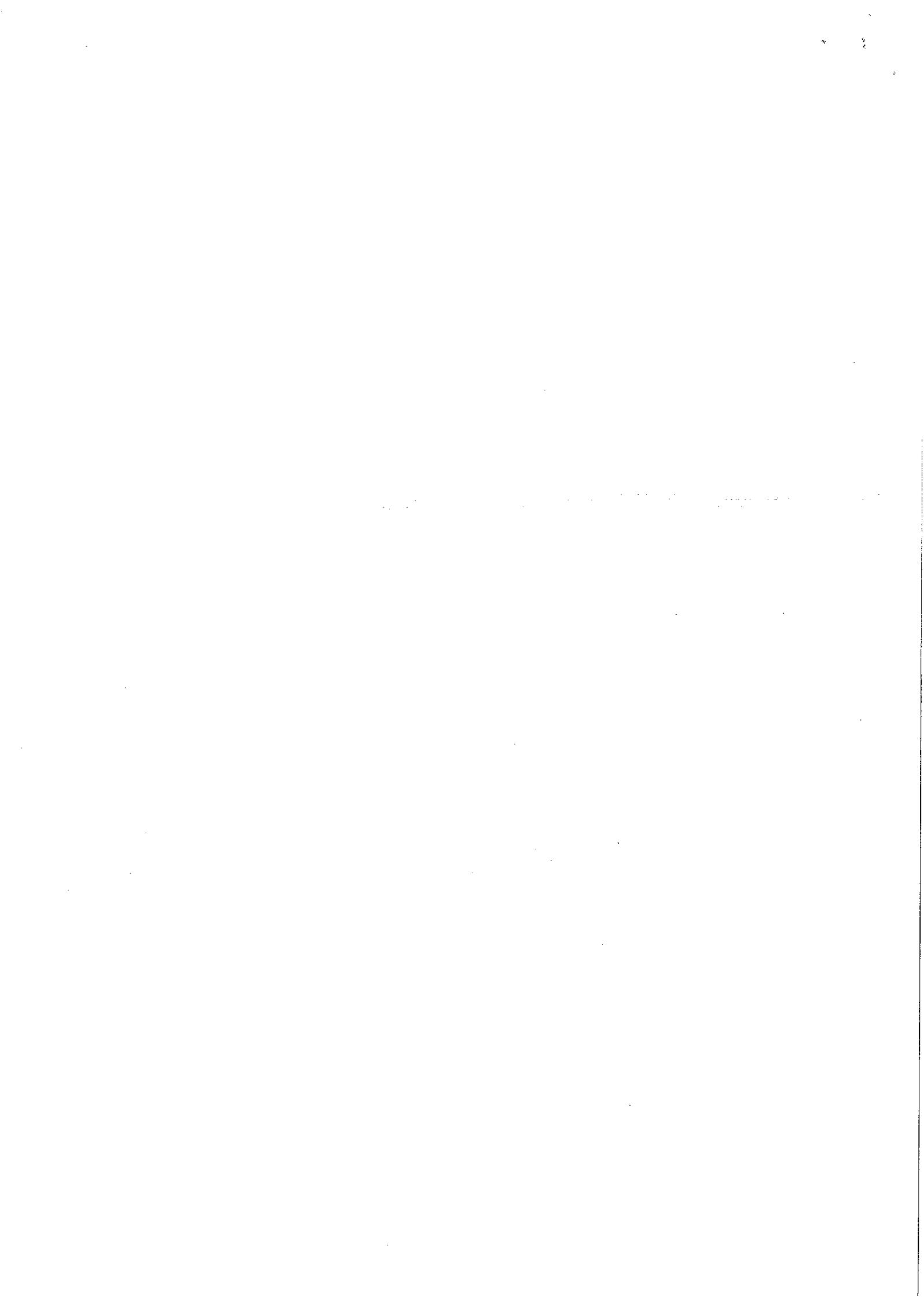


E

EAST INDIA COMPANY It was a merchant company which receives charter from Queen Elizabeth I on the last day of the sixteenth century. One of many East India trading companies supported by European states during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the English East India Company originally aimed mainly at breaking the Dutch monopoly of the spice trade. Military and political manoeuvring culminating in Clive's victory at Plassey in 1757, transforming the trading company into the foremost political power on the Indian subcontinent. The British Crown, henceforth, exercised greater control over to Company affairs. When the Indian troops of the Company revolted in 1857 (in what English historians later called the Sepoy Mutiny, and their Indian counterparts termed the First War of Independence), the British Crown took over from the Company the direct rule of India, August 2, 1858.

E-CITIZEN E-citizen may be defined as a citizen who accesses government and its services, also called public services, online (that is, on internet) and takes interest in the affairs of the state through online channels like e-mail, discussion group, blog and wiki. The distinction between citizen and e-citizen is: - (i) A normal citizen is not very known about his identity whereas e-citizen can be very well known if his behaviour online is tracked for providing him personalised services. (ii) A normal citizen is unclear and complicated about citizen-state relationship whereas for e-citizen citizen-state relationships is evolving. (iii) It is very difficult to provide personalised services to a normal citizen whereas the same can be easily provided to e-citizen. (iv) A normal citizen has indirect role in government policy making and that too through legislators, whereas e-citizen has direct role through online channels of communications. (v) A normal citizen necessarily does not access the internet, whereas it is necessary for e-citizen to access the internet. (vi) A normal citizen uses offline channels like letter, legislators and print media to communicate with the state, whereas e-citizen uses online channels like email, blog, discussion groups, podcast and wiki. (vii) Fundamental rights of a normal citizen are available and justiciable, whereas rights of e-citizen are not available and are evolving. (viii) Fundamental duties of a normal citizen are available and not justiciable whereas, fundamental duties of e-citizen are not available and are in evolving stage. (ix) Right to information is available and



legally enforceable to a normal citizen as well to e-citizen; and (x) Right to e-governance is not available for both normal citizen as well as e-citizen. It should be provided on the lines of right to information.

ECOLOGICAL APPROACH Ecological approach examines interactions between administrative system and environment. It assumes that administrative system is one of the various sub-systems of the society and is influenced by other sub-systems and in turn, also influences them. The ecological approach to public administration was first proposed by John M. Gaus in his *Reflection on Public Administration* in 1947. According to him, the ecology of public administration includes: (1) Place (soils, climate, location) (2) People (their number, ages and knowledge), and (3) The ways of physical and social technology by which the people get their living from the place and in relationships with one another. The other proponents of this approach are: Robert A. Dahl (1947), Rescoe Martin (1952), and F.W. Riggs (1961). But Fred W. Riggs is the foremost exponent of the ecological approach in public administration. Riggs' Sala model is based on this approach.

(See: COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION)

ECOLOGY Ecology is the study of the relationship between living organisms and the environment. Ecology stresses the network of relationships which sustain all forms of life. It seeks to unearth the linkages between nature and living creatures and their healthy perpetuation.

ECONOMETRIC APPROACH Econometric approach to decision making is constructed on the basis of input-output analysis. This approach have become wide spread in United States particularly a basis for separate corporations. L.R. Klein and A.S. Goldberger elaborated econometric model of the United States.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT Economic development is the process of growth in total and per capita income of developing countries accompanied by fundamental changes in their socio-economic structure. Such fundamental changes consist of increasing importance of industrial sector vis-à-vis agricultural sector, migration of labour from rural to urban industrial areas, lessening dependence on imports of sophisticated products and a diminishing reliance on foreign aid and reducing wide gaps between the rich and the poor within a particular country.

ECONOMIC GROWTH Economic 'growth' and 'development' seem to be synonymous and are often used interchangeably in economic literature. But technically they are not identical. Economic growth can be defined as an increase in real GDP occurring over a period of time. The four factors that contribute to growth are: (i) Human resources (labour, education, motivation); (ii) National resources (land, minerals, fuels); (iii) Capital formation (machines, factories, roads); (iv) Technology (science, engineering, entrepreneurship).

ECONOMIC LIBERALISM Economic liberalism is a theory of political economy associated with the writing of Adam Smith and thinkers of the 19th century who advocated free market. The implication was that the government should confine itself to a minimum of tasks and roles within society. As an international theory, it is particularly associated with the advocacy of free trade and what is now called *complex interdependence*.
(See: LIBERALISM)

ECONOMIC MAN An economic man is defined as an individual who maximises his economic gain by rationally computing all possible outcomes. The economic man is an abstract concept, being the economists image of man whose motivation solely depends on rational, financial rewards and punishments. The economic man is not bothered about group norms. This being is now replaced by the administrative man.
(See: ADMINISTRATIVE MAN)

ECONOMIC REFORMS The limiting role of the public sector, removing unnecessary restrictions on private sector, facilitating inflow of foreign capital, incorporating desired changes in trade policy etc. are together known as 'Economic Reforms'. The basic objective of economic reforms is to create conditions for rapid economic growth with price stability under environment of improved efficiency and increased productivity generated by domestic as well as international competition.

Economic Reforms were introduced in 1991 in India. First Generation Reforms were aimed at stabilisation of Indian economy and were macrolevel in nature. It includes liberalisation and deregulation of industry, financial sector reforms, taxation reforms, etc. Second Generation Reforms aimed at structural changes and are microlevel in nature. It will include labour reforms, land reforms, capital market reform, expenditure reforms and power reforms, etc.

ECONOMIC REFORMS COMMISSION The Economic Reforms Commission (1981-84) was established by the Government of India in March 1981, with L. K. Jha as Chairman. The main functions assigned to the Commission were a study of the important areas of economic administration with a view to suggesting various reforms to streamline the functioning of the system. The Commission submitted a number of reports to the Government of India, which advocated the rationalisation and modernisation of the economic administrative system and paved the way for a new economic order.

ECONOMIC THEORY OF BUREAUCRACY Economic theory of bureaucracy assumes that state organisations behave as budget maximisers. Larger budgets enable them to satisfy their preferences for salaries, promotions, job security and such non-pecuniary advantages as power, prestige and opportunities to allocate contracts.

E **ECONOMIC THEORY OF MOTIVATION** Monistic or Economic theory is based upon the notion that people feel highly motivated when rewarded with more money. F. W. Taylor, the father of scientific management, believed that people would work harder if paid more money. Even today, financial incentives can add a great deal to the efficiency of personnel. In order to encourage employees, different incentive plans have been designed, e.g. Taylor's Differential Piece Rate Plan, Gantt Bonus Plan, Halsey Plan, Emerson Efficiency Plan, Rowan Plan. (See: DIFFERENTIAL PIECE RATE PLAN, GANTT TASK AND BONUS PLAN, HALSEY BONUS PLAN)

ECONOMICS Economics is a social science which studies human activities relating to wealth or material welfare. It specialises in the study of satisfying wants. The relation of Public Administration and Economics has been very close. The classical example of economics coming to the aid of public administration was advocacy of J. M. Keynes. He suggested that government should deliberately deploy the instruments of fiscal and monetary policy to stimulate or restrain demand to absorb the available labour or control inflation. The modern science of Economics developed in large measure out of the earlier study of how to provide revenue for the State. This was reflected in the old nomenclature of the subject which was called Political Economy.

EDWARD WEIDNER Edward Weidner is the foremost advocate of development administration for the post-colonial third world countries. He worked in the universities of Chicago and Michigan. He wrote many books and several articles on development administration. His important works are: (i) *Development Administration—A New Focus for Research* (1962), (ii) *Technical Assistance in Public Administration Overseas—The Case for Development Administration* (1964), (iii) *Development Administration in Asia* (1970), (iv) *The Elements of Development Administration*. These works have made Weidner a distinguished pioneer in the field of development administration. His research articles have gained much popularity with the students of development administration.

EFFECTIVENESS Effectiveness is the extent to which an objective or goal is achieved. It is the ratio of relevant input to total output, the emphasis being on 'relevant'. If an organisation has successfully achieved its objectives, it is considered effective. Effectiveness is thus a matter of comparing results with intentions. Bribe-giving is not an ingredient of efficiency but may be an effective input in getting the work done in many countries.

Effectiveness should not be confused with efficiency which refers to the process by which the organisation maximises its objectives with the minimum use of resources. An organisation can be effective without being efficient. It may achieve its goals without utilising the resources very efficiently.

EFFICIENCY It is the ratio of total output to input. An avid advocate of efficiency was Frederick Winslow Taylor, acclaimed as the father of scientific management. This was also the chief goal of the classical theory of organisation. That this is not wholly true was shown by Elton Mayo and his colleagues in the famous Hawthorne experiments in the 1930s. This concept was frontally attacked by new public administration. Today, the dominant objective in public administration is the pursuit of the three Es—efficiency, effectiveness and economy.

EFFICIENCY BAR The principle of efficiency bar is that on reaching a certain point of the salary scale, an officer should be certified as competent to carry out the highest duties of his grade before further increments are granted. It is different from the power of the head of the department to withhold the ordinary increments. Stoppage of ordinary increments is in the nature of the condemnation of the work of the employees, while the application of the efficiency bar is intended to judge the competence of the employee for the higher kind of work.

EFFICIENCY RATING SYSTEM It is a highly mechanical method of assessing the qualities of public employees for recruitment. This method was devised during the scientific management movement in the USA. Efficiency rating is based on two factors: (a) the scientific classification of all government positions and (b) the mechanical evaluation of all the traits of human character and personality. It aims at assessing these different traits of human character with a numerical accuracy. Americans have succeeded in measuring the average efficiency of their civil service in exact number.

EGALITARIANISM Egalitarianism is the doctrine that all citizens of a state should be accorded exactly equal rights and privileges. Egalitarianism means that all political rights should be the same for the adult human beings. This is the minimum definition of egalitarianism, and is accepted in theory, and usually in practice, in most Western democracies and many other types of state.

EGOISM Egoism is an ethical standard that places highest value on behaviour that is pleasurable and rewarding to the individual. It depicts maximum personal benefits. Administrative egoism means that bureaucrats prefer self interest to public interest. On the other hand, *altruism* is an ethical standard, that places highest value on behaviour that is pleasurable and rewarding to society. It depicts maximum social benefits.

E-GOVERNANCE E-Governance or Electronic Governance implies a smoother interface between government and citizen with the help of information technology. While E-Governance can't entirely replace manual governance, even its limited applications are good enough to affect day to day living. E-Governance can reduce distances to nothing, linking remote village to government offices in cities. E-Governance can reduce staff, cut costs, check leaks in the governing system.

E-GOVERNMENT E-government involves the transformation of government functions from a paper-based to an electronic environment. In most countries, government has played a major role in the promotion of e-commerce and has sought to lead the way by example. The move to e-government has involved the transformation from a model of industrialised government (centralised, bureaucratised, paperbased, impersonal, rule-based, and organised into departments) to that of an information based government (decentralised, digital, personalised, client focussed, interconnected, and organised in new ways).

ELECTION An election is a method of choosing among candidates for some post or office, and elections have become the only fully respectable method for selecting political leaders throughout the world. Election can be carried out by a wide variety of techniques. Votes can be given to individuals, as in most national elections, to collective to institutional units (for example trade union branches). The voting procedure may be secret, public or even recorded and published, as in many legislative assemblies. Votes may be counted according to any one of a dozen or more methods ranging from varieties of pure proportional representation to the simplest first-past-the-post plurality system.

ELECTION COMMISSION OF INDIA It is a statutory body established under Article 324 of the Constitution. The election commission is made responsible for holding elections to the Parliament, state legislatures and offices of the President and Vice-President. A multi-member body, the election commission is vested with the responsibility of superintending, directing and controlling the preparation of electoral rolls. It consists of a Chief Election Commissioner and such number of other election commissioners as the President may fix from time to time. The Chief Election Commissioner enjoys stability of tenure and his conditions of service cannot be varied to his disadvantage after his appointment. The Election Commission has the power to disqualify a person on the grounds that he has failed to lodge an account of his election expenses.

ELECTORAL COLLEGE An electoral college is a group of people who have been specially appointed, nominated or elected in order that they should hold an election for a political office. It thus constitutes a way of making election to some significant position of power indirect rather than direct. The most important example of a modern electoral college is perhaps that which elects the American president. Lists of electors tied to particular presidential and vice-presidential candidature appear on the ballot paper, and once the votes have been counted the list with the most votes on a simple plurality basis takes all that state's electoral college votes. The candidates with a majority in the electoral college become President and Vice-President respectively. If no candidate has an overall majority in the electoral college the House of Representatives then votes, by state, to determine who is to become president, and the Senate, voting as individuals, elects the Vice-President. Similarly the President of India is also elected by an electoral college.

ELITE THEORY Elite theory advocates that public policy reflects the preferences of governing elites, not public. Actually, the people as a whole do not have adequate knowledge about what goes on in government. They are led and manipulated by the elites. Public policies do not, therefore, arise out of the demands of the masses. These flow from the top and do not move up from the bottom. The classical expression of elite theory can be found in C. Wright Mill's *The Power Elite*. The elite theory has close resemblance with the *group theory*, as both refer to policy generation through pressures from specific interests in the society. Group theory, however, is basically pluralistic, whereas elite theory is essentially monistic. David Beetham, Robert Michels, Vilfredo Pareto, Gaetano Mosca, C. Wright Mills, Floyd Hunter, James Burnham, Robert D. Putnam, etc are proponents of elite theory.

(See: GROUP THEORY)

EMANCIPATION Emancipation means to set free a class of people or a person from the control of another usually when such a control has a legal sanction behind it. Such laws have been abolished which had permitted human beings to be the property of another for example in USA for slaves and in Russia for serfs. The emancipation of women means the abolition of such legal, social or moral bonds which bind them to the authority of fathers, husbands, brothers or lovers.

EMBEZZLEMENT Embezzlement is the fraudulent appropriation of money or property that has been entrusted to another person's care. For example, the taking of money from a bank by an employee or trustee with concealment of this act by the falsification of accounting records.

EMERGENCY POWERS Emergency powers are special powers granted to a government or executive agency which allow normal legislative procedures and/or judicial remedies to be by-passed or suspended. In democracies such emergency powers are usually strictly controlled by the legislature and are permitted only for the duration of the emergency.

The Indian constitution elaborate emergency provisions to enable the President to meet any extraordinary situation effectively. The rationality is to safeguard the sovereignty, unity, integrity and security of the country, the democratic political system and the constitution. The constitution envisages three types of emergencies, namely: (i) National emergency on the ground of war or external aggression or armed rebellion (Article 352); (ii) State emergency (President's rule) on the ground of failure of constitutional machinery in the states (Article 356) or failure to comply with the directions of the centre (Article 365); (iii) Financial emergency on the ground of threat to the financial stability or credit of India (Article 360). During the emergency, the central government becomes all-powerful and the states go into the total control of the centre. It converts the federal structure into a unitary one without a formal amendment of the constitution. This kind of transformation of the political system from federal (during normal times) to unitary (during emergency) is a unique feature of the Indian constitution.

EMERSON, H Harrington Emerson (1853–1931) emphasised the *great productivity of correct organisation* and propounded twelve principles of efficiency. His popular books are *Efficiency* and *The Twelve Principles of Efficiency*. He preferred to call his system as efficiency system rather than scientific management. The twelve principles are—(i) Clearly define objectives, (ii) Common sense, (iii) Competent consultation, (iv) Discipline, (v) Fair deal, (vi) Reliable, immediate and adequate records, (vii) Despatching, (viii) Standard and schedules, (ix) Standard conditions, (x) Standard operations, (xi) Written standard practice instructions, (xii) Efficiency rewards

EMINENT DOMAIN Eminent domain refers to the power of the government to take private property for public use, including instances where the owner of the property does not willingly consent to the transfer of the property to the government.

EMOLUMENTS A term used to refer to the total benefits received by an employee. In addition to money paid as salary it includes goods or services acquired as benefits in kind, e.g. private use of a company car, subsidised accommodation and free entertainment.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE Emotions are intense feelings that are directed at some one or something. Emotions are reactions to an object, not a trait. They are object-specific. Emotional Intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and others emotions. It is the ability to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately. It is the ability to reduce gap between felt and displayed emotions. Emotional Intelligence is positively related to job performance at all levels. But it appears to be especially relevant in jobs that demands a high degree of social interaction. Emotional Intelligence is an essential element in leadership effectiveness. Great leaders demonstrate their Emotional Intelligence by exhibiting all five of its key components: (i) *Self-awareness*: Exhibited by self-confidence, realistic self-assessment, and a self-depreciating sense of humour. (ii) *Self-Management*: Exhibited by trustworthiness and integrity, comfort with ambiguity, and openness to change. (iii) *Self-motivation*: Exhibited by a strong drive to achieve, optimism, and high organisational commitment. (iv) *Empathy*: Exhibited by expertise in building and retaining talent, cross-cultural sensitivity and service to clients and customers. (v) *Social Skills*: Exhibited by the ability to lead change, persuasiveness, and expertise in building and leading teams.

EMPATHY *Empathy* means the ability to put oneself in another's place and see things from that person's point of view. This involves being a listener rather than a talker. Empathy can reduce many of the barriers to effective communication. Empathy is an important way to deal with more subtle problems because it helps the manager understand the diverse employee's point of view.

A successful leader needs to have a high degree of understanding of the aspirations and ideas of his followers. The effective leader understands the stated

and unstated needs of the led and knows how to satisfy those needs. Empathy not only facilitates communication but also enables the leader to find successful ways of influencing people.

EMPIRICAL METHOD Empirical method is a method which is based on experiments or experience rather than on ideas or theories. The empirical investigation of existing administrative phenomena and processes form an important part of administrative study. This involves a study of the prevailing administrative concept as well as of the groups and organisations seeking for power and influence in society. Empirical method concentrates on what public administration 'is', that is, it describes and analyses 'actual' administrative situations. The new scientific attitude towards the government has led to greater use of the empirical method, observing human institutions and processes in order to discover fundamental administrative principles.

EMPOWERMENT The concept of empowerment has become popular since the 1970s when public administration began to be called upon to be responsive to service users. Empowerment seeks restructuring of the government to enable common men and women to exercise greater influence over matter of concern to them. A true test of empowerment is whether the clients command a real say in matters of concern to them. A tool to promote responsiveness in public administration is the citizens' charter introduced both in Britain and India in the 1990s. It implies 'people's participation' in administration.

ENTERPRISE STRATEGY Enterprise strategy (E-Strategy for short) is a statement of values and principles that explains why an organisation does what it does. Peter Drucker is associated with this concept.

ENTERPRISE ZONES Enterprise zones were first advanced in the United States by both President Ronald Reagan and President George W. Bush. Enterprise zones were federal experiments with urban economic renewal and revitalisation, treating partnerships between state, local, and federal governments. Proponents of enterprise zones believed that creating zones with less government interference and increased economic incentives would encourage businesses to relocate to or expand in these zones. To that end, companies in enterprise zones could avail themselves of an array of incentives, including business property depreciation, employer tax credits for new hires, and lower corporate tax rates. Municipalities had to deregulate and provide an array of incentives, including, for instance, relaxing or even waiving zoning rules and building codes, exempting state utility taxes, and providing an array of tax abatements from an array of taxing districts.

ENTREPRENEUR Entrepreneur is a person who is skilled at identifying products or sometimes new methods of production, setting up operations to provide new products, marketing the products and arranging the financing of the operations. Entrepreneur is also a person who risks his or her judgment—and

often capital—in a search for profit from new business opportunities. Such a person is considered to have a high need for achievement.

ENTREPRENEURIAL GOVERNMENT The present society is in a state of flux. Information technology and process of privatisation, liberalisation and globalisation revolutionising the society. The society that is emerging finds itself embroiled in global competition. Traditional model of government is utterly unsuitable for such an age. To replace this model of government, various alternatives are being discovered, one of them being the 'entrepreneurial government' or 'public entrepreneurship' developed by David Osborn and Ted Gaebler. They suggest a ten point programme for what they call "Entrepreneurial Governments (EGs)": (i) EGs promote competition between diverse providers of goods and services; (ii) they empower citizens by pushing control out of bureaucracy; (iii) they measure performance of their agencies focusing particularly on outcomes, not inputs; (iv) they are driven by their missions and not by their rules and regulations; (v) they redefine their clients as customers and offer them choices; (vi) they prevent problems rather than cure them after they blow out; (vii) they put their energy into earning money, not simply spending it; (viii) they decentralise authority, embracing participatory management; (ix) they prefer market mechanisms to bureaucratic mechanisms; (x) they focus not simply on providing public service, but on catalysing all sectors—public, private, voluntary—into action to solve community problems.

These features of Entrepreneurial Government yield multi-faceted government system with the characteristics such as: Catalytic Government, Community-owned government, Competitive government, Customer-driven government, Mission driven government, Market-oriented government, Results-oriented government, Decentralised government.

ENTROPY Norbert Weiner says that the organisations have a natural tendency towards disorder and disintegration. Entropy is a measure of the tendency of a system to disintegrate. Since entropy has a natural tendency to increase, it has to be fought back by methodical information processing which is the hallmark of organisation. Information is an antidote to entropy. In a developed system, information is used to collect and transform resources so that the system approaches a state of "negative entropy." The natural tendency of the system to disintegrate is thus arrested. Thus Norbert Weiner's theme is that effective communication helps moving organisation in order and integration, i.e. negative entropy.

(See NORBERT WEINER)

ENVIRONMENT Environment, in organisational sense, can be considered as the immediate 'operating environment' of an organisation which would refer to the set of conditions outside the organisation that have a direct impact on the day-to-day functioning of the organisation. The basic designs of organisations seem

to have been critically affected by two inter-related dimensions of the environment:

- (a) the environment's relative stability versus its instability; and
- (b) the environment's relative simplicity versus its complexity.

ENVIRONMENTAL APPROACH Tom Burns and G.M. Stalker in the mid-1960s developed an approach to organisational design that incorporates the organisational environment into design consideration. This is known as the *environmental approach*. Burns and Stalker distinguished between organisational systems: mechanistic and organic. They concluded that the mechanistic system was best suitable to a stable environment, whereas organic systems were best suited to a turbulent one. Organisations in changing environments would probably use some combination of the two systems.

(See: MECHANISTIC ORGANISATION, ORGANIC ORGANISATION)

ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING Many organisations use a technique known as *environmental scanning* to stay in touch with development. This technique provides firms with an opportunity to look at external trends in business and society in general, to assess the impact of these trends on the industry or profession, and to view the firm's position as part of an interconnected business ecosystem.

EQUAL PROTECTION Equal protection is a term which describes the idea that the legal system should protect all citizens from arbitrary discrimination and guarantee them equal rights.

EQUALITY The term 'equality' means the absence of special privileges to any section of the society, and the provision of adequate opportunities for all individuals without any discrimination. There are three dimensions of equality-civic, political and economic. Indian constitution secures to all citizens of India equality of status and opportunity.

EQUI-GENETIC A prismatic society faces pressure for change from external sources as well as from internal ones. If change is caused primarily by external pressure (as under technical assistance programmes), it may be called 'exogenous' change. Conversely, change that is stimulated predominantly through internal processes is 'endogenous'. When both types of pressures for change are relatively equal in strength, the change they produce is 'equi-genetic'.

(See: PRISMATIC SOCIETY)

EQUITY Equity means the principles of fairness and justice. Equity is greater than justice, since it "results from the combination of kindness and justice". When the law is silent and does not provide any relief, equity is applied to administer justice. In adjudicating a case the judge sometimes may feel that the written law is not enough, and hence he may mete out justice according to humanity, equity and moral tenets of society. The word 'equity' also refers to the owned funds of a company.

EQUITY THEORY Equity theory is the theory of human motivation. According to this theory, an employee relates his own input/output ratio to that of some other person or persons with whom he compares himself. Equity theory proposed by J. Stacy Adam, is based on the assumption that individuals are motivated by their desire to be equitably treated in their work relationship. In most organisations, a few staff members surround the top management and develop cliques. These individuals get undue favours, both financial and non-financial, without merit, skill or hard work. Such an atmosphere lowers the motivation of real workers to perform their work efficiently. This theory is also known as *inequity theory* or *social comparison theory* or *social referent theory*.

(See: REFERENCE RATIO)

ERG THEORY ERG theory is the theory of motivation. ERG theory is associated with C.P. Alderfer who amalgamated Maslow's five basic needs into three: *Existence* (physiological), *Relatedness* (importance of inter personal, social relationship) and *Growth* (personal development) needs. He, unlike Maslow and Herzberg, conceives these needs along a continuum and thus accepts that different types of needs can operate simultaneously. Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggested a process called satisfaction-progression, in which a person moves up the hierarchy after a lower order need is satisfied. Alderfer's approach may be termed *frustration-regression*. When higher order growth needs are not satisfied, the individual is inclined to regress back to lower order needs.

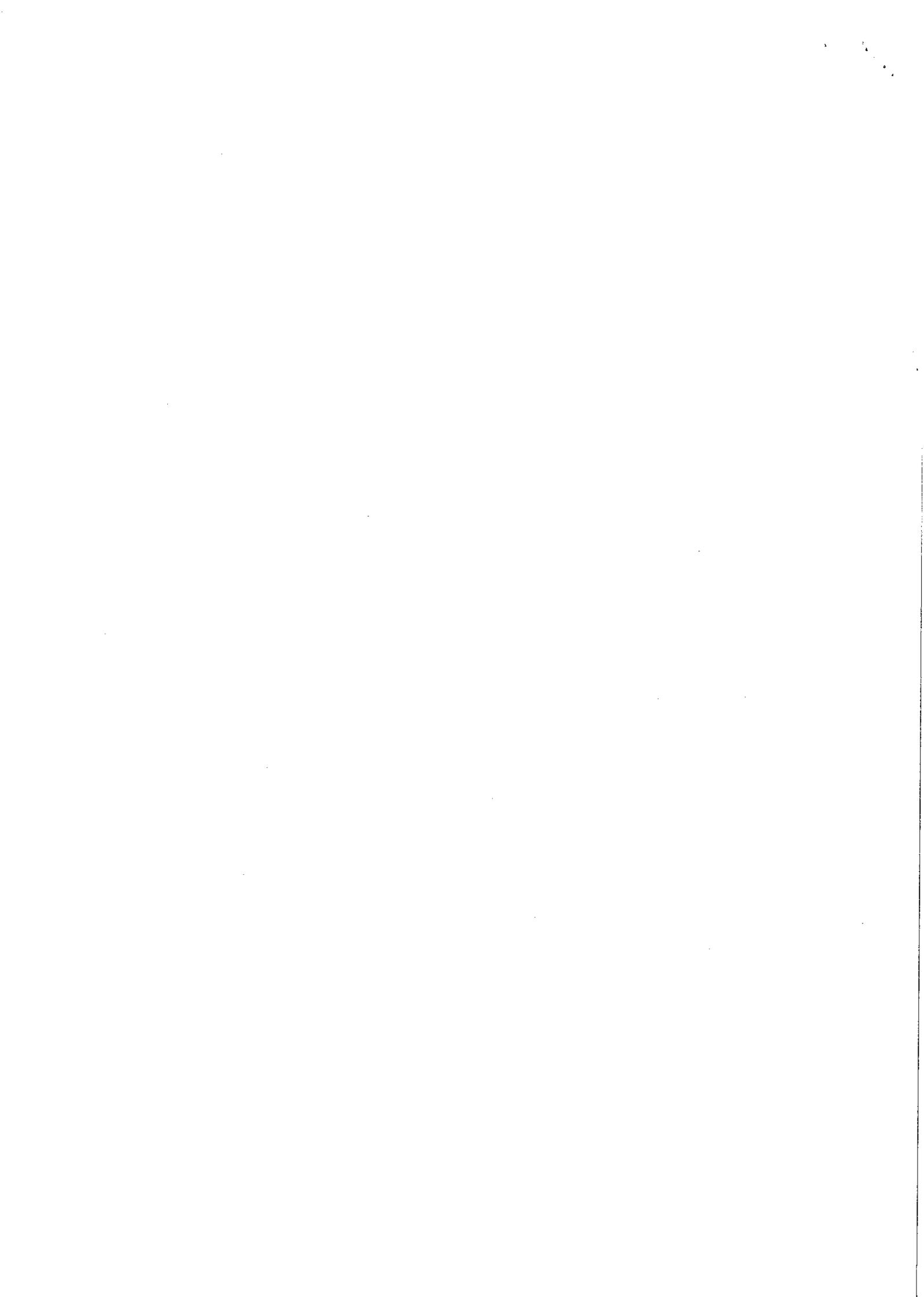
(See: CONTENT THEORIES)

ERGONOMICS It is the study of the interaction between people and the environment in which they work, and in particular their relationship to machines and equipment. It tries to raise and maximise the output of each worker by the introduction of proper design of machines and an ideal layout for the factories. It draws most heavily on psychology as well as on anatomy and physiology. The field owes a great deal to the early twentieth century pioneers like Frank Gilberth and F. W. Taylor.

(See: FATIGUE, INCENTIVE)

ESPRIT DE CORPS It rests on the adage "union is strength". It is also an extension of the principle of unity of command whereby teamwork is ensured. It is a great source of strength in an organisation. To maintain proper esprit de corps in the enterprise, organisational politics and abuse of written communication are to be guarded against. It is one of the fourteen principles of administration advocated by Fayol.

ESTABLISHMENT The alleged unofficial club of British elites who work to support the status quo and keep themselves in power was known as establishment. Now it has come to mean the administrative and executive machinery.



SUN-SET LEGISLATION Sun-set legislation is a law which contains within itself an expiry date, thus, of programmes and agencies created by that law, after a set period of time. Sun-set legislation necessitates periodic evaluation (including re-valuation) of laws that set up agencies and programmes to determine whether their continuance is justified. It ensures automatic dissolution of programmes and agencies after a fixed period of time unless re-authorised by an affirmative legislation.

Sun-set legislation began to be recommended since the 1975 in the USA although the idea of the sun-set law was born under the presidency of Franklin D. Roosevelt. Sun-set law is an action-forcing mechanism to increase executive accountability through effective evaluation of agencies and programmes by both the executive and the legislature. A typical sun-set law fixes a time-table for review of a programme, law or agency. It contains the ultimate threat of terminating the programme, law or agency. It forces programme evaluation. Sun-set legislation relates to zero base budgeting.

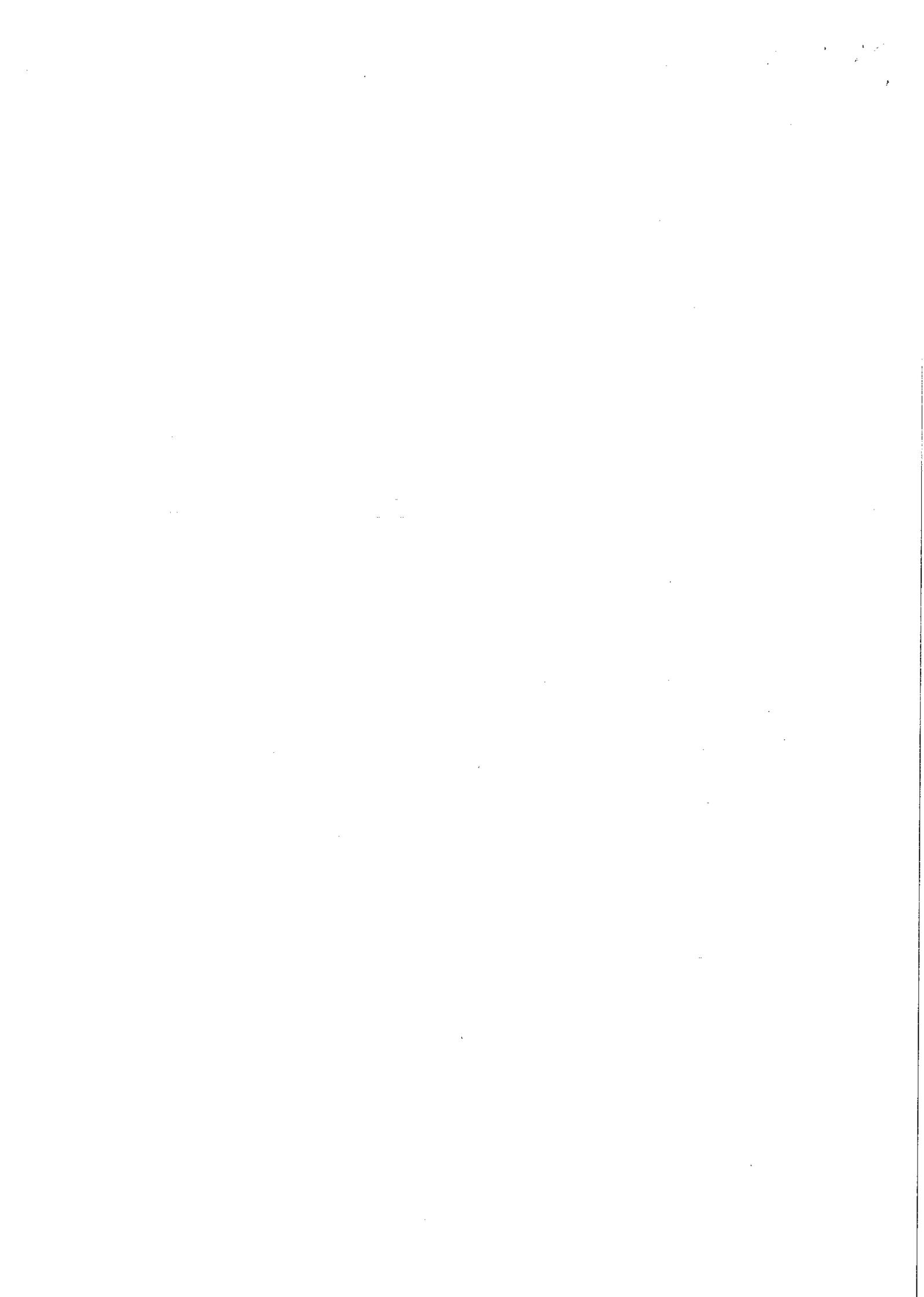
(See: ZERO BASE BUDGETING)

SUPERANNUATION Superannuation is the pension or retirement benefits one gets after retirement usually from the employer. Superannuation age is the age at which a government servant retires. It is presently 60 years in India.

SUPERVISION Supervision is composed of two words "super" and "vision", meaning "Superior power of perceiving". It means overseeing or superintending the work of others. Supervision is defined as "the direction, accompanied by authority, of the work of others". Supervision is more than inspection and investigation. Inspection and investigation are merely parts of the process of supervision. Supervision is more than "superintendence" as an administrative task. It has an educative aspect too. According to Millet, supervision has two primary purposes: (i) To achieve coordination among the component parts of an agency; (ii) To ensure that each unit of an agency accomplishes the task each has been assigned.

SUPERVISOR Supervisor is a person who supervised the work of other, although a supervisor, like a foreman, is usually regarded as being on the first level of line management in the hierarchy of an organisation. The position of a supervisor is a central one in any organisation. The workers experience management, primarily through the supervisor who is their immediate superior. He inducts, trains, instructs, compliments and rewards his workers. He maintains daily and intimate contacts with them. It is through him that management makes contact with workers on a daily basis. He conveys to workers decisions, views and problems of the management.

SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT Supply chain management seeks to optimise the links between suppliers, manufacturing, distribution and customers. A supply chain is a network of facilities and distribution options that performs



the functions of procurement of materials, transformation of these materials into intermediate and finished products, and the distribution of these finished products to customers. Thus it is an organisation's efforts to organise and control its global sourcing.

SUPPORTIVE RELATIONSHIPS Likert postulates the principle of 'supportive relationships' as an organising concept. He has developed this principle on the basis of his assessment of managers of high performance categories. He maintains that the effective supervisor is one who can create a situation in which each member of his groups feels that his relationships with others are 'supportive', that is, that they satisfy his needs as well as those of other. The principle of supportive relationships would enable each member to see the mission of the organisation as important, and his role as difficult, important and meaningful. This principle serves the best interests of both the employees and the organisation.

SURVEY FEEDBACK APPROACH One tool for assessing attitudes held by organizational members, identifying discrepancies among member perceptions, and solving these differences is the survey feedback approach. There is use of questionnaires to identify discrepancies among member perceptions; discussion follows and remedies are suggested. Survey feedback is one of the techniques of organization development. Everyone in an organisation can participate in survey feedback, but of key importance is the organisational family—the manager of any given unit and the employees who report directly to him or her.

(See: ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT)

SUSPENSIVE VETO A veto is suspensive when the executive veto can be overridden by the legislature by an ordinary majority. To this type belongs the veto power of the French president. If, upon a reconsideration parliament passes the bill again by a simple majority, the President has no option but to promulgate it. Indian President has power to suspensive veto except in case of money bill.

(See: VETO)

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT Sustainable development is the development that meets the needs of present generation without eroding the prospects of the future generation. It does not interfere with the capacity of ecosystem for renewal and regeneration. Sustainable development, thus, is one in which resources are extracted but not exhausted.

SWOT ANALYSIS A strategy, plan, or mission for the future begins with an assessment of the current situation in which the organisation finds itself. A systematic, thorough analysis requires attention to four things: internal strengths and weakness, and external opportunities and threats. Such an analysis is often referred to as SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats). Historically, the SWOT analysis has provided managers with useful signals for strategic change.

SYNDICATE METHOD It is a method of training which involves assignment of study project to a small group of three to five trainees. The group (syndicate) is required to make an in-depth study of that subject under the guidance of the faculty members. Thus, it is a participative technique of training. It was originated at the Administrative Staff College, Henley of UK.

SYNECTICS Synectics is a creative group decision making technique developed by William J.J. Gordon in 1944. He formed technique synetics, a word of Greek derivation which means fitting together differently distinct, novel and irrelevant ideas. Its purpose is to increase the creative output of individuals and groups. The synetics process involves: (a) making the *strange* familiar, and (b) making the *familiar* strange. Synetics is not so well known as *brainstorming* but it is much more adaptable to complex decisional problems. Similar to brainstorming, it is also very time consuming and expensive. Overall, synetics seems to have potentially a great deal to offer and might be able to help making basic or risk-uncertainty decisions, that require creative solutions.

(See: BRAINSTORMING)

SYNERGY Synergy means that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. In organisational terms, synergy means that as separate departments within an organisation cooperate and interact, they become more productive than if each were to act in isolation. Synergy means cooperative working of the parts and sub-systems of an organisation. An organisation made up of subsystems or parts such as structure, culture, and reward systems. Synergy occurs when all parts work cooperatively to create a high level of performance.

SYSTEM A system is set of arrangement of things so related or connected as to form a unity or organic whole. Thus, a system is a complex whole having a number of parts. These parts of the system are called subsystems. These subsystems are interrelated and interdependent for their functioning. They, in turn, contribute to the functioning of the system as a whole. The system has a defined boundary through which it interacts with its environment. This external environment of a system is called a supra-system. A system consists of five basic parts, viz. input, process, output, feedback and environment.

SYSTEM APPROACH The term, general system theory, owes its origin to the famous biologist Ludwig Von Bertalanfly (1901-72). System approach is an attempt to join up the different approaches so as to provide a broad macroscopic view of an organisation. The system approach to organisation was developed mainly after 1950. It is also known as Modern Organisation Theory. The concepts of *holism*, *synergy* and *cybernetics* are central to system approach. The system approach to organisation was implicit in the writings of M.P. Follet, Chester Bernard, Herbert Simon, Philip Selznick. It was further developed by John Gauss, F.W. Riggs, George Homans, C. West Churchman and Robert Dahl.

(See: CONTINGENCY APPROACH, CYBERNETICS, HOLISM, MODERN ORGANISATION THEORY, SYNERGY)

SYSTEM CONTROL Norbert Wiener's cybernetic concept of control states that systems are 'adaptive mechanisms'. That is systems are not only capable of moving towards an objective but also are self-correcting when they fail to process towards the objective. It is the 'self-correcting' features of a system that represents control. The feature which makes control possible is feedback to the controlling mechanism-feedback of information on how well the system's output is meeting the objectives. The control function determines and points towards the corrections in the input needed to bring output to the ideal level. In most business systems the manager performs the control function while information systems of various types provide feedback.

SYSTEMS ANALYSIS Systems analysis is both a diagnostic tool that can be used to identify and explain the past effects or results of programmes, and a prognostic tool that can be used to predict the future effects or results of programmes. It treats policy areas as systems and attempts to model the cause-and-effect relationships found within them.

When a policy area is complex, systems analysis can help policy makers identify the component parts and study how each interacts with the others, thus facilitating both a better understanding of the policy area and the development of programs in that area. It was popularised in the 1950s and 1960s as providing the theoretical basis for more rational decision making in government, and it is currently making a comeback under the cover of approaches such as performance management and performance budgeting. However, to the extent that policy areas are too complex to analyse properly and decision makers in government must respond to a wide range of purely political pressures, systems analysis has limited usefulness.

There are two basic applications of systems analysis. The first application is modeling how a single social phenomenon is the product of multiple underlying issues and the effects of multiple government programmes. The second application is modeling how a single government program itself combines with multiple underlying issues and the effects of other government programs to produce a variety of social phenomena. Both applications of systems analysis can produce models that help decision makers better understand not only the causes of policy problems and policy opportunities, but also how specific programmes would interact with underlying policy issues and perhaps with other programmes to solve those problems or exploit those opportunities.

Decision makers can use this knowledge of the effects of programmes to make better decisions and plans about programmes. Systems analysis can help decision makers in government to identify the factors that must be addressed in order to achieve policy objectives, translate those factors into programme terms, evaluate and compare existing and potentially new programs against the achievement of policy objectives, and ensure implementation of the most cost-effective programs by influencing departments' and agencies' policies, budgets, and specific management practices.

SYSTEMS MODEL The systems model or theory relies on concept of information theory (especially, feedback, input and output) and conceives of the process as being essentially cyclical. The systems model is concerned with such questions as : What are the significant variables and patterns in the public policy making system? What constitutes the "black box" of the actual policy making process? What are the inputs, "withinputs," outputs, and feedback of the process? A representative author of this literary stream is David Easton, particularly his "The Political System."

A very broad 'systems' view of public policy characterizes policy decisions as output of the political system. According to David Easton, the political system stands for those distinctive structures and processes in a society that are "predominantly oriented toward the authoritative allocation of values" for the society. 'Inputs' are received into the political system from the external environment in the form of demands, resources, opposition and supports. The "Black Box" or "Conversion Process" includes structures, procedures, policy makers and psycho-social framework. The authoritative allocations of Easton's formulation are policy decisions. Systems model thus conceives of public policy as an "output" of the political system. The output are goods, services and symbols to other policy makers. The system view has been widely accepted as an useful way of looking at the policy process as it actually works out in government. Policy analysis in terms of both formulation and impact evaluation is greatly facilitated by the systems model.

(See: BLACK BOX, INPUT-OUTPUT ANALYSIS)

SYSTEMS OF MANAGEMENT Likert and his colleagues conducted extensive research on the subject as appropriate managerial strategy for effective use of human resources in organisations. Likert's primary objective was to identify different styles of management/leadership and correlate them with business performance. Based on his research findings, Likert distinguishes four systems of management called system 1, 2, 3 and 4. *System 1* is exploitative authoritarian type. It is management by fear, threats and coercion. *System 2* is benevolent authoritarian type. It is management by carrot rather than stick. *System 3* is consultative type. Management uses both carrot and stick, i.e., rewards and occasional punishment to motivate workers. *System 4* is participate group management type. In this system, management provides economic rewards and makes full use of group participation in making decision.

Likert's system 1 to 4 progressive chart of managerial styles indicated that systems 1 and 4 are opposites while systems 2 and 3 are intermediate stages between the two extremes of systems 1 and 4. *System 1* represents classical organizational design. It is also highly structured, task-oriented and authoritarian management style, based on fear, threats and mistrust. In contrast, *system 4* is completely democratic, people oriented and participative management style, based

on team work, mutual trust and confidence. Likert's system 1 and 4 models approximate closely McGregor's Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y' assumptions. Theory 'Y' assumption are incorporated in system 4 model.

System 4T: In *New Ways of Managing Conflict* (1976), Likert and his wife have developed the system 4 Total Model Organization. This model adds certain characteristics to system 4, such as high level of skill and knowledge on the part of the leader and the leader's capacity to provides planning, resources, equipment and help for subordinates. In the words of Carol Kennedy, "System 4T is the optimum Likert structure in terms of linkages and group working relationships and he conceives it as the best means of dealing with conflict in an organisation." Likert argues that the nearer an organization approaches to system 4T, the more its productivity and profitability will improve and conflict be reduced

System 5: Beyond 4T, Likert also suggests a system 5 for the future. In this system, all authority on a hierarchy basis will disappear. Such authority, as retained with individuals, derive only from their 'linking pin' roles and the overlapping of groups.

SYSTEMATIC DECISION MAKING In contrast to purely intuitive decision making, systematic decision making is an organised, exacting, data-driven process. Systematic decision making requires a clear set of objectives, a relevant information base, and a sharing of ideas among key manager and other employees.
(See: INTITUTIVE DECISION MAKING)

