the sectors but also between the different spatial hierarchies so as to forge new active links between the village, the district and the centre.

It is against such an institutional background and the Government's accepted strategy of development, that one must examine where management services are needed and can be of much help in supporting the Government's development Programme.

The analysis of the situation described so far points to a greater need for management services at the sub-national levels as compared with that needed at the national level. As noted earlier, at the national level institutional components of the total planning Organisation is fairly well geared towards its own sectoral planning but is distinctly deficient in the element of co-ordination or relation between them and the central core. It, therefore, appears logical to conclude that this is one area where management services can be of much help in securing co-ordination and in achieving overall goals and objectives incorporated in Government policy. In this connection management services will be specifically required to ensure *functional co-ordination* and its techniques may include PERT, O.R. and Systems as there is sufficient understanding of such sophisticated techniques in the various individual sectoral institutions and in the central core of the national planning organisation. It will be necessary, as part of this process of functional co-ordination, to establish a research base to provide support services and a feed-back medium. This, in fact, is one area of development planning that ought to be thoroughly organised through a management service provided at the national level. It will serve to strengthen the decision-making mechanism which depends on such feed-back to justify its assumptions and interpretations.

At the sub-national level, there is a great need for providing management services geared essentially towards action-oriented goals and objectives. It is at the sub-national level that one is directly in touch with the "grass roots" characteristics of human and material resources. It is also at this scale that one finds various forms of in-built resistances to attempts at introducing systematic methodologies into the existing planning system. Further, at the sub-national level, there is a lack of high sophistication in technology and skills and therefore it is necessary that any management service at this level be in harmony with the specific level of appreciation

of its inputs. As noted earlier, development activity will in the future be most intense at the sub-national scale of space. Therefore, management services will be most needed in several areas of development planning at this level. For example, the *organizational form* of the Provincial Administration will hence be one element of development activity which can be provided with assistance through a management service, in view of the increasing responsibilities for development being thrust upon it by different agencies of the sectoral Ministries. In this connexion, the management service could in particular assist the functional responsibilities of the individual provincial Departments vis-vis the core of the provincial administrative machinery, namely, the Kachcheri.

In servicing the provincial institutional framework, particular note must be taken to employ simple management techniques since there are several hierarchies of administration, (including the most informed and useful Grama Sevaka), involved in the total Organisation. The techniques used must be clearly understood and the principle objective should be geared towards motivating individuals to participate in a common programme of work and to establish an organisational form that is oriented towards such an objective.

It is also necessary in planning for development at the sub-national level to rationalise the area relationships of the different sectoral agencies. This is an area of spatial management where inter-linkages between the different agencies and their services are identified and then rationalised by location for the convenience of the people. Distance relationships are reckoned with in this process and it has proved to be a useful tool in improving the goals and objectives of development planning. Unfortunately, however, in Sri Lanka the spatial dimension has not yet been closely integrated to the economic-dominated planning process. It is, therefore, an area of development planning where management services can provide a basis for introducing the total integration of economic, social and spatial dimensions in the planning process.

A feature that is more common at the sub-national level than at the national level is the existence of a multitude of advisory bodies. This poses an additional effort to co-ordinate voluntary and advisory agencies with the regular Government institutions. It is necessary to develop this particular skill of management very thoroughly as these voluntary organisations reflect an active participation of the people in the planning effort. The harnessing of these energies is absolutely important and would be an useful area of reference to a management service at the sub-national level.

The mass media is also an important instrument of development planning to involve the popular participation of the people in the planning process and thereby to evoke local initiative and leadership. In such a context, communication is an area of development planning where management services can be of much use in motivating people to participate actively

in achieving the goals and objectives of a development plan. Communication in this process, should be viewed as part of a data management system.

At this stage, it must be stated that it is not sufficient to provide management services exclusively at the national and sub-national scales, completely divorced from one another. It is necessary to have an efficient system or medium to link the two levels so as to achieve common overall goals and objectives. In fact, at present, there appears to be a need to improve the development relationship between the central and provincial institutional framework. Recently, an experienced District Administrator stated that the Government Agents " are inundated with circulars from Colombo giving various instructions and that these circulars frequently contradict one another so that the Government Agent does not know where to begin". He therefore concluded that " there is no central authority to tell the Government Agents what the priorities should be " and claimed that "A part of the present crisis could be traced to this mix-up of priorities". Obviously, therefore, this is an area of development planning where special attention is needed to improve the management system linking the national with the sub-national levels.

The Local Government institutions also constitute an important part of the total force aimed at stimulating and supporting development at the sub-national levels. The share of the nation's economic resources consumed by these Local Authorities is fairly considerable, so much so that increased efficiency and productivity of these Authorities can have a favourable impact on the nation's economy. In fact, a point of view has already been raised to promote the establishment of a " centralised Management Services Unit for Local Government in this country, under the direction of the Ministry of Local Government ". It is therefore essential that Local Government be integrated more closely with the development planning organisation of the Central Government and these are areas where management services will be of much assistance in increasing the efficiency and productivity of the Local Authorities in the context of a total strategy for development.

The provision of management services in development planning at the sub-national level, may be advantageously utilized by treating the sub-national activities at two scales—namely, regional and local. The Management services provided at the latter should be directly oriented towards problem-solving. Therefore, it will be useful to establish a research base even at the sub-national level to monitor information in respect of development activity and to analyse such information to solve specific problems at the local level. The problems may be connected with human and/or material resources. Both however are elements that have to be harnessed to achieve the desired goals and objectives of development and hence must be usefully managed.

This paper has thus outlined various areas of development activity in the planning process that may be particularly assisted through management services. It has discussed the national and sub-national levels of development planning so as to focus attention on the different problems requiring assistance through appropriate management services. It is hoped that more discussion will be generated on this subject in relation to the sub-national scale and particular attention paid to the various techniques and styles of management that can be incorporated in the appropriate management service. This is particularly important in view of the new framework of planning that is emerging in Sri Lanka which was discussed earlier in this Paper. It may be useful to seek international assistance through agencies such as the ACDA in not only acquiring management services but also in training local personnel in various fields of management in development planning, outlined in this paper.

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PROFESSIONAL DEDICATION AS A COMPONENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

B. M. Sharma & C. Prasad

ADMINISTRATION of organizations, large or small, has come to be recognized as an universal and indispensable phenomenon—a worthy discipline. Its influence cuts across all the social and economic system and its poor functioning is painfully felt at the production points—at the ultimated performance of the system. Scientific and efficient administration and management, however, has yet to be fully realized as a fundamental prelude to production in developing nations and more so in their public sectors. The concept of development administration has now gained currency. This appears to be a haply development where problems and subjects of developmental tasks and complexes are given due cognizance while marshalling the material and non-material organizational resources for efficient production.

Broadly speaking, a dynamic and scientific management system would like to deliberately, consistently and carefully strike at three crucial points for better performance: first, personnel; initial personal, professional and situational backgrounds and continued concern for sharpening these aspects; second, professional dedication as a strong determinant of personnel performance, for its inadequacy can even leave the initial basic potentialities in the dormancy which would rust with the passage of time; and third, the organizational working conditions being created and provided to the working army—even the best working conditions may not be fully utilized if the personnel lack professional dedication. Thus, the professional dedication is an area which should attract the attention of the students in administration. Chavan (1969) has rightly stressed, "If devotion to profession leads to paralysis, detachment becomes remoteness, examination turns into procrastination, cross consultation brings about abdication of responsibility and thoroughness results in debilitating delay, the objectives of administration however, laudable, are to a large extent, defeated."

Identification and quantification of constituents of professional dedication is not an easy task in view of its difficult subjective nature. An attempt, nevertheless, has been made in this study to this effect in the context of the extension personnel of the community development organization working at the C. D. Blocks. This exploratory study would further lead to more precise and depth studies contributing toward understanding the vital component like professional dedication of the organizational incumbents.

Concepts and Methodology

In order to identify the basic constituents of professional dedication, the term professional dedication was conceptualized as a sincere attachment and devotion to one's profession and duties. The word profession is commonly used for any occupation, but all occupations are not professions. The occupations which require specialized competence and where only qualified individuals can enter for the jobs are really the professions. Dedication is something eternal, a characteristic of an individual which may vary in degree from individual to individual ; it is the expression of giving the best of one's potentiality and talents in his or her assignments. In subjective terms, several factors can be conceived of contributing to the professional dedication. Nevertheless, all can not be accurately measured ; one has to be selective at that. With this theoretical concept in view a good number of items were collected making use of relevant literature, discussion with the concerned staff of the community development departments, various professors in the Universities, and personal experiences and observations.

A pilot study was further undertaken with a view to gain deeper insight into the problem. All the items so collected were then grouped into a few major components. Each major component of professional dedication consisted of several sub-components—the indices or indicators.

A list of the major components and their respective sub-components so prepared was then sent to 80 judges who were specially selected from among the administrators in the field of C.D. and extension services and social and psychological Scientists with a view to add, delete or modify the components or sub-components. Further, to quantify the components, the judges were asked to give weightage to each sub-component out of ten marks keeping in view its (sub-component) importance in measuring the professional dedication of extension personnel. The responses of 67 judges out of 80 were received. After deleting the ambiguous responses, the opinion of only fifty judges were considered for the study. The coefficient of concordance 'W' proposed by Knedall was calculated to know the consistency in weights given by different judges. The perfect agreement and the least agreement among the judgments of the judges is known when the value of 'W' is one and zero respectively. Chi-square was also calculated to test the significance of the value of 'W'. The data are presented in Table 1. It was found that the value of 'W' for all the components was considerably high and significant either at five per cent or one per cent level of probability. It means that the ranks of the weights for each such components as assigned by the judges were significantly consistent. As such, all the major components and the sub-components which were sent to the judges were considered as the constituent components of professional dedication of extension personnel. Had there been a sharp divergence of opinion between the judges on any of the components or sub-components, the procedure would have been to drop out or modify the

controversial component. As such nine major components and 56 sub-components (excluding subject-matter-knowledge and undertaking items) were finally indentified as the constituents of professional dedication.

On the principle stipulated by Goode and Hatt (1952) it was presumed that all the components and the sub-components might not be of equal importance and therefore, there might be variation in interpreting the results. So to further strengthen the validity of the scale, the weights for each of the component and the sub-components was calculated separately. The average mark for each sub-component was the weight for that particular sub-component. The weight for the major component was the pooled weight of the respective sub-component taking 100 as the base.

Table I.—Major constituent components of professional dedication of extension personnel concordance values and average weights

<i>Components</i>	<i>Co-efficient of concordance values</i>	<i>Weight taking 100 as base</i>
Knowledge and understanding	.. 0.98*	.. 93.50
Public responsibility 0.62*	.. 74.50
Initiative 0.95*	.. 70.10
Anxiety for work 0.93*	.. 69.80
Aspiration 0.89*	.. 69.70
Job responsibility 0.95*	.. 68.33
Career satisfaction 0.95*	.. 66.00
Contribution 0.95*	.. 14.86
Professional relations 0.49*	.. 59.00

* Significant at .01 level of Probability.

Data in Table 1 revealed that the nine major components were identified for measuring the professional dedication of extension personnel. The Co-efficient of Concordance values against all the nine components indicated that the judgements of the selected judges in assisgning the weight for a particular component was significant at .01 level of probability. The pooled weightage for major components showed that the subject-matter-knowledge and understanding was given the highest importance in assessing the professional dedication. It scored 93.50 marks out of 100. The other eight components which followed were : Public responsibility ; Initiative ; Anxiety for work ; Aspiration ; job responsibility ; career satisfaction ; contribution and professional relations. The weights of the sub-components are dealt with while describing the major components.

Components and their Weightages

Subject Matter, Knowledge and Understanding

This component was given the topmost importance in assessing the professional dedication of an extension personnel. It is an established fact that man can not import rare insights into his work and exhibit innovating skill in any activity without a certain degree of knowledge and understanding of basic principles involved. Each category of job requires different type and varied amount of subject-matter-knowledge. With an

appropriate knowledge test the subject matter knowledge and understanding of an individual can be judged and the scores for his professional dedication may be allotted considering the weights.

Public Responsibility

The second vital components of professional dedication was the public responsibility. It was believed that those who pay more respect to and keep a sense of moral obligations for the public for whom they were recruited, be rated high on the dedication scale.

While further analysing the data, nine sub-components were identified to assess the "Public responsibility" of an individual. The first important component under this head was 'habit of taking impartial decisions for the public' (8.0). The other eight sub-components were personal interest in rural welfare programmes (7.7) ; efforts made in achieving the job targets (7.6) ; sense of responsibility for assigned duties (7.6) ; use of talents in extension work (7.4) ; establishing relations with the clientele (7.4) ; prepared to work beyond the official schedule (7.0) ; priority to official work than to personal ones (6.6) ; and helping attitude for the public (6.5).

Initiative

The component 'Initiative' occupied third rank in the scale of professional dedication. This component was referred to as the risk taking capacity of an individual. It was assumed that there are certain opportunities for every individual where he may overlook some risk to get the work done quickly and effectively. The person who has capabilities of demonstrating self generated action in a particular situation is regarded as a man of initiative.

There were six sub-components on which the level of initiative of an individual could be measured. They were : application of own judgement in the emergency (7.5) ; taking prompt decisions (7.1) ; unmindful of personal hardship for work (7.1) ; trying new things and ideas (7.0) ; oversight of certain rules and regulations for effective work (6.5) ; and design new ways and means for greater service to the public (6.4).

Anxiety for Work

Anxiety for work was identified as the fourth important constituent component of professional dedication. This component was referred to in the context of the intensity of the concern of the individuals for their professional achievements. Four sub-components of the major component 'Anxiety for work' were identified. It was the apprehension of the judges that extension personnel should sincerely defend the situation when the extension work is somehow mis-represented. This view was considered as the pivotal one in assessing the 'Anxiety for Work' of the personnel. The weighted average for this sub-component was 7.6. The second, third

and fourth important sub-components of the 'Anxiety of work' were : feelings of an individual when his work is left behind the scheduled programme (7.2) ; concern after some decisions are taken (7.0) ; and the concern for the work when on leave (6.9) ; respectively.

Aspiration

Aspiration of an individual for his professional prosperity reflect his professional dedication. The judges ranked this component fifth constituent component of professional dedication. It may be spelled that higher level of aspiration in the profession accelerate the developmental programme, as a man decides to act for a particular job what he perceives of the whole situation. Ten sub-components were identified to measure the aspiration of an extension personnel. They were : Aspirations for maintaining relations with extension workers (8.0) ; holding higher positions in future (7.9) ; higher education and training (7.8) ; encouraging others for higher qualifications (7.1) ; enlarging extension activities (6.6) ; extension publication (6.4) ; maintaining personal library (6.3) ; staying longer in service at one place (6.3) ; and own farming (6.3).

Job Responsibility

The component 'Job responsibility' was identified as the sixth important constituent component of professional dedication. Six sub-components were recorded to analyse the 'Job responsibility' level of an individual. The first one was 'knowledge and understanding of his own duties'. (7.6) ; followed by the duties of co-workers (7.5) ; knowledge of various extension programmes in action (7.1) ; service rules and regulations (6.6) ; power given to the senior extension personnel (6.5) ; and progress trends in extension programmes (5.6).

Career Satisfaction

Attitude of extension personnel toward extension profession as a career was identified as the seventh important component of professional dedication. It was realised that a person who has negative attitude towards his present job might not necessarily be having negative attitude towards the extension as a professional career. In this context, the 'Career satisfaction' component was further analysed and six sub-components were identified and quantified. The first important of them was satisfaction in use of talents and energy (7.0) followed by further prospects (7.0) ; liking for extension as a profession (6.8) ; advising others to join extension profession (6.6) ; satisfaction with the relative importance of extension work (6.1) ; and satisfaction with the recognition and awards in extension profession in general (6.0).

Contribution

While identifying the component 'Contribution' it was felt that under the circumstances whatever contribution is made by the personnel for enhancing the extension profession indicates their contribution potentiality

and thereby professional dedication. The component 'contribution' was placed at eight position according to its relative importance on the dedication scale. There were seven important sub-components on the contribution scale on which the total contribution of an individual could be assessed. The sub-component 'Achievements in extension targets' (7.1) was given the top priority. The rest six sub-components were: contribution in rural welfare programmes (6.8); arranging training programmes (6.4); developing teaching aids (6.3) and solving rural problems (6.1).

Professional Relations

The 'professional relation' was identified as the ninth—the last constituent component of professional dedication. The context in which this component was considered on the scale, was that, those personnel who tried to keep relations with professional staff as well as institutions, were interested in their profession too. Nine sub-components were further identified to know the professional relations of an extension personal. They were: participation in professional gatherings (6.5); knowledge of professional societies and educational institutions (6.4); personal interest shown in professional societies (6.3); contacts with C. D. Block level personnel (6.2); interest shown in extension literature (6.1); contact with district level officers (6.0); relations with communication agencies from village to National level (5.4); contact with State level extension officers (5.2); and contact with National level extension officers (5.0).

The scale points in the present study were assumed to be spaced at equal intervals and the scale points ranged from 1 to 5. These five points may be interpreted according to the continuum used. To illustrate, the respondent will get 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5, score when he gets a check under very little, little, somewhat, much, very much respectively.

Analysis Procedure

The statistical analysis for assessing the professional dedication of an individual or a group of personnel may be made on the basis of weighted average. The weighted average, for an individual as well as a group may be calculated as follows:—

Individual Weighted Average

Individual weighted average on a particular component is the ratio of the summation of multiple of weightage of the sub-components and scale scores to the weightage of the components. The same may be expressed

$$\text{as—WA} = \frac{\sum W}{\sum W} \text{ for an individual.}$$

Where WA = Weighted average

S = Scale scores;

W = weights of the sub-component.

For an example, in the component—Public responsibility there were nine sub-components of different weights. The responses recorded for a village level worker are shown in Table 2.

Table 2.—Computation of weighted average for a VLW on the component—Public responsibility (an illustration)

Sub-components		Weights (W)	Scale score (S)	W S
1	..	8.0	2	16.0
2	..	7.7	3	23.1
3	..	7.6	2	15.2
4	..	7.6	2	15.2
5	..	7.4	3	22.2
6	..	7.4	3	22.2
7	..	7.0	3	21.0
8	..	6.6	2	13.2
9	..	6.5	2	13.0
Total		65.8		161.1

By substituting the values in the formula—

$$WA = \frac{\sum WS}{\sum W} \text{ We get ; } WA = \frac{161.1}{65.8} = 2.44$$

In a similar way WA for other components may be calculated and interpreted. The overall professional dedication may be calculated by polling the WA for all the nine components and taking average of it.

Interpretation

The weighted average score may be interpreted according to the pre-determined classification as mentioned below :—

Very much dedication 4.5 to 5.0	WA
Much dedication 3.5 to 4.49	WA
Somewhat dedication 2.5 to 3.49	WA
Little dedication 1.5 to 2.49	WA
Very little dedication 1.0 to 1.49	WA

The weighted average for 'subject matter knowledge and understanding' may be calculated through a knowledge test. If an individual obtains scores between 75 per cent. to 100 per cent. 60 to 74 per cent. ; 50 to 59 per cent. ; 40 to 49 per cent. ; and less than 40 per cent. on the knowledge test, he may be awarded 5.0 WA, 3.5 WA, 2.5 WA, 1.5 WA and 1.0 WA respectively and interpreted on the professional dedication scale in the same way as in case of other components.

Summary

Identifying and quantifying the constituent components of professional dedication is one of the burning problems of today. It is the common feeling in almost all the organisations that the persons who are dedicated to the cause of their profession are being treated at par with the non-dedicated

personnel and even sometimes non-dedicated personnel are given undue benefit over dedicated personnel. Under the circumstances, it is very essential that a scale be developed through which the professional dedication of the personnel be identified and may be interpreted in quantitative form without indulging into the sights of impartiality.

In the present study an attempt has been made to identify and quantify the constituent components of professional dedication of extension personnel. A large number of items related to the problem were collected through relevant literature, discussions with the experts and own observations. Finally, a list of nine major components and fifty-six sub-components (excluding the first component subject-matter-knowledge and understanding) was prepared which was then sent to eighty judges for their comments as well as for quantifying the components. After deleting the ambiguous responses, the judgment of 50 judges was considered for the study. Coefficient of concordance was calculated to know the consistency in their opinion which was found significant at .01 level probability. The average weights for each sub-component and the major component was later calculated for quantifying the professional dedication of the personnel.

Thus, the scale contained nine major components and fifty-six sub-components. For assessing the subject matter knowledge and understanding a special knowledge test be developed and grades be awarded to the individuals as explained earlier.

Looking into the delicacy of the problem, it is justified here to suggest that more researches of this kind be undertaken by the Social Scientists and the problem be hit from various angles so that we can better measure the professional dedication. Such an understanding of the personnel will go a long way in improving and training them.

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EVALUATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINING—SOME EXPERIENCES *

Ranjith M. Withana

SRI Lanka, as in the case of most of the developing countries of this region, showed interest in administrative training in the 1960's, as it was around this period that the demands on the administrative system to meet its increasing developmental role were evident. The experiences of other countries in the institutionalization of administrative training coupled with the advocacy by the United Nations of the importance of setting up institutions and the machinery for training, prompted the highest policy making levels in Sri Lanka to realize that systematic training of the administrative and managerial levels could make a significant contribution to improve the competency and the capacity of the administrative system; and thus enable it to effectively discharge its increasing development role.

The Academy of Administrative Studies was established in 1966 as recommended by the Administrative Reforms Committee of 1966¹ to fulfill the above hypothesised role. This role and therefore the objectives of administrative training by the Academy have been stated as, "the Public Service is now confronted with new and heavy responsibilities in implementing this programme of development (the programme has been mentioned as extremely wide and varied ranging from public utilities, commercial enterprises, industrial projects, administrative planning for economic development in addition to the more traditional tasks of public administration). If it (i.e., public service) is to discharge these responsibilities successfully and within the phasing of the programme, it must be trained and equipped to deal with these complex tasks", in its first report.

The task of a training institution as the Academy, is to translate this general function to specific programmes of training which individually and collectively attempt to achieve the above mentioned overall objective.

During the initial phase when administrative training was getting established in the Asian region as in Sri Lanka, it appears that no serious effort was directed at assessing to what extent the training in general fulfilled its hypothesised role and specific programmes achieved their limited objectives, within the overall framework. However, of recent much interest has been shown in this direction, possibly since it is now

¹ Report of the Committee on Administrative Reforms—Sessional Paper—IX of 1968.

*This is based on a paper on "Training Evaluation—Experience of the Academy of Administrative Studies" read by the author at a Seminar of Administrative trainers of the ECAFE Region, conducted jointly by ECAFE/NIDA in Bangkok, Thailand May–June 1973.

felt on the experiences of the initial phase of training in these countries, that successful planning and development of the training activity depends among other things on the evaluation of training programmes individually ; and through this an assessment of the overall impact of training.

This paper attempts to indicate the position and significance of evaluation in the network of activities comprising the overall training function ; the limitations and difficulties in assessing the impact of training on the administration ; the approaches in evaluating specific training programmes and the experiences of the Academy in this direction.

The position of evaluation in the training function could be clearly seen from the schematic model in page 3, which depict the different activities that comprise the overall training function. This model indicates the desirable links and the interrelationship of evaluation (and the feed-back mechanism) with the other activities, and thus bring out its role and significance in the totality of operations of the training function. From this model one could see that evaluation of training involves two main aspects, one is how far training courses provided are achieving their training objectives ; and the other is how far the training objectives set are achieving the broader objectives set for the public service in relation to training.

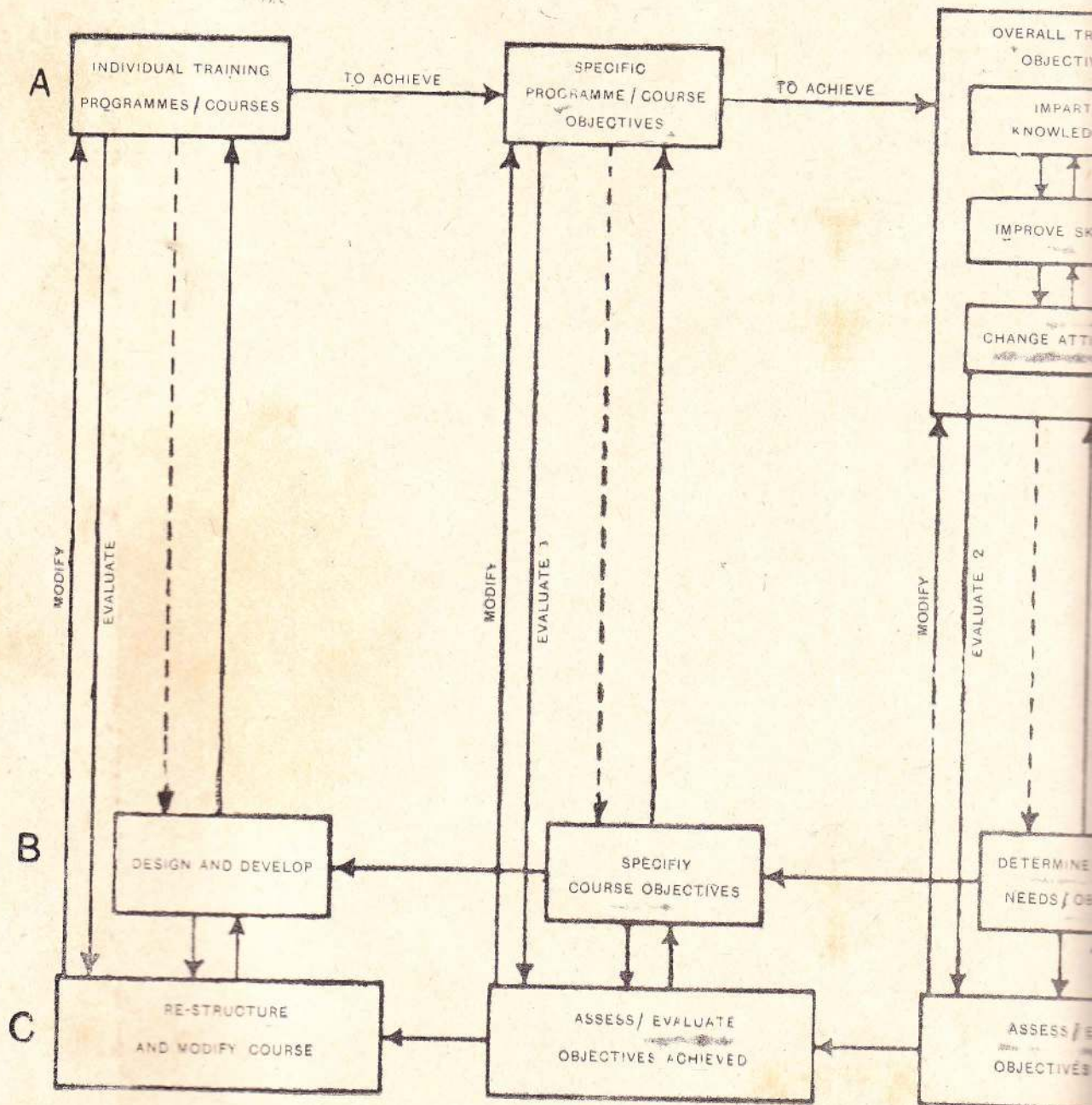
As discussed earlier the hypothesised role of training is to enable the administration to effectively discharge its increasing development role, in other words it implies that the end results of training would be to improve the performance of the administration. From the schematic model it is seen that the overall objectives of training should lead to ; and the usage of knowledge and skills required for job and the development of the desired attitude for the job. (Two other factors external to training objectives ; and the other is how far the training objectives set are achieving the broader objectives set for the public service in relation to training.

The limitations and difficulties of evaluating this overall objective of training will be discussed below and the experiences to be presented here will therefore be mainly of the first aspect of evaluation, i.e. assessing how far the training programmes are achieving their specific objectives.

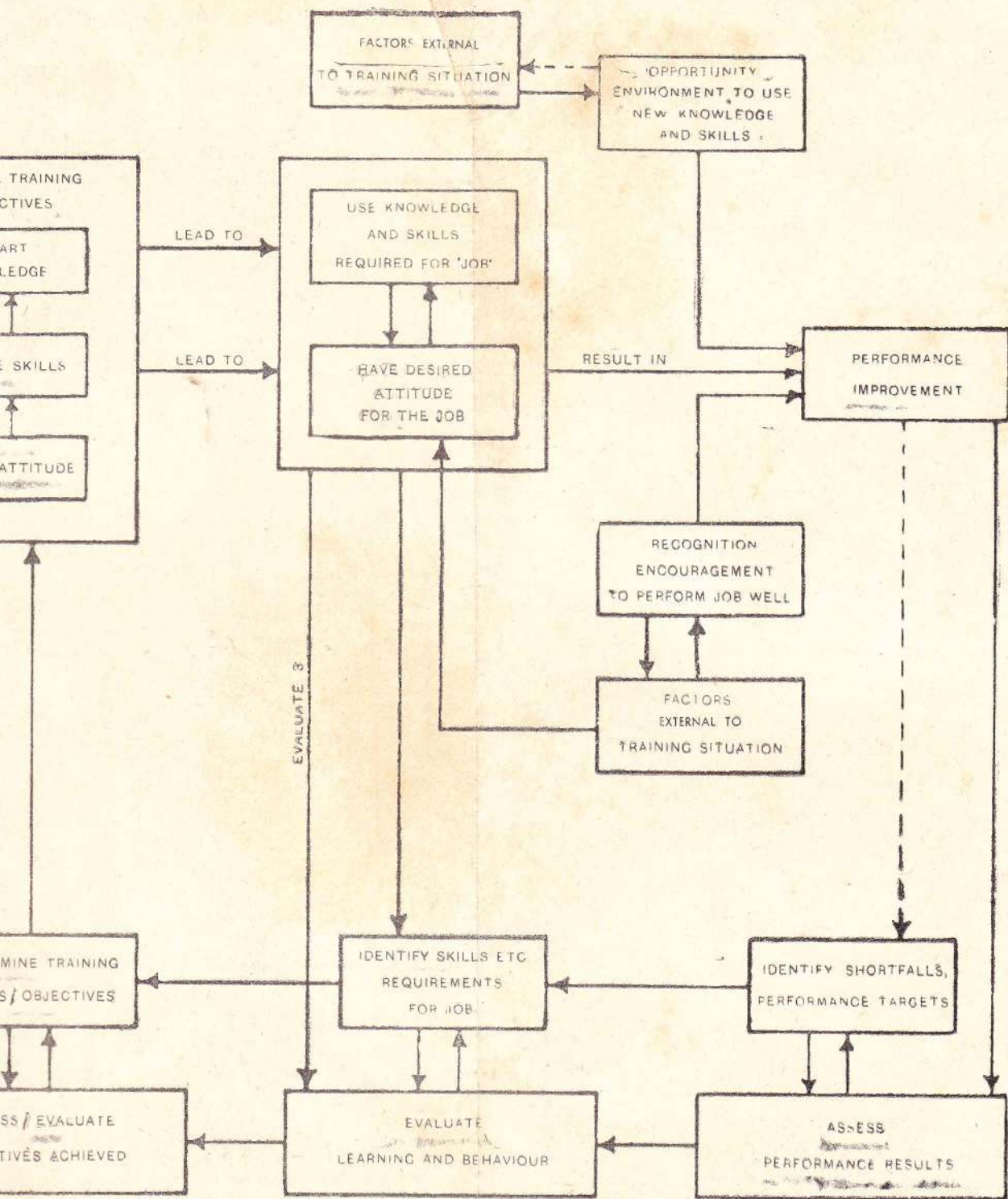
Identification of training needs

An important pre-requisite for the training function to be effective is an identification of the training needs, as this is to influence and determine the specific objectives and the nature and content of the respective programmes and courses. It is seen that this is also inextricably tied up with evaluation, because evaluation is a mechanism of assessing to what extent the training needs identified have been satisfactorily fulfilled. The experience of the Academy of Administrative Studies so far is that the earlier referred to general hypothesised needs have to be spelt out in specific terms of training needs. It is apparent that the identification of

- A - CONDUCT TRAINING PROGRAMMES,
B - IDENTIFY TRAINING NEEDS
C - EVALUATE TRAINING PROGRAMMES



DIAGRAMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE A



THE ACTIVITIES IN THE TRAINING FUNCTION

these needs in terms of the objectives indicated in the schematic model, namely the knowledge and improved skills required, cannot however be done in general terms for the entire administration. What is possible and necessary is the identification of this for specific groups or grades of administrators and managers or such personnel working within specific organisations. This would of course involve identifying, (i) the knowledge, skills and (may be attitudes) required for the specific groups or grades of administrators in relation to their jobs, and (ii) the knowledge and skill they presently possess. This would reveal the requirements 'gap' which is also referred to as the 'training gap'.

Though serious attention has recently been focussed on the necessity to identify these and spell out the needs in these terms for different groups, no systematic study or survey has been carried out yet. Lack of such information is a serious limitation for any attempt to assess the impact of training. However, at the Academy some initial efforts were taken to identify the needs in some form, during the planning and development of programmes of training for specific client groups, like the Engineerings and Scientific administrators, Divisional Assistant Government Agents, Divisional Revenue Officers and in programmes for specific departments and Boards like the People's Bank, National Savings Bank, River Valley's Development Board and Survey Department. In these efforts no rigorous listing of skills and knowledge necessary for the job requirement or for the achievement of performance targets been attempted. What was done was an analysis of the jobs through discussions with representatives of 'trainee groups' so that some aspects of the additional knowledge and skills required would emerge from this analysis. In the exercise for the Divisional Assistant Government Agents the basic skills and qualities required for their jobs in view of the increasing importance of their role in promoting developmental projects at village level was arrived at, not only by discussions with the client groups, but also by field observations and consultations with other official who have a direct relationship with the work of this group. However, much more refinement of this approach is needed and efforts are at hand to elaborate and develop this further, and in fact the forming of working groups or committees for each course consisting of representatives of the trainer group and a project team of trainers was one such effort.

Evaluation of Administrative Training—Its Limitations

The discussion in the rest of this paper on the experience and the approaches of evaluating training programmes by the Academy should be viewed in the background of the following limitations and difficulties present in any attempt to assess the effectiveness of training, either of the individual programmes or of the overall training function.

- (i) The lack of accurate information of the training needs as pointed out earlier makes it difficult to identify and spell out the

objectives of training programmes. This has resulted in training programmes stating the objectives in broad general terms and this makes evaluation a difficult task.

- (ii) Though many approaches and methods have been suggested for systematic evaluation of administrative training by many writers, there is no general agreement of an acceptable method with common evaluating criteria by which one could assess its effectiveness.
- (iii) Why administrative training proceeds with very poorly defined objectives, among other reasons is the fact that ; firstly there is a lack of clarity about the role for which officers are trained and secondly, a failure to draw a clear distinction between training and other activities related to performance improvement.
- (iv) Though 'in-plant' or specific job related training within a single work organisation can be evaluated in a more exact way in terms of its contribution to increased efficiency, performance or returns on investment, such criteria fail in situations of administrative training (as carried out by the Academy) which attempt to cover a wide range of administrators and managers working in different organisations in many of which objectives are not clear and performance parameters not easily identifiable.
- (v) In the public service situation unlike in the case of a single work organisation or enterprise, the role of training and its linkages to recruitment, promotion, specialisation, posting and career development are not clearly developed and evident.

These issues and limitations in the administrative training situation obviously present difficulties and problems in any approach for assessing the impact of training on the administration as a whole, but they seem less significant and present fewer difficulties in evaluating individual training courses.

Evaluation of Specific Training Courses—The Models

The assessment of the effectiveness of training programmes presents two basic issues, namely (i) who should provide the information for the evaluation, and (ii) in terms of what.

These have to be resolved not only by considerations of objectivity and effectiveness but also by looking into the practicability and cost aspects of the approaches or methods to be used.

The Academy generally makes use of the participants or the 'client groups' at the conclusion of the course as the evaluators, on the premise, firstly that the participants being the most involved and interested in the course would be able to provide useful information about the course, and secondly that this information will be provided fairly soon i.e. at the

conclusion of a course. Attempts are at hand to ascertain the views of the participants superiors in the work organisation. In addition the use of independent observers and training consultants are certainly beneficial, but due to difficulties of engaging such groups and the costs involved, the Academy has not pursued approach.

On the question of in terms of what should the valuation be carried out; the criteria used have been based on a scheme of a systematic evaluation method, known as the Kirkpatrick model, suggested in the Training and Development Handbook of the American Society for Training and Development. However, as would be discussed later, all the steps in this have not been systematically followed in the evaluations at the Academy. A presentation of this scheme here would be useful as it provides the conceptual framework within which any evaluation exercise could be developed. According to this scheme the evaluation breaks up into four logical steps or stages, namely, Reaction—how well did the participants like the programme. Learning—what principles, facts and techniques were learnt? Behaviour—what changes in job behaviour relate from the programme? Results—what aspects of the job/duties were Steps 2 and 3 relevant and applicable (either in the short run or the long run), and what were the tangible results of this in terms of increased out-put, quicker disposal of work, lesser grievance from members of the work organisations, etc. The assessment of these steps have to be carried out by questionnaires and wherever possible by in depth interviews, directed separately at (a) the participants or client group and (b) the participants superior in his work organization; at different time intervals.

Indicated below is an analysis of the main aspects to be examined at each of the above steps or stages.

Stage 1—Reaction: This in short attempts to assess how well the trainees like the training programme, its arrangement, use of aids, etc. It does not include any measurement of any learning that takes place and is only an attempt to assess how people feel about the programme.

Stage 2—Learning: This is to assess the principals, facts and techniques which were understood and absorbed by the trainees. It does not include 'on-the-job' use of these principles, facts and techniques which are to be assessed under behaviour in step 3. It is much more difficult to measure learning than to measure reaction to a programme. A great deal of work is required in planning the evaluation of this step, in analysing the data objectively and in interpreting the results. Some of the guidelines that should be used for measuring the amount of learning are, (i) a before-and-after approach so that learning could be related to the programme; (ii) as far as possible learning be measured on an objective basis; (iii) where possible a control group (not receiving the training) be used to compare with the experimental group which receive the training; and (iv) the learning of each participant as far as possible be measured in quantitative terms.

Stage 3—Behaviour: Evaluation of training in terms of 'on-the-job' behaviour is more difficult than the reaction and learning evaluations described earlier. A more scientific approach is needed and many factors have to be considered. A satisfactory method to assess this could be a systematic appraisal of the performance before and after training. This involves an identification of achievable tasks of his job prior to, and after training. Wherever possible a control group (not receiving the training) should be used for comparison.

Stage 4—Results: This could be the most important stage where an attempt should be made to identify the training programme with specific performance improvements in the work organization or the job aspects of the trainee. Organizations and jobs which lend themselves to identification and analysis of quantifiable targets as reduced costs, increasing quality and quantity of production can be assessed satisfactory in this way. It may even be possible to assess the results in terms of some target of improved efficiency and other identifiable criteria, as reduction in grievances or improved morale and satisfaction of the subordinate or superior group. In respect of organizations and jobs which do not lend themselves to this stage of assessment it would have to be dropped from the evaluation method, and in such situations evaluation in terms of reaction, learning and behaviour is only possible.

Evaluation of Courses by the Academy

The course evaluations by the Academy based on the information provided by the participations to an evaluation questionnaire, covered essentially the 'Reaction', 'Learning' and sometimes 'Behaviour' stages outlined above. As discussed previously, for a comprehensive assessment of the impact of a course the stage of 'Results' and 'Behaviour'—at the job after training, should also be covered on the basis of data obtained from in-depth interviews of the participant's superiors, and possibly his peers and subordinates in his work organisation. In spite of practical difficulties for the Academy to attempt coverage of these stages much interest is shown and therefore some initial steps have been taken to cover these aspects too.

Discussed below are two of the course evaluations carried out at the Academy where the author, as the co-ordinator of the courses was the main resource personnel. The first is the Management Development Course and the second is the Seminar on Management Development for Senior Scientific and Technical Administrators.

1. Management Development Course—8th May 1972 to June 1972

The Management Development Course was a major programme of the Academy since its inception and it was run as a basic foundation course in Management, with a duration of around 5 to 6 weeks. In fact the

M.D.C. of 8th May to 9th June 1972 was the 12th in the series.* The overall character of the course as evident from its title, has an emphasis on 'management', (i.e. the areas dealing with allocation and management of resources to achieve planned objectives) than 'administration'. (If one attributes 'administration' to be associated more with its traditional areas of enforcement of legislation, ensuring justice and such activities directed towards maintenance of law and order). This rationale is on the premise that today there is greater development content in the demands and tasks facing an administrator in the public sector.

The participants for the course are those who have a minimum of five years experience in executive grades of the public service or State Corporations and they are selected so as to ensure a proper representation of different job backgrounds and academic disciplines.

The objectives of the course are at Appedix I. The details of the course content with a break-up of the number of sessions in each area is at Appendix II, and it is seen that the course content (as seen at Appendix II) reflects the overall character and the objectives to the acheived. it is seen that the course was concerned with 4 broad areas, namely A—Certain subject areas or disciplines which are essential for an understanding of management; B—Functional areas of management; C—Environmental frame work; D—Analysis of management situations by case studies and management games.

The questionnaire used for the evaluation is at Column 1 of Appendix III. The evaluation was done in group i.e. the participants were divided into five groups, each group consisted as far as possible persons from different work areas and backgrounds. The questionnaire was filled by the groups (i.e. each group completed one form) so that the replies would reflect the consensus of opinion among the group. This group evaluation method has the advantage that the replies will be more objective and accurate than individual replies because; (i) the doubts and inaccurate views of same will be clarified in the group at the discussion stage in filling the form; and (ii) it affords an opportunity for a group of persons, through discussion and analysis to arrive at an agreed group opinion on the questions.

The evaluation questions are reproduced below and the aspects of the evaluation (referred to earlier) they are supposed to cover are also indicated. The questions 3, 4 and 5 and the replies to them do not enable a strict assessment or measurement of the extent of 'learning' or

*In a subsequent review of the activities and the training programmes of the Academy it was decided to change the relatively longer programmes as the M. D. C. to shorter to ones for various reasons though longer courses may occasionally be held.

+ By a "X" marking.

'behaviour'; but they are classified under them as they deal with some element of learning (i.e. knowledge and skills acquired), and behaviour changes induced, as felt or perceived by the participants.

Question	Reaction	Learning	Behaviour
1. Do you consider the broad areas covered by the course a satisfactory framework for the course. If not what areas should have— (a) been added (b) omitted	×		
2. Were the objectives of the course achieved— (a) completely (b) partially (c) not at all	×		
3. Of the 'subject areas' taught what particular areas would you want further enlarged and dealt in this course? What areas would you want reduced and/or omitted. Give comments (if possible indicating the proposed no. of sessions).	×	×	
4. Was there any overlap or repetition in the sessions within each of the subject areas or among the different areas. If so was this desirable.	×	×	
5. Do you consider this course useful and beneficial for your job or career— (a) in the immediate future (b) in the foreseeable future	×	×	×
If answers to both (a) and (b) are in the negative please note reasons.			
6. Other comments.			

A close study of the group replies (at Appendix III) clearly indicates that—

- (i) with certain reservations that the objectives were satisfactorily achieved;
- (ii) the broad framework of the course is satisfactory though changes in certain areas were suggested and inclusion of new areas mentioned;
- (iii) specific mention that the Behavioural areas should attempt to relate the concepts to local situations;
- (iv) the course is of distinct benefit to the participants in their jobs or career in the immediate future and in the foreseeable future.

From the point of view of the Academy this evaluation was useful in that; firstly it confirmed the importance and usefulness of the course to a mixed group of middle managers and administrators; secondly it indicated that the overall academic and functional areas dealt with were a satisfactory framework for a basic management development programme; and thirdly the need to adjust certain areas in the future courses as in the case of behavioural sciences, were brought out.

However, serious acceptance of the views on the 'Learning' and the 'Behavioural' steps, brought out in this evaluation are not possible, without a further follow-up; say by obtaining the views of the participants superior in the work organization or of the participant himself at a later date. This could possibly be on the same questions or on some other questions which have a bearing on the usefulness of the knowledge and skills learnt for the performance of their job, and of any attitudinal or behavioural changes effected.

The usefulness of the evaluation in this particular form inspite of many limitations, is that it provides a very useful guide for further improvement of the course, and also it indicate to the trainers and the training institute in some way the overall impact of a programme, and more important the acceptance and feelings about the programme by an important segment, the 'client group'.

2. Seminar on Management Development for Senior Scientific and Technical Managers—5th March to 9th March 1973

This unlike the Management Development Course was a specific programme planned and conducted for the first time. The need for it arose firstly as the Academy had run a few Management Development Courses geared to the requirements of the middle and junior managers in the Engineering and Technical Services (on the request of the Engineers and Scientists as they realised the important management component of their jobs and in keeping with the growing demand of such officers to hold managerial positions in Ministries and Departments handling subjects which have a greater technical and scientific basis), and the participants in these courses expressed a desire that their senior and higher officers also be exposed to a short programme on Management Development so that their superiors would appreciate what they have followed at the Academy; secondly to acquaint the top Engineering and Technical Managers of the developments in the field of modern management and of the type of training the Academy offered.

The objectives of the seminar (see Appendix IV) reflect these considerations.

The programme being for very senior officers was run on a seminar basis, where as far as possible the resource personnel or the trainer introduced the subject so as to enable the participating senior managers to clarify certain issues and conceptualise their experience through a discussion. This seminar covered some aspects of the following important functional areas of management, considered to be important in relation to the work of a senior manager in the public service.

1st Day : Administrative framework ; National economic framework—its objectives ; Socio-political environment ;

2nd Day : Behavioural Sciences ; Organisation Theory and the contribution of these to organisation improvement ; Personnel Management and Industrial Relations.

- 3rd Day: Financial Analysis and Management Information Systems.
 4th Day: Quantitative Methods for Management;
 5th Day: Office Management; Evaluation of Course.

Unlike in the earlier course evaluation, here the replies to the evaluation questionnaire were from individual participants, because it was felt that as the participants were senior managers a fair amount of objective assessment would be done by them; and secondly the number of participants (which total 16) was too small to form into evaluation groups; and thirdly the most important was that individual replies enabled some form of quantitative analysis of the replies. Such an approach to quantify the replies was distinctly useful and this was the first of such efforts in attempting some form of numerical analysis of a course evaluation. The questions in the evaluation form compared to the previous one was slightly modified to suit this group, and it also attempted to get specific views on the individual areas or subjects that were covered in the seminar namely whether these were good, satisfactory or unsatisfactory.

A similar classification of the questions under the different aspects (as before we consider answers to some of the questions to impinge on learning or behaviour but not to make it possible for an assessment of the extent of learning etc., to be made) would be as follows:

<i>Question</i>	<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Learning</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>
1. Do you consider the objectives indicated in the note circulated too ambitious? What do you think should be the main objectives of a seminar or short programme of this nature?	×		
2. What did you expect to achieve from this seminar before it commenced?	×		
3. Do you consider the broad areas covered in the seminar a satisfactory framework within the time constraint?	×	×	
Please indicate which of the following areas should have been given greater attention, kept at the same level or reduced or completely eliminated (Comments to be made for each area the subject areas were listed.)			
4. Do you consider the overall character and the nature of the seminar to be in keeping with the expectations of a seminar on Management development for top management of the Scientific and Technical Services?	×		
6. Do you consider the general pattern of the seminar namely the presentation followed by a discussion satisfactory or do you consider it should have been in a different form as in the case of a workshop or in the form of a panel discussion?	×		

Question	Reaction	Learning	Behaviour
6. Indicate in which areas the presentations, content covered, concepts and techniques presented, cases and examples used were excellent, satisfactory or unsatisfactory?	x	x	x
(The subject areas listed and provision made to mark separately for presentation, concepts and techniques discussed and case illustrations used).			
7. Annexed are the names of Technical and Scientific Officers who participated in specially designed management development programmes of 6 weeks duration and the content and areas covered in that programme. (Your views on this would be called in another questionnaire later).			
8. Other comments.			

An analysis of the replies and a summation of the markings in the evaluation showed the following picture :

Question 2 :—Irrespective of the different expectations—72 per cent. of the participants indicated that they partially achieved ; 16 per cent. indicated that they fully achieved, the expectations. None indicated that they did not achieve their expectations.

Question 3 :—75 to 90 per cent. of the replies indicated that all areas be expanded or maintained at same extent, so that only 25 to 10 per cent. indicated that they should be reduced or omitted. This appears to be a positive reaction in favour of content and extent of coverage of the areas.

Question 4 :—82 per cent. considered the overall character of the seminar to be satisfactory.
18 per cent.—did not comment.

Question 5 :—91 per cent. considered the seminar procedure adopted i.e. presentation and discussion as satisfactory.

Question 6 :—All the subject areas were evaluated by 80 to 95 per cent. of the replies as excellent, good or satisfactory. Thus only 20 to 10 per cent. evaluated them as unsatisfactory.

The significant points that emerge from this evaluation are firstly, that the seminar had the desired impact on the participants ; and secondly that future programmes of this sort would be a useful approach to draw in the top management. The advantage of this limited evaluation too, is that it becomes the most effective means to test the validity of the main assumptions and needs on which the programme was based.

Conclusion

It is presumed that this brief reference to the role and importance of evaluation, its 'link' with an assessment of the training needs, the approach to conduct an effective evaluations for individual courses, and the inability to assess effectively the impact of training on administration would I hope provide a useful framework for a discussion and for further research studies on this important aspect in administrative training. The illustration of the limited types of immediate post-course evaluation as carried out by the Academy will also focus attention on a particular method in practice in Sri Lanka.

I would like to conclude by quoting from a recent paper on evaluation of administrative training: "Administrative Training as an idea is generally accepted. The problem is now to close rapidly the gap between its ideology and its practice, and to show that the training institutions have the capacity to subject their work to objective and critical examination, and to develop professionally valid new approaches to administrative training in the light of such evaluation."¹

¹ The Internal Evaluation of Administrative Training: Some practical aspects"—Colin Lays—Journal of African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development (CAFRAD)—Dec. 1970.

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT COURSE
8.5.72 to 9.6.73

Appendix I

Objectives of the Course

1. To introduce the subject areas or basic disciplines that contribute to an understanding and an analysis of the management process. It is hoped that this would stimulate the participants interest for further study of specific areas.
2. By this to equip the participants with concepts, analytical methods, tools and techniques which will enhance and upgrade his efficiency and competency as a practicing manager.
3. To bring about an awareness among the participants of the specific constraints, specially the nature of the overall environmental framework and the work environment within which the manager functions in Ceylon.
4. To provide the participants with different job disciplines, a common forum to examine collectively certain problem situation so that it would promote breaking down of certain 'service' and 'specialist' barriers which are sometimes prevalent in the public service, to the detriment of the operational efficiency of the managerial grades.

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT COURSE
8.5.72 to 9.6.72

Appendix II

Course Content

The Course is concerned with the following broad areas :—

- A—Subject areas or “disciplines” which are essential to a study and an understanding of the management process.
- B—Main Functional areas of Management
- C—Environmental Framework.
- D—Analysis of Management situations by case studies and Management games.

The coverage of the above areas by sessions are as follows :—(Total Sessions 135) —

A—Subject Areas or Basic disciplines 86 Sessions

A1—Behavioural Sciences	21
A2—Economics	19
A3—Mathematics	10
A4—Statistics	10
A5—Quantitative Methods/Techniques	22
A51—Finance and Accounting	10
A52—Operations Research	7
A53—Work Study	5

B—Main Functional Areas 22 Sessions.

B1—Administration	8
B11—Administrative Law	6
B12—Disciplinary Proceedings	4
B2—Personnel Management	7
B3—Office Management	2
B4—Marketing Management	3
B5—Supplies Management	2

C—Environmental Framework. 9 Sessions.

D—Analysis of Management Situations by case studies and Management Games 18 Sessions.

It is hoped that participants in these sessions, (individually or collectively in small groups) would draw upon the knowledge, concepts and other techniques learnt in the Area, A, B & C. In addition to making use of his own experience as a manager these case studies are intended to enable an integrated approach be taken by the participants in the analysis of the case material.

COMMENTS OF GROUPS

COLUMN I				
Questions	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
1. Do you consider the broad areas covered by the Course (as indicated in note on 'Course Content') a satisfactory framework for the course. If not what areas should have— (a) been added or (b) omitted	The broad areas were satisfactory.	Yes—However, we would suggest the following:— 1. A1 to be reduced from 21 to 15. (Course contents to be unaltered). 2. Conference Techniques to be added to the Course. 3. Add brief introductory approach to Project Evaluation and formulation. 4. Add Programme Budgeting and Auditing as an aid to Management. 5. A 52/A 53 to be increased from 12 to 15. 6. C—Environmental Framework sessions to be re-arranged with a fair portion devoted to panel discussions.	We feel that the by the course i tory framework ment development subject to the privi areas like psyc unionism and specially pertain be included.	
2. Were the objectives of the course as indicated in letter (TR/6/72/12 of 2.5.72) achieved:— (a) completely (b) partially (c) not at all	(1) and (2) areas were adequately covered and (3) was covered only partially. The third one must be covered with practical applications to Sri Lanka.	(1) Completely (2 & 3) partially. Re (2)—Reasons as at 1-6 in para. 1 above. Re (3)—There was a lack of appreciation of the real problems of the Managers with respect the Trade Union environment and Political environment.	The Course has b to the participan that we would ha equipped if the an ed in items 1 been covered. We must howe that the lectures upon the local c stated in objecti letter mentioned more research on be done in this the next batch benefit of such r	
3. Of the subject areas taught what particular ones would you want further enlarged and dealt in this course. What areas would you want reduced and/or omitted. Give comments (if possible indicating the proposed no. of sessions).	(i) The Behavioural Sciences can be condense with the coverage remaining the same— (ii) Lecturing on pure Economic Theory to be reduced by five and lectures on Development Economics to be included pertaining to agricultural and Industrial Development, Monetary Theory, International Trade. (iii) In addition to what was covered in statistics—three to five lectures on descriptive statistics such as sampling index numbers, collection and tabulation of data. (iv) Basic double entry book-keeping must be dealt with prior to interpretation of accounts. Work Study using office of local examples—say issue of paddy and Fertilizer to farmers. (v) Administrative law to be increased by at least two lectures. (vi) Office management lectures to be increased, marketing management	Please see para. 1. Statistics—on sampling techniques. Mathematics—Exercises to be added in mathematics Economics—Micro Economics to be reduced and Micro Economics to be dealt in greater detail.	(1) We feel that lectures on Economic such areas as t of Ceylon, D trade, banking, s been included. (2) A few more financial manag accounting should done. This area by one person u present course w done by 3 persons (3) The content of management lect be improved. I supplies manager not have been d this course. (4) The present lecturers on Beha ences may be retai into like The de	

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT COURSE 8th MAY 1972 - 9th June 72

Evaluation of Course by Groups of Participants at conclusion of Course

COMMENTS OF GROUPS

Group 2

Yes-However, we would suggest the following :-

1. A1 to be reduced from 21 to 15. (Course contents to be unaltered).
2. Conference Techniques to be added to the Course.
3. Add brief introductory approach to Project Evaluation and formulation.
4. Add Programme Budgeting and Auditing as an aid to Management.
5. A 52/A 53 to be increased from 12 to 15.
6. C-Environmental Framework sessions to be re-arranged with a fair portion devoted to panel discussions.

Group 3

We feel that the area covered by the course is a satisfactory framework for a management development course, subject to the provision that new areas like psychology trade unionism and labour laws specially pertaining to Ceylon be included.

Group 4

- (a) In view of the time constraint of the course broad areas are satisfactory. We would have appreciated a few sessions on the history of political and Local Government institutions and present trends. (within total no. of sessions).
- (b) In view of the composition of the participants marketing management which is a specialised field could have been omitted.

Group 5

(a) Under Behavioural Science greater emphasis should have been given to basic psychology.

- (1) Completely (2 & 3) partially.
- Re (2)-Reasons as at 1-6 in para. 1 above.
- Re (3)-There was a lack of appreciation of the real problems of the Managers with respect the Trade Union environment and Political environment.

The Course has been beneficial to the participants but we feel that we would have been better equipped if the areas mentioned in items 1 and 3 also been covered. We must however mention that the lectures did not touch upon the local conditions as stated in objective No. 3 of letter mentioned. We feel more research on this aspect be done in this area so that the next batch will get the benefit of such research.

We are of the opinion that the objectives as far as (1) and (2) are concerned have been completely achieved. A regard (3) we are of the opinion that it was partially achieved in view of our comments in para 1. and also because of insufficient emphasis on the work environment with in which the Manager function in Ceylon today.

Completely-within the limited time.

Please see para. 1. Statistics-on sampling techniques. Mathematics - Exercises to be added in mathematics Economics-Micro Economics to be reduced and Micro Economics to be dealt in greater detail.

(1) We feel that a few more lectures on Economics covering such areas as the Economy of Ceylon, International trade, banking, should have been included.

(2) A few more lectures on financial management and accounting should have been done. This area should be done by one person unlike in the present course where it was done by 3 persons.

(3) The content of marketing management lectures should be improved. Lectures on supplies management should not have been deleted from this course.

(4) The present number of lecturers on Behavioural Science may be retained but subjects like Trade Unionism and

(1) In the Behavioural Sciences sections a few sessions on styles of management other than U.S. and U.K. (e.g. Yugoslavia, France, China, Japan & U.S.S.R.

(2) One session at least on office management as practical in the Private Sector since Corporations have to function as commercially viable units.

(3) Work Study sessions.

The Sessions on Socio cultural environment Should have been expanded to include other problems such as caste, race, religion customs.

A few more sessions (Net Work) say 3 sessions

(iii) In addition to what was covered in statistics—three to five lectures on descriptive statistics such as sampling index numbers, collection and tabulation of data.

(iv) Basic double entry book-keeping must be dealt with prior to interpretation of accounts.

Work Study using office of local examples—say issue of paddy and Fertilizer to farmers.

(v) Administrative law to be increased by or least two lectures.

(vi) Office management lectures to be increased, marketing management can be reduced by one lecture—Project management added—marketing management can be reduced—at least two lectures.

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present course
done by 3 pers

(3) The content
management
be improved.
supplies mana
not have been
this course.

(4) The present
lecturers on E
ences may be r
jects like Trad
labour laws
within detail w
reducing the su
various areas c

(5) Socio Cult
cal environm
should have be
in more detail.

4. Was there any overlap or repetition in the sessions within each of the subject areas or among the different subject areas. If so was this desirable or not?

There was overlap in Behavioural Sciences and Mathematics which is desirable to stress important areas. However some discussion by the lectures can avoid overlapping to an unnecessary extent.

Yes—In respect of Behavioural Sciences Hawthorn experiment.

There were some overlapping but were unavoidable

(5) Do you consider this course useful and beneficial for your job or career—

(a) in the immediate future
(b) in the foreseeable future.
If the answers to both (a) & (b) are in the negative please note reasons.

All agree that the course is useful both in the immediate future and in the foreseeable future.

(a) Yes
(b) Yes

6. Comment on the arrangement of the time table—

(i) time and duration of sessions.

(ii) no. of sessions per day.

(iii) sequence of subjects.

Any other comments.

(i) Six weeks—8 a.m.—4 p.m. in adjustment of time table—Sunday free.
(ii) *As now*—if possible first period in afternoon nor to be Economics.

More than 5 weeks course is desirable. 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. on five days a week. (Six sessions with one hr. per session) Subject areas as far as practicable to be held in the mornings and avoiding two consecutive sessions on the same subject.
Library hours to come in between sessions.

(i) Satisfactory
(ii) Satisfactory
Note below
(iii) We feel the
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7. Other comments.

Security in Parking Area to be improved.

1. Senior Assessor—Ind. Rev.
2. A.C.A.S.
3. A.E.O.
4. Manager People's Bank.
5. Resident Engineer—Dept. W.S. & D.

1. Medical Supdt.—General Hospital
2. Senior Engineer—D.W.S. & D.
3. D.R.O.
4. Internal—Auditor—Corporation
5. Inquiry Officer—C.T.B.

PARTICIPANTS

1. A.C.A.S.
2. Supdt. Engineer—
3. Asst. Comm. (Elec
4. General Manager corporation.

done. This area should be done by one person unlike in the present course where it was done by 3 persons.

(3) The content of marketing management lectures should be improved. Lectures on supplies management should not have been deleted from this course.

(4) The present number of lecturers on Behavioural Sciences may be retained but subjects like Trade Unionism and labour laws could be dealt within detail without actually reducing the subject matter of various areas covered by them.

(5) Socio Cultural and Political environment lectures should have been dealt with in more detail.

to function as commercially viable units.

(3) Work Study sessions.

Yes—In respect of Behavioural Sciences Hawthorn experiment.

There were some areas of overlapping but we feel that it was unavoidable

There was a certain amount of overlapping in this Behavioural Science Section where several lectures discussed the Hawthorn experiment but no one discussed it fully. We felt that this was not desirable.

There was avoidable repetitive in Behavioural Science session—particularly relating to Hawthorn Studies. Pannel Discussion on the Five Year Plan was a repetition of earlier lecturers, an outside Pannel would have been preferable.

(a) Yes
(b) Yes

More than 5 weeks course is desirable. 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. on five days a week. (Six sessions with one hr. per session) Subject areas as far as practicable to be held in the mornings and avoiding two consecutive session on the same subject. Library hours to come in between sessions.

(i) Satisfactory.

(ii) Satisfactory.

Note below

(iii) We feel that the Economics lecture should not be taken immediately after the lunch intervals where discussions and Case studies are taken may be included in this session. Morning Tea Interval should be after the 2nd session, and the afternoon Tea Interval after the 1st session.

(1) We suggest that the course be extended by at least another week. Sessions should commence at 8.00a.m & finish by 4.30 p.m. the latest.

(2) Should be restricted to 5 sessions per day. There should not be more than 2 sessions in the afternoon.

(3) Satisfactory.

Saturdays should be made use of for lectures. Heavy subjects like Economics could have been arranged for the morning sessions—particularly in view of the warm afternoons.

We would have liked the exhibition of films on some of the subjects studied both to relieve the monotony and to crystallise ideas.

We would wish to meet once again in three months time for a short Seminar to exchange views and discuss our experience in using the knowledge gathered at the current sessions.

PARTICIPANTS

General Hospital
—D.W.S. & D.
or—Corporation
—C.T.B.

1. A.C.A.S.
2. Supdt. Engineer—C.G.R.
3. Asst. Comm. (Election)
4. General Manager of a corporation.

1. Acting Senior Assess. Ind. Rev.
2. Asst. Director—Bureau Standards
3. Asst. Secretary—C.T.B.
4. Div. Secy/Accountant—Health Dept.

1. Audit Officer—A.G.'s Dept.
2. Additional G.A.
3. Asst. Supdt., C.G.R.
4. D.R.O.
5. Asst. Director—Tourist Board.

**SHORT PROGRAMME/COURSE FOR SENIOR SCIENTIFIC & TECHNICAL PERSONNEL—
HEADS OF DEPARTMENT/STATUTORY BODIES**

Period : 5th March 1973 to 9th March 1973

Time : 8.15 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. each day

Objectives :

To provide Senior Scientific and Technical Personnel at highest policy advising and decision making positions as Heads of Government Departments and Statutory Bodies a short introduction to:

- (1) Administrative, Economic and Socio Political framework within which their administrative organisations work.
- (2) Familiarize these Senior Managers with the modern management concepts, ideas and techniques current in management training today and their contribution to more effective and efficient performance of the different functional areas of a Senior Managers as Personnel Management, Financial Management, Office Management.
- (3) Enable the Senior Managers to get the greatest benefit from members of their staff who have attended management training courses.
- (4) Promote exchange of knowledge and ideas among the participating senior managers on some of the matters pertaining to their managerial functions.

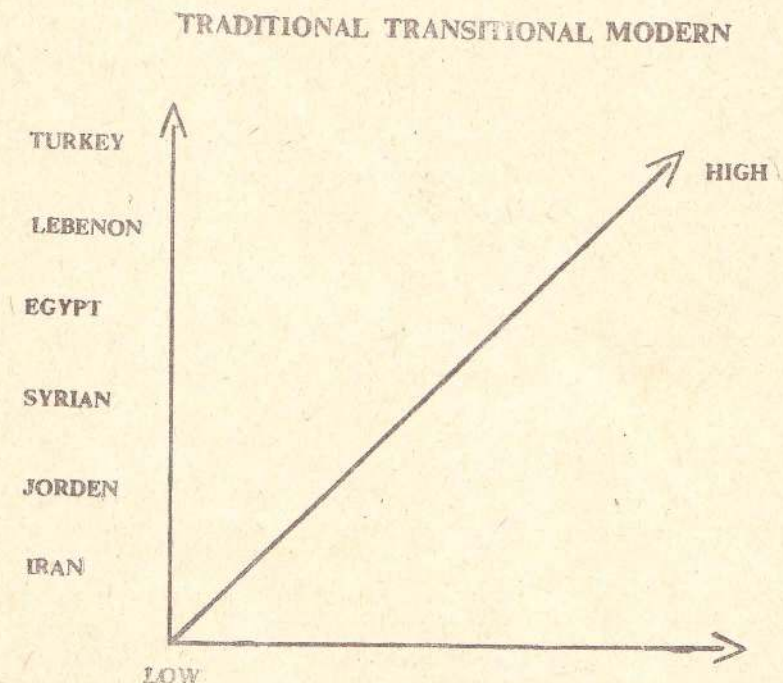
Models of Modernization — II*

ABAYA JAYASUNDERA

IN order to conceptualize Lerner's model fully I propose to deal with his own research in the Middle Eastern countries. My objective in this approach is to examine the relevance of this model to understanding and examining the modernization process in the third world countries.

To relate this model to Middle Eastern society and determine relative positions of Middle Eastern individuals and countries on a common scale of modernization, Lerner has put forward three hypotheses from which he derives the categories of "more modern," in which more people have gone further in transforming their traditional way of life, "more dynamic" which is applied to country X when modernization is occurring at a faster rate than in country Y, and lastly, "more stable" which defines the country where class cleavages are less salient and thus where modernization is likely to proceed without violent demonstrations of personnel and policy.

Lerner diagrams the position of his six Middle Eastern countries on the modernization scale as indicated by the data collected in 1950-51.



These concepts and the model are best further examined in the light of the case studies. These case studies show the distinctive features of each Middle Eastern country. Lerner discusses that aspect of modernization for each country which illustrates the salient problems

*This article is a continuation of the "Models of Modernization—1" in Vol. III Nos. 1 & 2, May 1973, of this Journal.

at the time of the survey with an emphasis on the environment which surrounds the inhabitants of each country.

The most highly modernized and so the first on the list, is Turkey. Turkey is not yet Modern by Lerner's statistical definition but no longer a Traditional society. It falls in the category of Transitional since, in 1950, over 10% of the population was living in cities of over 50,000 population. The Moslem institution has been separated from the secular state. A president governs in place of the Sultan, supported by a constitution. Traditional clothing has been replaced by skirts and trousers and the antique Arab orthography by the simple western script. When Attaturk came to power, he aimed at reshaping the traditional society, beginning with elite and then with the mass, his model being the modern West. He set out firstly to promote mass literacy; ordering that schools be built by the villagers and building Halk-euleri (People's Houses) and equipping them with radios to transmit the new republican mystique.

Turkey, unlike Egypt, has a favourable land-man ratio which meant that individuals were not forced off the land to flood into cities which could not support them. Rather than having to attempt to control a vast movement to the cities Attaturk's task was to stimulate systematic urbanization. A capital was set up by systematic demography. Occupational shifts, together with a rise in per capita income distribution, corresponded with urban growth.

Still a large proportion of Turkey's population come under the category of "Traditionals"-especially in the East. The questionnaire showed them to be non-participants and as lacking empathy, together with a feeling of dependence on authority.

The transitionals form about 30% of the population; these are people with aspirations for a future which will be better than the past but have not yet acquired a comprehensive set of new values to replace the old. Some experience a conflict of values and most are dissatisfied with their present economic situation.

The "moderns" about 10% of the population, provided the 'elite' which shaped the past and provides the model for the future. They are urban, educated and mostly well-off. From this category come government personnel and most of the private entrepreneurs.

Lerner classes Turkey as a dynamic and stable society, in that change is occurring, but in a proportioned and balanced way. Of special significance for the stability of Turkey says Lerner, is the fact that the modernized elite are well attuned to the rising and spreading aspirations of the Transitionals. (1958, p. 166).

The second case study is of Lebanon defined by Lerner as the most modern Arab land due largely to its history of influence from abroad; its being entrepot is of special significance here. Christianity and Westernization grew together in Lebanon, with the Christians introducing schools and the printing press.

Land pressure caused early migration to the cities which developed sufficiently for balanced urbanization to take place. In rural Lebanon Lerner describes the changing role of the young men who through their literacy and knowledge of the Modern world, earned respect formerly accorded to the village elders.

The role of the media and especially American films is evident. Modern Lebanese women reject their traditional role of second-class citizens.

Lerner revisited Lebanon in 1958 and found modernization being inhibited by tensions arising from Egypto-Syrian "encirclement." He suggests that the call of Arab nationalism would likely be heard above the claims of Lebanese nationality.

Lerner's third case study is entitled "Egypt ; The Vicious Circle". This title refers to the vicious circle of 'poverty caused by a birth-rate which rapidly engulfs gains of modern techniques combined with the lack of urban development to adequately absorb the masses who have been forced from the land and who now form a "floating population" in the major urban areas. Unlike the stable picture of Turkey, Egypt shows great bulges at the upper and lower levels of society. Almost as many men are employed in the bureaucracy and professions as in the whole industrial sector-forming serious anti-growth mechanism.

Lerner speaks of the "Nasser Syndrome" which is the attempted fusion of class and national symbols. The survey however indicated that workers, a small but slowly growing and increasingly influential sector, did not see the creation of nationalist sentiment as the greatest need facing Egypt but rather social reform. The urban worker quickly learns the thoughtways of the consumer but dissatisfaction arises at the discrepancy between desires and resources. Nasser has attempted, through the mass media to achieve national consensus but this is difficult in a country where 90% of the population over 7 years of age is illiterate. Lerner asks how long can personal charisma hold such a society together.

In Syria the fourth case study the circularity is neither as deep nor as comprehensive as in Egypt but is composed of an under-developed economy and an under-participant population. Industrial development is hampered by a lack of natural resources and skilled labour and the slow rate of capital formation. The majority of the population lives at subsistence level and poor cultivation methods, together with the system of tenancy, restrict the productiveness of agriculture and force migration to the under-developed cities where as in Egypt they remained unabsorbed.

Media development is hampered by poverty and illiteracy.

As in Egypt, young intellectuals find themselves frustrated and as such constitute the core of an articulate new class which challenges the traditional institutions but lacks the scope to develop more satisfying and participatory ways. These intellectuals provide the backbone of Communist organization and a counter-elite.

Political instability says Lerner, marked the decade previous to the survey and he attributes much of it to the fact that a quick reform of Syria was attempted without regard to historical sequences, thus further upsetting stability.

The fifth case study is Jordan ; a country in the dilemma of sudden nationhood and disruption resulting from the joining of two vastly different peoples. After the defeat by Israel, a more numerous and more "modern" Palestinian population superimposed upon

traditional Jordanians. Before partition, 30-40% of the 1.3. million Palestinians Arabs were urbanized. Jordan gave the refugees citizenship but was unable to provide an economic basis for the re-establishing of the lives of the refugees. This resulted in high unemployment both in the towns and on the land a drop in wage levels and rapid growth of towns. The refugees, used to a more participant life have increased political demands and their discontent has pushed Jordan toward extremism. Popular discontent and growing anti-Easternism have increased the communist movement. Lerner puts the population into four groups ;

1. The Bedouin, totally traditional and uninterested in the world outside their own environment.
2. The village farmers ; transitionals often discontented because of their partial contact through the mass media (mainly radio) with the modern world, and their inability to participate in it.
3. The town entrepreneurs ; shopkeepers and government clerks. They rank high in Lerner's empathy rating and media consumption levels and he classes them as Moderns.
4. The cosmopolitan elite who exhibit the fully participant life style of modern man.

In the final case study (Iran), Lerner describes the "extremist syndrome" which he sees as having developed among the young intellectuals who as in Egypt have little scope for their talents and feel frustrated and alienated in a society which is 90% illiterate. Lerner notes that this extremist syndrome is the "classic posture of the revolutionary agitation." The extremists of the right aim at national sovereignty and see their means as a unified national movement, while the goals of the extreme left is a classless society, and see class-struggle as the means to this end. Lerner notes however, that the interplayers acquire the trump card—the Iranian mass.

In summing up Lerner notes that this situation is typical of many of the Middle Eastern countries, where the traditional elite is gone or going. Competition is fierce for larger shares in the new distribution of power. Linked with this is the quest for a usable identity—who shall govern and in the name of what. The crux of the matter, says Lerner, has been not whether but *how* one should move from traditional to modern life-styles. Claims of regional, religious and racial identity often clash with interests of the ruling elites. The psychological gap, left by the declining adherence to Islam and failure to create an appropriate new symbolism, widens through time and creates an explosive charge. Lerner sees Egypt's attempted answer to this gap (the Arab-Muslim syndrome as corresponding poorly to observable reality ; a reality which largely hinges on the transitionals who finding their increasing expectancies frustrated they turn to other channels for participation and satisfaction.

To be Continued.

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