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CULTURE AND MANAGEMENT IN SRI LANKA

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

It is increasingly asserted in many parts of the world that the concepts and techniques of management developed in the West are ethnocentric, and therefore they lack universal validity in terms of their effectiveness in different cultures. In this context the present study examines certain culturally-oriented behavioural aspects of Sri Lankan managers. Studies and literature relating to management, organizations, and culture in Sri Lanka raise questions of tenability of certain universal (Western) concepts relating to such behavioural aspects as planning ahead, rationality and objectivity, work ethics, authority and responsibility.

Special attention has been paid in this study to public sector organizations. Performance in the public sector organizations has not registered an appreciable overall improvement in the last fifteen years. In contrast, there is evidence to show that the performance in key sectors as plantations, public manufacturing and public administrative services has been declining, despite concerted attempts to contain such tendencies. Therefore, it seems essential that decisions to invest further or re-allocate resources in the public sector, should accompany a careful assessment of the administrative and managerial capabilities of public sector organizations.

The problems of public management in Sri Lanka could be attributed, to a significant extent, to certain discontinuities between cultural values and norms on the one hand, and organizational structures and behavioural expectations on the other. There is evidence that social and cultural institutions such as family, caste, class, religion, education, and ethnicity significantly determine the social values influencing personality and behaviour of individual in organizations. In particular, the impact of culture could be seen in relation to person's independent thinking, view of authority and responsibility, meaning of work, attitude to planning, and value of being perfect, etc. Resulting from this is a "behavioural syndrome" of the organizational man. This behavioural syndrome could be useful to explain the current difficulties of public sector organizations of meeting the expectations of Western management theory and practice. The continuing failure to achieve goals, reflecting an ever-increasing inability to achieve states of stable organizational equilibria in a changing environment, has been one of the noticeable features of public organizations. The apparent lack of cultural parallels in Sri Lanka of the concepts of management of a Western origin such as "planning ahead", requiring systematic thinking, and techniques like 'MBO', requiring ability and desire to isolate factual and value judgements, seems to be the cause of this "behavioural syndrome", and thus, of the organizational disequilibria.

There is some evidence to suggest that the behavioural syndrome of the individual is in contradiction with the demands of management for systematic planning for results, decentralization, participatory decision-making, objective evaluation of performance, and controlling positively. In contrast, it seems to promote (a) ad-hoc and short-run view of managerial and policy phenomena, (b) excessive centralization in organizations, (c) individualism, and (d) a legalistic view of control.

Reforms into public administration can take two principal approaches: structural change and professionalization of public services. In doing so, some of the global characteristics of cultural institutions and values may have to be accepted as relevant. The reformer may find a greater freedom in his effort at changing the individual characteristics of the managers, than in introducing macro-level structural changes. Greater professionalization could be aimed at by (a) introducing measures which will restrict and re-distribute the "general administrative character" of the Sri Lanka Administrative Service, (b) absorbing additional talent into the public services on an open basis, and (c) increasing the management development efforts. In regard to organizational structures, reforms may focus on smaller size, structural flexibility, power of the top executive, and creating an explicit goal orientation in organizational functioning.

Chapter 1

STUDY OF MANAGEMENT IN A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE : AN INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

Should the ways in which organizations are managed reflect the cultural environment of those organizations? Those who expound the thesis that management is culture-specific share that there is a need to explore the utility of Western management concepts and practices transferred to Asia (Mendoza, 1978), and Africa (Moris, 1977). Geert Hofstede who studied differences of people's work related values among 50 countries concludes, inter alia, that people of the United States are 'highly individualistic' and that they tend to "maintain power equality" among them. In case of India, it was found that the relevant value configuration of the people was quite the opposite : Low individualism and large power distance (Hofstede, 1983 : 82). What is the best approach to understanding the cultural context of management?

Approaches to understanding managerial behaviour in organizations in developing countries tend to be divided between a hard side and a soft side. The hard side approaches are based on "universalism", while the soft side deals in a very casual way with the problem of how organizations in other cultures deviate from the universalistic Western

patterns. The universalistic patterns are accepted explicitly by many on both sides as norms, and cultural aspects are treated in order to understand the deviations. As a result, the cultural problem is viewed as a secondary problem. This seems to have placed a basic limitation to the understanding of managerial phenomena in developing countries. Organizational systems are cultural answers to the problems encountered by people in achieving their collective ends. Therefore, one must see the cultural problem not as a secondary, but as a central problem in understanding managerial behaviour.

The end concern of management is results. A cursory glimpse of organizational performance in Sri Lanka, therefore, is a reasonable point to begin the presentation of this study. This introductory Chapter then takes a brief look at the traditional approaches to management development, with a view to appraising their instrumentality in bringing about realistic answers to problems of organizational performance. In this context, this Chapter invites the reader then to consider the society and culture as "explanatory variables".

2. Managerial Performance : The Tendency to Decline

A multi-dimensional approach is useful to take an overall account of managerial performance of an economy. One could consider at least five principal dimensions :

- (a) achievement of overall output goals which can be measured by such macro economic criteria as volume or value of outputs, profits, or social indicators like crime rate, crude birth rate or numbers of road accidents, etc;
- (b) operation of the management process which can be judged by such criteria as input productivity (capital and labour), type of innovations, and rate of change in key areas of activity;
- (c) employee satisfaction and attitudes which may reflect in labour turnover, labour unrest, brain-drain, etc.;
- (d) system disequilibria, as in the case of external payments, government annual budget and income disparities which represent the dimension of integration and inter-dependence; and
- (e) the dimension of ethical responsibility which can be approached with such indicators as illegal practices, corruption, damages to consumer, and environment pollution.

Let us look at some of these dimensions of performance in the Sri Lankan political economy.

(1) Declining overall performance :

Since 1977, the government of Sri Lanka has adopted a policy of free market economy wherein imports and exports are liberalized and foreign investments are promoted in the Island. The removal of the umbrella of protection that has been effective for years on the economy has brought the real issues of development into the surface of both public and private sectors. They are reflected in the overall trends in the performance of the economy.

Since independence in 1948 the perennial problem of the economy has been its inability to achieve a rapid growth

that is sufficient to generate capital for expansionary investment. A comparison of indices of various growth components for the 1970s indicates that Sri Lanka has been lagging behind the average overall performance of the developing economies. World Development Report 1983 compared the performance in key development areas of thirty-one developing countries of which a summary is given in Table 1.

Table 1 : Sri Lanka's Overall Performance among
Thirty other LDCs in the 1970s

	Sri Lanka	Overall Average (31 LDCs)	High Index Group	Low Index Group
Annual GDP Growth Rate %	4.1	5.0	6.8	3.1
Domestic Savings Income Rate %	13.0	17.4	21.4	13.8
Additional Output per unit of Investment %	22.2	23.2	27.6	16.8
Annual Growth Rate of Agriculture %	2.8	3.0	4.4	1.8
Annual Growth Rate of Industry %	4.0	6.1	9.1	3.2
Annual Growth Rate of Export Volume	- 2.4	3.5	6.7	0.7

Source : World Development Report 1983, pp. 60 - 61

Sri Lanka's achievements in the areas fundamental to sustained socio-economic development have been disappointing: domestic savings income rates, industrial growth, and growth of export volume for Sri Lanka are in the low-index group of countries. The somewhat satisfactory rate of GDP growth and output on investment seem to be a result of the expanding "non-tradable" sectors which they themselves are incapable of providing a foundation for economic development. Calculations

show that the combined contribution of these sectors -- trade, construction, transport, utilities, and other services -- to total incremental GDP between 1977 and 1982 was 69 per cent compared to 55 per cent in 1977. Conversely, the direct production sectors -- agriculture, mining, and manufacturing -- whose share in GDP in 1977 was 55 per cent, has declined to 31 per cent over the following five years. These trends raise issues of entrepreneurship, ownership, organization structure and managerial practices in both public and private sectors of the economy.

From the income distribution point of view, the meaning of real growth rates is distorted by very high rates of annual inflation of prices. In 1983, Sri Lanka ranked the second highest in consumer price increases among the member countries of the Asian Development Bank : while the faster growing economies recorded rates of inflation below the weighted average of 7.8% for the member countries, Sri Lanka's inflation rate was 14% (Asian Development Bank, 1984). The high degree of vulnerability of the economy is due, at least in part, to relative inability of the economic enterprise to adjust itself to the changing environment of organization.

The economic vulnerability of the enterprise can be further understood by looking at some other indicators of performance. In international trade, the trade deficit for the past five years has averaged 40% of import value. This figure was 17% for 1970 - 79 and only 6% for the seven year period prior to trade liberalization in 1977.

The national income-expenditure deficit has been drastically increasing over the recent past. In 1973, the annual budget deficit was 12.5 per cent of total revenue, and ten years later, the deficit equated the revenue, i.e., one half of the expenditure was met by borrowing. Both domestic and foreign expenditure gaps are financed largely through foreign assistance. The increasing dependence on such sources is indicated by the fact that the foreign finance component has amounted to 50 per cent of budget deficits over the past five years (Central Bank of Ceylon, 1984).

The increasing inability to manage the economy is partly explained by the failure of the manufacturing sector in order to expand and generate a surplus. In 1970, the manufacturing sector accounted for 17 per cent of the GNP, while this has gradually declined to 14 per cent by 1984. Since 1979, the rate of growth in the manufacturing sector has averaged only 3.8 per cent, much less than the rate of overall economic growth.

With a high standard of Quality of Life, ranking third in Asia in terms of QOLI, (next to Japan and Singapore), Sri Lanka is having a real problem of managing its economy. The inability to re-structure the colonial system of production which is dominated by plantation crops, and generate adequate surpluses for re-investment, casts doubts about the capacity of Sri Lankan organizations and management to innovate and achieve growth objectives. A closer look at the productive sectors of the economy will give us further insight into this phenomenon.

(11) The Public Enterprises Sector

The public corporations sector utilises about 35% of the gross Domestic Fixed Capital Resources available for investment (The rest is divided between the government sector, 25%, and private sector 40%). When the government enterprises such as Railways and Electricity which are categorised under the government sector are taken into account, the public enterprises sector becomes still larger.

Public Industrial corporations, which account over 50 per cent of the total industrial production of the economy, have failed to record significant achievements in any of the dimensions of managerial performance in the past. Overall output index (1960/70 = 100) for the six year period of 1970 to 75 showed an increase from 168.4 to 209.3 whereas this index for more recent years (1977 = 100) has improved very slowly, 1981 = 118.4, and 1983 = 106.7. Exports of the industrial enterprises were 22 per cent of their value of production in 1975. In 1979, this went up to 32 per cent and by 1983 it sharply dropped down to 18 per cent.

The deteriorating performance of industrial corporations is evident in the declining rate of profit. As shown in Table 2, the rate of profits on sales has begun to show a declining trend in recent years. An overall loss was incurred in 1982 and the Central Bank's provisional data for the years late are inadequate to assess the overall situation.

Table 2 : The Deteriorating Performance of State Industrial Corporations

	1976	1978	1980	1982
I. <u>SALES VALUE</u> (Rs. Million) (a)	1,818	2,361	4,909	6,600
II. <u>PROFITS</u> (Rs. Million) (a)	175	269	619	302
III. <u>LOSSES</u> (Rs. Million) (a)	(123)	(122)	(188)	(295)
IV. <u>NET PROFITS ON SALES (3)</u>				
1. All Corporations	4.4	6.3	3.8	-3.8
2. Excluding Ceylon Petroleum Corporation	2.9	6.2	8.8	0.1

Source : Central Bank of Ceylon, Review of the Economy.
Various Reports

(a) Excluding Ceylon Petroleum Corporation.

The failure of public enterprises to generate adequate surplus is reflected in the dependence of these enterprises on government funds to run their operations and meet investment requirements. As seen from Table 3, the transfers of government funds to public corporations have increased ten times between 1976 and 1982. Such transfers to industrial public corporations have amounted nearly twice of the surpluses created by these organisations. This situation of excessive dependence of industrial public corporations on government budget has no international parallels. The extent to which these results reflect general economic conditions, price competition and existence of government regulations, etc. and how much they are

caused by the failure of individual corporations to improve productivity through better management are of course difficult questions to deal with here. However, evidence from individual corporations suggests that there exists a substantial scope for improvement through simple action of managerial ingenuity. Since the public enterprise sector is very large, a modest upgrading of efficiency could have very significant overall effect. For example, a 10 per cent drop in the cost of production in industrial public corporations would generate resources adequate to meet the total annual current expenditure of government on general education in this country or to a quadruple increase of the government expenditure on higher education.

Table 3 : Transfer of Government Funds to Public Corporations 1976 - 82 (Rs. Million)

	1976	1978	1980	1982
Total Transfers	1,084	3,151	7,669	12,350
Change (1976 = 100)	100	291	708	1,139
Transfers to Industrial Corporations	493	1,254	550	513
Transfers as ratio of profits of Industrial Corporations	1.73	2.92	.78	1.70
Capital Transfers	965	2,070	6,086	10,653
Current Transfers	129	1,081	1,583	1,697

Source : Central Bank of Ceylon, Review of the Economy, 1979, 1983

After losing the state of monopoly market, many corporations have begun to show their weaknesses (mostly managerial).

Corporations like Ceylon Steel, State Hardware, National Textile, and National Paper, which yielded profits years ago are now incurring losses. Many others, including Tyre Corporation, which was considered a model, are having serious difficulties.

As a remedy, the government has de-nationalised certain worthy but loss-making Corporations by transferring the entire organisation or part of it to the private sector or foreign investors. Such changes of ownership or management have taken place in the following areas : Milk processing, textiles, machinery, electricity supply, fruit canning, and flour milling. Proposals for similar changes in about a dozen of other enterprises, including railways and sugar manufacturing, are under consideration.

Organisational ineffectiveness and managerial inefficiencies are observed almost everywhere in the corporations sector. After nationalisation of large, local and foreign plantations, two public corporations were set up to run the tea and rubber estates. The volume of production has declined since then : Tea - 220 M.Kgs. in 1971 to 188 M.Kgs. in 1982; Rubber - 146 M.Kgs. in 1971 to 125 M.Kgs. in 1982. With the take-over, foreign managements and Agency Houses' control of management were replaced with local management. The new managers were either those who were promoted from assistant Superintendent level or recruits from outside.

The record of performance in other sectors is not necessarily better. People's Bank, one of the two major commercial banks of the public sector, is responsible for the implementation of rural agricultural credit schemes of the government. By September 1983, the rate of default of payment has risen to 52 per cent for long and medium term loans, and 21 per cent for short-term loans (People's Bank, 1983 : 9). In the sphere of housing, the government policy during 1977 - 83 was to build houses for different income groups and dispose them. The National Housing Development Authority later realised the difficulties of recovery of rent on the one hand, and maintenance of housing schemes in co-ordination with various local bodies responsible for the task. The housing policy has now shifted from construction to extending support for the public to build their own houses. (National Housing Development Authority, 1983). In short, the public sector organisations demonstrate an incapacity to deal with the demands of socio-economic development of the country.

(iii) The Plantations

Over the recent past, output performance of the three major plantation crops has declined : From 1975 to 1983, production of tea fell from 214 to 179 M.Kgs., Rubber from 149 to 140 M.Kgs. and Coconut 2,398 to 2,312 M.Nuts. The trends in this output performance can better be understood from a managerial viewpoint by looking into some details of the tea plantations. Yield of tea per hectare had been 914 Kgs. in

1972 and 920 Kgs. in 1980. From 1972 to 1975 there had been an increment of 12 per cent in the yield which had continued to decline thereafter (-6.6% during 1976/78, and -3.5% during 1979/81). On the other hand, the cost of production had increased five times between 1973 and 1983 (from Rs. 3.52 per Kg. in 1972 to Rs. 26.37 in 1983 : or an increase of 66% during 1973 - 76, and 200% increase during 1973 - 76, and 200% increase during 1973 - 79). Something is seriously wrong in the management of plantations, and that has to be found in order to explain the declining productivity in this vital sector of the economy.

(iv) Private Sector

The private sector of Sri Lanka has inherited its business traditions from the mercantalist functions of the colonial time private entrepreneur. Centered on three major plantation crops-- tea, rubber, coconut -- an export sector was established during the colonial period. The main function of the private sector was to export the primary products and import consumption items. The impact of this on the entrepreneur was to focus on short run benefits and to rely upon pricing strategy rather than cost reduction and productivity improvement. Innovation and risk-taking were not promoted as important business values. Biased toward trade, commerce and services, manufacturing was not quite attractive for the investor.

Based primarily on family ownership, even the leading firms in the private sector did not promote professional management grounded in management education and competence. Managerial positions were largely reserved for those who had technical competence in the trade who would come up through the ladder of promotion or through family/social considerations.

Manufacturing activity receives relatively a lower priority in the private sector. For example, in 1980, only 38 per cent of the value of country's manufacturing came from the private sector. Eventhough the percentage share of exports to total gross manufacturing output (export co-efficient) has been increasing in recent years, estimates at the sectoral level show that only a few products, nameiy, wearing apparel, leather goods, rubber and plastic goods, ceramic-wear, and nonferrous metal has contributed to this favourable trend. and, among them, wearing apparel, and petroleum products (public sector) occupy predominant positions; in 1980 the contribution of these two products to total export coefficient was 92 per cent. It is also noteworthy that a number of industries -- food manufacturing, beverages, tobacco manufacturing, footwear, and chemicals -- has recorded a down trend in the expert coefficient, reflecting an increase in their domestic market orientation.

Growth has occurred mostly in trade and services sectors which are directly linked with the essence of the policy of liberalised economy. Despite the government's stated desire to make the private sector the driving force of the economy,

the real growth impulses of industry still emanate from public investments made in the past. In regard to the private sector activities, a process of "deindustrialisation", resulting from shifts of resources to non-tradable sectors, is discernible. The degree of export market penetration of product sectors, with the exception of garment sector, still remains insignificant without showing any sign of improvement (Atukorale, 1984 : 51).

Why has progress not been up to the expectations? The World Bank, still maintaining its profound faith in the basic neoclassical tenets of the policy reform, has repeatedly ascribed the blame for this failure to inadequacies and inconsistencies in the industrial and trade policy package (World Bank, 1981, 1982, 1983). The Industrial Policy Mission of the Bank which visited Sri Lanka in 1983 has, therefore, suggested further policy measures to ensure "a system of neutrality of incentives between import substitution and exporting activity" (World Bank, 1983 : 53 - 62). However, the private entrepreneur continues to remain mercantile in his orientation and looks for opportunity to earn short-run profits.

(v) Productivity of Labour

Wealth is generated by achieving a continuous increase in the value or volume of production per unit of labour. Higher productivity of labour results from changes in the methods

of production, development of human skills appropriate to productive work, and cultivation of values and attitudes desirable to promote and organisational culture in which integration of man and work is achieved best. The productivity of labour in an organisation is a product of management.

It was the high rate of productivity of labour in the manufacturing industry that enabled rapid transformation of the agricultural economies of the West into industrial societies. The productivity of labour in the manufacturing sector of Sri Lanka has never been impressive at any time of the history. The decade 1971 - 81 marked by a decline of labour productivity in that sector by - 2.3 per cent (Table 4). A country cannot envisage a strong economy without improving the role of labour in the key sectors of production. (see Table 5 as well).

Table 4 : Change in Labour Productivity : Some Developed Countries & Sri Lanka

	Average Annual % Change	
	Aggregate Economy	Manufacturing
<u>1971 - 1981</u>		
Sri Lanka	2.1	-2.3
<u>1975 - 1978</u>		
Canada	2.0	4.5
France	5.0	6.1
Japan	4.1	7.3
USA	2.1	3.0

Source : World Development Report 1984, p. 16.

**Table 5 : Declining Marginal Productivity of Labour
in Tea and Rubber Plantations**

	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79	1979/80
Change in Production (%)	2.6	1.9	1.6	-20.3
Change in Labour (%)	4.3	3.9	6.5	1.7
Output/Labour Ratio	0.6	0.5	0.2	-34.5

Source : Central Bank of Ceylon. Review of the Economy
(1976 to 1980)

During the two Censuses of Population, 1971 and 1981, the productivity of labour in aggregate terms for the total economy has increased by about 2 per cent per year. The real income growth per person employed has been much slower, only about 7 per cent for the ten year period, or Rs. 3,693 and Rs. 3,953 for the two years respectively. The real national income per person in the category of professional, technical and related workers has remained the same (Rs. 75,527 and Rs. 75,517 for 1971 and 1981 respectively), while that in the category of administrators and managers has declined from Rs. 969,000 to Rs. 780,500. This may be evidence of the rapid growth of bureaucracy which cannot be justified by results. In the meantime, the number of employees per staff category person (span of managerial control) in the semi-government institutions has increased from 26 in 1970 to 52 in 1983. This may be a result of employment pressures on the government which ultimately makes the productivity of labour a matter of secondary importance.

(vi) Social Responsibility

To whom should the management of an organisation be responsible? The so-called guardians of the classical model of capitalism, like Milton Freedman, would argue that it is to the owner (and stockholder), and the sole responsibility of private business is to make profits. Serve the public, the bureaucrat in the state organisation is told. Public corporations are expected to make a profit while meeting the "social" objectives of meeting welfare interests of their customers. Often they are called upon to make "public profits" to maximise not economic benefits as judged from a national perspective rather than from a narrow, accounting viewpoint of the firm.

Irrespective of the form of ownership, the management of an organisation can be made responsible in practice to one or more of four different stances :

- (a) meeting the interests of owners and stockholders;
- (b) expanding the concern to include the interest of managers and employees of the organisation, a family model, which assume that the employees are an asset and they have a claim on the firm;
- (c) moving beyond the boundaries of organisation structure and caring for the welfare of customers as well, a "customer model"; and
- (d) a citizen model, with a concern for long-run benefits of the organisation for the larger society.

Where does the typical Sri Lankan private business firm fit in? Those who make private profits are often seen publicly or privately making contributions to a temple or a church, a school or hospital. It is not clearly understood, however, whether the objective of doing so is their belief that the firm is linked to future society and hence the interdependence between the two is recognized. Or, is it something of a non-capitalistic desire, like being a religious person or a respectable citizen, or is it a political one - to be a close ally of the existing power structure?

As the privately-owned bus stops on the road whether it be in front of a CTB bus, in a junction where all other vehicles have to move, or just on the road, right in the middle, does the bus-owner attempt to maximise passenger welfare by responding to their wants, or maximise own profits?

According to the Department of Census and Statistics, there were only 15 fatal industrial accidents which were brought in for settlement in 1973; total compensation paid for these accidents was in the range of Rs. 100,000. By 1980, the fatal accidents had increased by number from 15 to 176 involving compensation to the value of Rs. 1,500,000. Are the employees of our industrial organisation conceived as the most precious assets, partners of business, and members of the same family?

The modus operandi of the private sector of Sri Lanka is typified by the behaviour of the private omnibus operator.

Concerned with short-run profits with a mind to recover soon the capital invested, he would increase the price rather than cut the costs; and, try to find loop-holes in the regulations which insist on the welfare of employes, customers or citizens in order to gain by fooling, misguiding, and lying to them on the product, quality and service. The citizen, the customer, the employe has never been the genuine interest of our business organisation. To reap money by means of correct or crooked ways for the owner seems to be the dominating idea of responsibility in our private business.

In the public sector, the idea of serving the citizen, is hardly the guiding responsibility of work. The Westminster Model of democracy was not well received, and the weak points in Weber's model of bureaucracy were embraced. As a result, the public employe is increasingly asked and compelled to be responsible explicitly to the political master. Those who can manage to avoid this compelling necessity are responsible to no one but themselves. Let it be the Department of Telecommunications where you have to go to get your telephone fixed, the Department of Motor Traffic where you go to pick up a driving licence or renew a revenue licence, the Customs Department where you have to collect your goods, the Ministry of Public Administration where you have to talk about your transfer if you are a public servant, or the CTB Bus where you get in, you find the so-called servant of the public who is mindful of the maximisation of private gains than meeting the customer wants or rendering a good service.

To summarise, the processes of management in our organisations in almost every vital sector of the economy are increasingly proving their inability to convert input resources into useful outputs efficiently.

3. Traditional Approaches to Management and Development

(1) Universal Management

Management is increasingly accepted as the key factor in economic development. It is also widely felt that capital investment, the introduction of advanced technologies or improvement of technical and vocational skills can be fully effective in raising the performance of an enterprise, an industry or the economy of a country only when they are correctly combined with good management.

Good management was always thought as management in the West. The development of management as a distinct discipline of education at higher learning institutes in many less developed countries (LDCs) has been dependent in terms of objectives, design, content, and methods on the disciplinary development of management education in the developed world. The various types of technical assistance programs of the late 1950s and early 1960s between those countries were mainly instrumental in the initiation of this dependency relationship. What is rather interesting, in fact, is not the beginning, but the continuation of this relationship over the past two decades.

The main thrust of this relationship has been the belief in both Western & LDC countries in the universalism in management objectives, content, and methods of delivery. The maintenance of such a belief over time has been possible, in the first place, because of the ideology of management education in the LDCs which came from the leading American Universities such as Harvard, MIT, and UCLA, or prestigious English Institutes like the BIM. Secondly, it has been possible because the personnel involved in bilateral and multilateral technical assistance programs have spread the same ideology through their management training programs in the LDCs. As a result, a third factor, the management literature available in LDCs either by way of imports or local production is almost exclusively Western in origin and character.

Two recent studies on management needs of Sri Lanka, one by Arthur D. Little International, (1983), and the other by USAID (1984) have concluded inter alia that Sri Lankan managers need more western management know how (Marketing, Personnel Management, Investment Analysis and similar subjects of a traditional Business Curriculum). The universalistic approach to management education training and development has always been promoted aid giving agencies. However, the training institutions have failed to attract those managers in key positions of organisations to participate in training courses. Those who have received higher degrees/diplomas in management in Sri Lanka or abroad have found it difficult to fit themselves

better into Sri Lankan organisations. The result has been frustration, and frequent "brain-drain." Thus the management training institutions suffer from a lack of qualified staff; for example, the University of Sri Jayewardenepura, the only university offering management degrees at undergraduate or postgraduate level, has failed to recruit a Professor of Management, since the departure of the founding Management Professor to USA in 1976; Five faculty members who had Ph.D degrees left the university in the 1980's leaving not a single Ph.D available for undergraduate work toward the end of 1987. Similarly, the Open University has failed to fill the post of Professor of Management, despite the fringe benefits of foreign assistance attached to it. On the other hand, out of 2,100 graduates in business and public administration, nearly 15% are unemployed and about twice of that are under-employed. Only about 30% have found management-related jobs. These structural weaknesses and imbalances in the field of management education and employment are indicative of the nature of appreciation of management in this country. More deeply, this may suggest, at least partly, that recognition of management is confined to top service because Western type of management education and training (or good management) has not been able to make an appreciable contribution to organisational success. Therefore, people, in general, are illusioned as to what "good management" can do.

This is a dilemma posed by the Western effort at promoting universalistic management thought elsewhere. The predominant expectation has been science of management/or public administration

In the sense of a body of generalised principles, independent of their peculiar national settings (Dahl, 1947, 8). A science of a universalistic nature, as opposed to a science of American management/or public administration, a science of French or British management/public administration, was sought. The attempt was to establish propositions about administrative behaviour which transcend national boundaries. (Heady, 1966 : 3; Massie & Luytjes, 1972: 11, 12).

(11) People : the Paradox

Management means searching for superior results through people. That is, people matter in management. If people, managers and non-managers, do not seek superior results, if they are not ready to take personal responsibility for a never ending quest for better results, then management shall cease to search. The crux of the many problems of management in developing countries, specially Sri Lanka, rests in this paradox: People make the difference in management, rather than the techniques of management themselves.

In their explanation of industrial progress in the West, the historians were obsessively fascinated with the technological artifacts of Nineteenth Century industry and the flamboyant entrepreneurs of that era. Neither Lewis Mumford nor Max Weber and certainly not Karl Marx ever bothered to explore the specific details of the functional roles played by industrial organisers and managers which enabled those entrepreneurs render such artifacts as machines, engines, tools and crude instruments

productive. This is precisely because the people in those countries in that era were personally engaged in a never ending quest for superior results. There was no need to emphasize the primacy of the people factor in progress.

Ignoring the role of people in management for social progress ipso facto exaggerated the importance of techniques of management. Rooted in the concept of "(Western) economic man" Frederick W. Taylor pioneered a revolution in management thinking by suggesting the desirability of finding the most effective methods of task performance through time and motion study approach to work, and matching the workers to work. The scientific management "movement" thus started was promoted by those of the functional school of management, including French Industrialist Henri Fayol, followed by James D. Mooney, Luther Gulick, Lyndal Urwick, Harold Koontz and Cyril O' Donnell. The world was made to believe of the universal validity of a management process (consisting of planning and controlling, organising, staffing, leading, motivating, etc.) which was essentially an interpretation of people's behaviour in the Western Industrial organisation.

(iii) Ethno-centricity and Instrumentalism

Management is a means to development. The definition of aims of development, of course, has largely shaped the definition and role of management. The current, most dominant, ideology of development, as much as that of the historical

one, is materialistic. Thus, universalistic management, in essence, is an expression of the Western materialistic ideology of development.

The failure of Western materialistic ideology of development to recognise the socio-cultural and religious components is often attributed to the reductionist approach to knowledge which underlines the Western "ideologies of social change and the cognitive systems which grew out of the industrial revolution and enthroned the economistic view of society and man" (Gunatilleke, 1979 : 4).

Many people in developing countries find their primary sources of meaning of life in the socio-cultural values, beliefs and mysteries. They instinctively sense, moreover, that "neither the promise of material paradise nor the glorification of political process can abolish life's tragic dimensions - suffering, death, wasted talents and hopelessness" (Goulet, 1980 : 482). The late-twentieth century world of the West, with its urge to openness and equality, is also a world which is starting to think that its pre-occupation with the material aspects of life may be incomplete.

Parallel to universalist management thinkers, most development authors and practitioners have simply assumed that religious beliefs and cultural values in the developing world incarnate a retrograde approach to knowledge and reflect an

uncritical cast of mind incompatible with the demands of modern rationality. For them, development has meant not only secularization but secularism as well.

Most strategies of development are based on the assumptions like either the traditional value systems must be treated as instruments to reach materialistic goals or the achievement of materialistic goals must change the value systems in predetermined directions (of the Western type). For example, the late econometrician, Max Millikan insisted that good planning ought to be "the presentation of certain key alternatives to the community in ways which will shape the evolution of the community's value system" (Millikan, 1962 : 33). Implicit in this thinking is that the planners would embody certain standard values in the plans and planning process which will help shape the evolution of value system in the community. Besides the fact that these standard values are drawn from the euro-centric belief systems of the planners, the strategies, as in the case of seemingly legitimate self-reliant strategies of development, are not built from within traditional value systems because planners have largely ignored or disparaged the critical dimensions of those value systems.

The above observations lead to a fundamental question: Should socio-cultural values be treated in a purely instrumental fashion? Agents of development who are sensitive to local value systems often treat local values as instruments to achieve their goals which are drawn from the assumptions common to their

scientific or academic disciplines. Thus, a demographer will strive to "harness" local values to his objective of promoting contraception or achieving zerogrowth in population. Similarly, the agronomist will search for a traditional practice upon which to "graft" his recommendation to use chemical pesticides; the community organizer will "mobilize" a population for political or economic ends around traditionally cherished symbols. All three cases illustrate an "instrumental" treatment of local values.

Those who argue against instrumental treatment of values hope to define development and management in terms of full human development, taking into account socio-cultural value systems as part of the definition. The implication of this whole argument for the study of management is that whether one should focus on the identification of cultural barriers to good management and means to overcome them or on the discovery of a new meaning of "good management".

4. Society and Culture as Explanatory Variables

If people matter in management, then the cultural context of people must have an impact on the practice of management in different societies. It seems that the problem of management in our organisations can be better understood with the help of a culture-specific approach. The culture-free thesis which suggests that the techniques of management should yield more or less similar results across societies does not provide

for an understanding why such techniques have often failed to produce results in many developing countries.

Historically, the interest in cross-cultural study in management seems to have resulted by the realization that the effectiveness of Western experts operating in LDCS was dependent upon the degree of expert's adaptation to local culture of the operating country (Megginson, 1967 : 69 - 70; Yoshino, 1968 : 65) and by academic interests of those who were involved in planning and aiding business schools and training institutes in the developing countries (Committee on the Professional School and World Affairs, 1967 : 54). A trend that has emerged in the past 15 years is the attempt to integrate, at least partially, the cross-cultural management literature with organisational theory. Basically, there are two approaches that researchers have followed in their effort to integrate what is new and old.

One group of researchers has taken an open-system or environmental approach by which the impact of external environmental factors, not only cultural but also socio-economic, political, educational, legal, etc., on managerial practices and effectiveness is emphasized. For example, Farmer and Richman (1965) hypothesized in their work that interfirm differences in the practice as well as effectiveness of management could be explained on the basis of differences in environmental conditions which firms face in different locations.

While the arbitrary classification for separating environmental factors into groups or concepts and the resultant lack of rigour in operationalisation are under attack, it is feared that the over-emphasis on environmental factors could lead to the belief that individual enterprise managers are basically passive agents of external environments, whereas it is not necessarily so (England, Negandhi, Wilpert, 1979 : 2). Negandhi's international study on the transfer of advanced management practices to developing countries represents a significant departure from the previous studies undertaken in a system approach. In the first place, this study recognised the active role of managers in responding to environmental factors; and in the second place, it attempted to establish that management practices which are environmentally produced, affect organisational and enterprise effectiveness (Negandhi, 1975).

The other group which attempts to integrate cross-cultural literature with organisation theory has taken a behavioural approach to explain individual and group behaviour differences in organisations in different cultures. The concentration seems to be on identification of character profiles of different culture as a prerequisite to predicting organisational behaviour patterns (Narain, 1967; Davis, 1971), attitudes and perceptions of managers concerning some key management concepts and functions (Barrett, 1970; Haire, 1966, Nath, 1969; Thiagarajan, 1968), and understanding the general framework of individual and group behaviour in a society studying

the system of values, system of beliefs, or hierarchy of needs which are prevalent in the society (Davis, 1971). A more recent edition by England, Negandhi, and Wilpert (1979) represents a somewhat integrative approach to putting together the material prepared with different concentrations for the purpose of integrating such material with organisation theory.

There is now an increasing awareness of the need to explore the utility of Western management concepts and practices transferred to Asia (mendoza, 1978) and Africa (Moris,1977). Scattered evidence suggests that the culture-paradigm of managerial underdevelopment may help finding a useful explanation to the problems of productivity and the resulting underdevelopment in these countries.

5. Conclusion

A cursory glimpse of economic performance of Sri Lanka indicates that the nation is continually failing to uphold a rational utilization of resources. The significance of management, inter alia, in the creation and development of socio-economic progress is crucial. This fact has been eclipsed by the Sri Lankans by having apparently a blind-faith in the Western historians, economists and management writers and practitioners. The Sri Lanka decision-makers, who seem obstinately reluctant to learn and believe, must constantly be reminded of the fact that management is the crucial factor in development, and people are the crucial factor in management. However, what is good management is yet to be found.

Chapter 2

THE SRI LANKAN SOCIETY AND CULTURE:

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS

1. Introduction

The purpose of this Chapter is to describe and analyse the predominant cultural behaviours and their relationship to the institutional system of the Sri Lankan culture and society. The socio-cultural institutions, or the elements of the socio-cultural system discussed here include family, caste, ethnicity, class, religion, and education. Each of these institutions has specific roles to perform. These roles can be understood further in the context of system structure of socio-cultural institutions, particularly the values which the structure supports. Therefore, the first part of the Chapter will examine the system structure.

Cultural behaviours are functions of structure. The manner in which the structure produces various cultural behavioural patterns, as may be reflected in the concern for obedience, status, achievement, responsibility etc. which are quite relevant for managerial behaviour, will be examined in the second part of the Chapter.

At the outset, however, it will be useful to define some concepts like culture, values, roles and structure and also to take a

note of the philosophical foundations of the Sri Lankan culture and society.

2. Definition of Concepts

(a) Culture

The term culture seems to carry a wide meaning covering many things in a society. R.Thurnwald, for example, used it to refer to both practice and evolution of family, political and economic achievements, ethics, customs, law and thought (Seneviratne, 1971). Sociologists, in the meantime, seem to confine the meaning to a rather narrow area of individual's knowledge, beliefs, customs, and skills which are carried forward in a society. It has a material or overt aspect and a socio-psychological or covert aspect. In general, culture is seen both as a process as well as a product. While it often includes religion, its relationship to concepts like civilization is a subject of debate. Thus, one is dealing with a concept which has very different and wide connotations.

As Arnold Ventura describes it, culture signifies the spectrum of the response of a group to its environment which provides a sense of purpose and a reason for existence. It, therefore, embraces the various means of communication, languages, oral traditions, beliefs, rites, games, social artifacts, patterns of production and consumption, and perceptions of the material, biological, psychological, and spiritual goals of life which are considered worthy of achievement. Cultural values allow the past to be interpreted, the present to be organized and the future to be anticipated (Goulet, 1975).

People's existence and strategies for using knowledge, coping with the environment providing material needs, ways and means and spiritual expression are identified and rationalized in accordance with their own cultural values. National pride, self-awareness, confidence and the flexibility necessary for the creative and innovative spirit to meet changing situations are indicative of a strong culture.

The cultural patterns of a society are, therefore, intricately made up of components which intermesh and affect each other. Further, these are riveted in the subconsciousness, and reflectively dictate a sense of belonging and resignation. These patterns are, however, never static. Although often firmly rooted in distant traditions and experiences, culture is continually being altered to meet the daily fluctuations of life and with time becomes modified to match the vicissitudes of nature and society. Sri Lanka, being a relatively very small social group in the world and subjected heavily to the pressures of changing world in recent times, the process view of culture is very important in understanding the current state. However, the threads that bind one generation to the next are always present as the mental background against which much action is taken.

Definitions of culture seem to stress one of the various aspects such as social heritage, learned behaviour, shared behaviour, and abstraction from behaviour. Edward Sapir defined culture by referring to 'any socially inherited element in the life of man, material and spiritual' (Cafagna, 1960:119).

Culture, in its ordinary connotation, is viewed as a process as well as a product. The connotation of 'social heritage' does not include the processes by means of which new cultural elements are introduced, and old ones are modified and transmitted lineally and laterally. Thus, the connotation of 'social heritage' appears to be a subset of the connotation of culture. Besides this, the vagueness of 'social heritage' prevents one accepting as an adequate definition of culture.

Definitions which emphasize learned behaviour have been employed by many psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists. For Clyde Kluckhohn, for example, "culture consists in all transmitted social learning" (Cafagna, 1960:121). This approach to the definition of culture, too suffers from the same inadequacies which were referred to earlier.

On the basis of common usage and understanding, and with regard to the special interests of students of management, the following definition of culture is proposed here: "A culture is the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose components are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society." Like all definitions, this also requires some amplification and explanation.

'Learned behaviour' is important here because neither instinctive behaviour nor the basic needs or tensions which provide the ultimate motivations for behaviour in the individual have ever been regarded as parts of culture in spite of their obvious influence upon culture. 'Learned Behaviour'

limits the activities which are to be classed as part of any given culture configuration to those whose forms have been modified by the learning process.

Although man's behaviour is motivated by his needs, the forms which it assumes are normally conditioned by experience. Thus, although use of language is a response to the individual's need for expression, the way in which he uses language depends upon how he has learned to express - talk and write. The term 'behaviour' in the phrase under discussion is to be taken in the broadest sense to include all the activities of the individual, whether overt or covert, physical or psychological. Thus, for the purposes of this definition, learning, thinking, and so on are to be considered quite as much forms of behaviour as are the coordinated body movements in individual's expression or muscular movements involved in technological processes.

The term 'results of behaviour' refers to phenomena of two different orders, psychological and material. The former includes those results of behaviour which are represented in the individual by psychological states. Thus, attitudes, value systems and knowledge would all be included under this head. To class these phenomena as results of behaviour may appear to tour de force, but they are unquestionably established in the individual as a result of his interaction with his environment and consequent learning. At the same time, they cannot be classed as 'learned behaviour' since they lack the dynamic qualities implied by this term.

Like the realities of the external environment, they exercise a directive influence on the development of behaviour patterns. Thus, when confronted by a new situation, the individual will react to it not only in terms of its objective reality but also in terms of the attitudes, values, and knowledge which he has acquired as a result of his past experience.

The inclusion of material results of behaviour in the phenomena covered by the culture concept may also be discussed here briefly. The environment in which any individual develops a great variety of man-made objects and the effect of contact with these on the developing personality may be considerable. Thus, this aspect of the total environment may operate either to stimulate or to inhibit the development of manual dexterity or even the development of more basic features of the personality, such as generalized attitudes of timidity or self-reliance.

The phrase 'shared and transmitted' limits the content of culture configurations still further. It is necessary to remember that cultures are continuums. The sharing which justifies the inclusion of a particular item in the culture configuration must be determined in relation to the socio-cultural continuum, not in relation to a culture as it exists at a particular point in time.

(b) Values , Relations, Structure

Values are sets of interrelated ideas, concepts, and principles to which individuals, groups, and societies attach strong sentiments. They are abstract, general orientations that guide human behaviour. Every system has a system of values, and it is the unique constellation and patterning of values that differentiate people from one another. Through a shared value orientation, members of a group learn to view the world in similar ways and, in consequence, to differentiate between insiders and strangers. "An integrated value system provides a sense of meaning and purpose to existence; it supplies a framework of preferences by which man can evaluate his thoughts and actions, and those of others" (Davis, 1971:10). From this broad mental orientation develops a set of beliefs (conviction about how the world actually is), attitudes (predispositions to perform, perceive, think, and feel), and specific opinions (concrete expressions on particular issues). Thus, a fundamental and shared world view provides the basis for day-to-day behaviour.

Values are of particular relevance to understanding the behaviour in organizations. This relevance can be perceived in the distinction between 'facts' and 'values.' While facts are supposed to represent the world reality, values are frameworks for the perception of such reality.

The processes of decision making are based on factual and value judgments. Two types of value judgments are important here: (1) judgments which state simple ascriptions

of value (as when we attribute a specific value to an experience, a thing, or situation by calling it good, pleasing or beautiful, and (2) judgments which ascribe comparative values (as when we ascribe various degrees of goodness to different things, calling one thing better than another). Value judgments are concerned with, or reflected in, individual and organizational goals. The drives to achieve goals draw people to form groups and society. Goals are articulated by the process of goal attaining and concomitant latent activity, and when people are motivated to achieve a goal, their united activity is palpable in greater society. Both goal setting and the process of its attainment are related to value judgments.

Basic values are reflected in a society's institutions. Institutions, from a sociological view point, represent persistent elements in the life or culture of an organized social group. Thus, we speak of marriage, the family, education, government, national holidays, and popular sports as institutions. There are fundamental values underlying these social institutions, as in the case of the institution of marriage, for example, where the fundamental value may be romantic love in a society, the propagation of children in a second, and the strengthening of clan allegiances in a third. Similarly, industriousness and hard work are basic economic values in some societies which lay the foundation for economic organization, whereas work is only a means to limited ends for many other peoples; some men work to live while others live to work.

Values govern the norms. Norms are rules which determine what is acceptable or unacceptable within a society, and therefore it has a controlling function. No unit within a particular system, let it be formal or informal, is permitted to function as per its own choice. Deviations from accepted patterns of behaviour are checked. Norms often form a network of control and constitute the normative system of organization.

When norms are associated with specific social positions, such as father or manager, they are called roles. Roles are the basic building blocks of social relations. In daily life, people act in awareness of one another by responding in socially patterned ways. When one individual identifies another as teacher, employer, or father, he knows that his relations with regard to that individual are quite different than if he had identified him as a student, employee, or son. The behaviour appropriate to each role helps to make these social interactions a stable and predictable process at interpersonal, group, and societal levels.

Five broad patterns of social relationship exist in every society and historical period. One form may dominate and give a distinctive character to the social order, but the patterns are not mutually exclusive. A brief reference to them by way of definition is useful for the understanding of the operation of the institutions in the Sri Lankan culture:

Kinship: This is an important basis for social relationships in all societies and may be considered the dominant

form when the family carries primary responsibility for political, economic, and religious activities.

Faalty: This is a form of personal relation in which an individual receives loyalty and service from a group of dependent individuals in return for favours, protection, and the maintenance of order. Fealty is most commonly associated with feudalism, but can still be found in modern political life, in the entertainment world, and in large organizations, as when an important figure has a loyal coterie that moves around with him.

Status: Status-based relations may be a key form of organizing a society when social positions are ranked in terms of privilege and of a determination of each individual's proper place. Emphasis here is placed upon fixed vertical relations; horizontal or peer relations are of lesser consequence, and there is little or no room for change in people's status in a hierarchy over time.

Contractual: Contract-based relations do not entail diffused responsibilities of persons from one another, but are limited to specific matters that are explicitly defined in terms of promissory obligations. The values attached to such obligations vary across societies, and in Sri Lanka they are not placed in ranks of high significance.

Bureaucracy: This is a pattern of social relationships that is more specialized, impersonal, dependent on written rules, and secular.

It bears repeating that all these forms may be found in any one instance. The important point for this study will be the determination of the relative importance of these forms in

such instances. Understanding a situation of bureaucratic relationships, for example, may require an interpretation of another type of relation, say a relation based on fealty.

Social organization may be studied in terms of both structure and process. Thus, we may examine the relations between persons or groups and also the structure of those relations. We may study the process of human relations between managers and workers in an organization, or the structure of the organization itself and its influence on these relations. A structure refers to the pattern that exists among relations. Structures in that sense are found generally at three levels: the group, the society, and organization. Organization is usually larger than the group and finds its location in between group and society. It may be thought of figuratively as 'little societies' or as 'large groups.'

(c) A note on the philosophical foundations of Sri Lankan culture:

Sri Lankan society belongs to the Indian civilization, one of the three greatest in the world, the other two being the Western and the Chinese. Each of these traditions has accentuated one of man's three basic problems which Bertrand Russell viewed as three basic conflicts: man against nature, man against other men, and man against himself. As Huston Smith (1957) says these conflicts may be roughly viewed as man's natural, social, and psychological problems. It may be that the West has accentuated the natural problem, China the social, and India the psychological. This cultural phenomenon of India, as expressed in the Indian philosophies may have

had some impressions on the ways of thinking of peoples in Sri Lanka.

2. Family in Sri Lanka

(a) Structure and functions

Basic to all types of social organization is the family. The traditional Sri Lankan family, under ideal conditions, is limited to members of a single extended multi-generational family. Through the device of kinship, adults of various types and parents could be included in a household, thereby sharing in the economic and social-psychological security as well as the conflicts and anxieties of other family members. Members of both sexes and all age groups are usually present in the household.

Family is the institution which concerns itself with love, sexual relationships, marriage, reproduction and child-bearing, socialization of the child, and the various statuses and roles involved in kinship organization. The most important functions are briefly described below.

Biological functions: Fundamentally, the family is recognized as the institution responsible for biological survival. In this procreative role, first comes is the fulfillment of sexual needs. Sexual relations in general, and marital relations in particular are not fetishized, but are considered rather as casual and inevitable incidents in a person's life (Pieris, 1956:197). Traditionally, marriage is proposed by parents or others rather than by the mates themselves. Opportunity for the

mates to assess each other in terms of likes and dislikes, attitudes and interests, and other personality characteristics is not considered as essential preparation for marriage. The will of parents and adults of the family, and the judgment of the horoscope reader in this tradition prevail that of the mates in arriving at the decision to marry or not. Marriage is also viewed as a means to enhance the bases of wealth and power in the family. As much as the marriage itself, the other biological functions of family such as child-rearing are also considered natural, and therefore, inevitable or accidental rather than purposeful. In the process of modernization and urbanization these traditional functions have given their way to the currents of change, though the fundamentals and their influence remain largely unchanged in the wider segments of the society.

Economic Functions: Since the family household is relatively large, appreciably large resources and incomes are required. In the division of labour within the family, everyone is expected to work, but work done by older family members is considered of great moral worth than that done by younger family members, and work done by men considered of greater moral worth than that done by women. However, every member is expected to contribute to the well-being of the unit. Marriage does not necessarily break up economic ties in the family, but rather, the parents expect to regularize economic relations vis-a-vis themselves. While individual wealth could be achieved, one is expected to devote such wealth to support one's family members, at least when needed. Family members and relatives have a claim to seek economic support

In difficulty. Family members are expected to learn the credit or trade that has been traditionally maintained by the family or otherwise take up economic roles which are better respected. Thus, there is an interdependence between the family unit and individual member.

The function of socialization: The family is also the agency chiefly responsible for the child socialization processes. In civilized societies especially, the child-training function has come to have tremendous significance (Kephart, 1961: 4). The importance of childhood and the effects of home life on personality and character formation have been widely recognized (Whiting, 1953; Adams 1960; Gore 1965; Mandelbaum, 1970; Gupta, 1974). In fact, as the basic primary group the family probably has more to do with the child's ultimate behavioural pattern than does any other single environmental factor, and it is on this assumption that the 'broken home' has come to be blamed for so many of our delinquency problems (Kephart 1961: 4).

The child learns a system of control through the family. Sri Lankan traditional family is organized hierarchically in which the right to authority in the family is limited to those having the ascriptive qualification of the oldest married male. In part, age is held to have intrinsic merit and, in part, because men are held to have appropriate moral qualifications, family authority is limited to older men. The elderly are venerated as repositories of communal and family wisdom. However, the right to control family members is not reserved for male, but it flows down according to age structure. Parents

have the general control over almost every aspect of life ranging from eating habits to choice of employment or spouse. The exercise of control could take extreme forms in which the younger members do not have any freedom of choice.

Economic resources available to a family have a clear influence on child-socialization practices within the family. The control of adults over young people, as well as the control of the oldest male over other members of the family is enhanced by a more or less total control over scarce economic resources.

The constant presence of adults and young people of various ages and both sexes meant that infants and young children would be socialized by many people rather than just the mother and perhaps a few siblings. If the mother is unable to perform her child-rearing tasks, numerous substitutes for her would be available. In any event, this meant that the relationship between the mother (and her associates in child-rearing) and the child would involve less intense interaction between the mother and child than would be the case in the smaller nuclear family. Few problems would result if those charged with child-raising responsibilities are consistent in their activities, but marked inconsistencies could produce serious problems for both adults and children in the family.

Dependence and Independence training: Indulgence of the young child's initial tendencies to be dependent is generally high. On average, at the age between three and a half to four, a child begins to seek independence (Whiting, 1953:92). In response to dependence needs, mothers may behave diffe-

rently depending on how free they are at home. In the extreme case of care, the mother may hold the child most of the day and give it her undivided attention: she sits either on the earth floor or on a bark slab under the porch of the family dwelling with the baby nestling on her outstretched legs. At night, the infant sleeps cuddled by her side. Whenever she has to move, she carries the child with her cradled in her arm. During infancy the response to discomfort which is most strongly established is that of seeking help by crying or asking for it. A motive which becomes strongly established during infancy is the wish to be near to and touch the mother. Almost all the pains and discomforts which an infant experiences are reduced while he is either sitting in his mother's lap or lying by her side. He is fed there, he sleeps there, and he is warmed and cooled, scratched and petted there-always while in bodily contact with his mother.

At the other end of care(not the extreme end),there is the mother who due to various engagements such as field or paid work, does not carry the child about with her. However, he is not left alone, but is not in such continuous physical contact with the mother. Often the infant child is left in care of an older child or female relative, and one may surmise that the nurturance of the infant under these conditions is not likely to be quite so efficient and meticulous as when the mother herself is responsible.

Eventhough the two cases above are seemingly different the ultimate result is likely to be the same, i.e. infant's search for further dependence. The more you care, the more

will be the infant's desire to depend, and the less you give attention the more will be demanded of the same. Thus, in any case there is no escape from giving attention to a baby. However, the manner in which you care the infant during the first two years shall determine how he is going to demand attention. In other words, the tendencies for the child to seek independence is functional upon the previous learning, at least as much strongly as that desire for independence is natural.

Parents and adults in the Sri Lankan family tend to pay attention to child's movements seeking independence and intervene abruptly without understanding the consequences. If siblings fight among themselves, the older ones are whipped. They are told that a big bear or a wicked ghost will take them off if they do not mind. Over and over again they are told that they should love their parents and their siblings and should not be angry with them nor fight with them. They are punished for destroying bird's eggs or hurting any bird or animal. Probably more important than this direct punishment is the fear of aggression which they acquire by observing their parents and hearing them discuss sorcery and fighting. They are admonished never to laugh or make fun of other people lest they be attacked. They are warned always to be polite, to speak to people and to speak pleasantly. The result is that a child is afraid to express aggression for fear of punishment. Independent moves are discouraged when such need encouragement, and therefore, the child becomes dependent rather than independent.

(b) Impact of family on personality and behaviour

The functions of family lay the foundations of individual personality and behaviour. They are subject to change over time as the individual gains experience in the larger society. However, such change may be so insignificant that family functions may explain a large part of individual personality characteristics and behaviours at the time that the person begins to play a productive role in the society. Some of these characteristics of personality and behaviour which are directly relevant to the understanding of persons behaviour in organizations are discussed below.

Dependence: The decision making system in the family is hierarchical in which major decisions are made by father or mother or by both. As the desire to be independent is curtailed since childhood, the individual develops the tendency to look for approval from the hierarchy. Decisions means value judgments, and its the adults who have the right to pass such judgments since they have the most experience and power to allocate resources. The exercise of control could take extreme forms in which the younger members do not have any freedom of choice. Some form of freedom for the children is often assumed right when they have completed schooling and ready to earn. Parents and adults would make every effort to ensure a riskless environment for the young member to take decisions. To the contrary, he is not allowed to take a personalistic approach to problems. Conformity as opposed to diversity is promoted.

Lack of self confidence: The impact of the collectivity and hierarchy on the individual is such that he hardly gets opportunity to assess the strengths and weakness of himself realistically. What one can and should do is often the version of some other adult advisor. Thus, instead of a confidence in the self determination of future, a probabilistic view of opportunity for better life is cultivated. The fatalistic and defeatist viewpoints surrounding the family environment provide further support to uphold such probabilistic views.

Accepting the status quo: The family cultivates a system of order among things and relations that should be accepted without challenge. The established patterns of behaviour, say with regard to marriage, allocation of wealth among family members, and maintenance of workmanship with regard to given trades or crafts, are to be followed and those who deviate face deterrence by such means as cutting off economic and social support. The need to evaluate past arrangements periodically for the introduction of change as a means to progress is not valued.

Work as means: Attitude to work is largely governed by the subsistence economics or semi-feudal beliefs that the individual must work in order to earn the life. This is in contrast to the value of work itself as an end that seems to be a dominant attitude toward work in the West (Newman, 1972:347). The attitude is: work to live rather than live to work.

The family contributes its share to the development of stereotyping attitudes along division of work. The assignment of

values to particular jobs as of high or low status begins in the family. As a result of the experience for centuries of colonial dominance, the Sri Lankans have developed a particular preference for white-color jobs, especially in the government services. Parents who are desirous of determining the future of their children, particularly with a concern for receiving a reasonable dowry from the bride for the sons in marriage, or finding a wealthier and respected son-in-law for the daughter, children are directed to jobs which are considered of high status. Thus, the economic function of family has a role in cultivating work attitudes among children. These attitudes do not promote respect for, and the will to undertake whatever is necessary to get the job done; getting the job done is not the primary, most important end. One should not 'get one's hands dirty' in trying to get some work done. Thus a desire to improve one's lot, to accumulate or to get ahead, becomes relatively less important. Criteria of success are not defined in terms of results but according to the status values attached.

Respect for authority: Family hierarchy demands obedience and respect for authority. The child learns this almost everyday as, for example, when parents, particularly the father returns home he has to get up from his seat. Parents expect the child to take permission to do things, even a minor thing like leaving home to the town or the near-by shop, or to play with friends.

A mentality is thus developed to believe that authority is positional, and it grows with wisdom and experience which build up with age. The fact that the merit of an idea has little to do with the source, therefore, is an alien concept for the definition of authority. Authority is related to person and therefore, to question the merit of an idea is to challenge the person, i.e. the authority. In fact, such a perception of authority and its meaning is encouraged by elderly resentment of alternatives from the younger members.

Lack of system and perfection: The pattern of influence that the family has on the personality and behaviour of the individual as described above does not demand from the young to develop the habit of planning and scheduling his day-to-day work and be systematic. When things occur is not important. Effective use of one's own time and effective scheduling of independent activities require a precision of timing. The importance of order and precision is undermined in the manner the daily activities such as taking food, keeping the house, and meeting commitments, are accomplished.

Attitude toward opposite sex: The family set up contributes to the view that males and females have different roles to play in society. Mother's influence on the child is as a parent rather than as a woman. However, father-mother relations and treatment of sisters differently from brothers in the family make children of both sexes to accept that they have different roles to play. The female is weaker and must, therefore, be protected. Major decisions must come from, or must have the approval of male.

3. Caste in Sri Lanka

(a) Structure and functions

In the writings of anthropologists the word 'caste' is used in two different senses. As an ethnographic category it refers exclusively to a system of social organization peculiar to Hindu India, but as a sociological category it may denote almost any kind of class structure of exceptional rigidity as in the case of aristocratic 'class.' The tendency to stress the 'status-group' component of caste prejudices the whole question as to what is the essential sociological nature of the Indian phenomenon (Leach, 1960: 1). The word 'caste' as it occurs in this study should always be taken to have its ethnographic Hindu meaning, because the phenomenon in question in Sri Lanka is descended from Hindu India. Since a variety of castes is found in many countries, the use of a common definition has been difficult. However, Kroeber (1931) highlights some essential features: 'A Caste may be defined as an endogamous and hereditary subdivision of an ethnic unit occupying a position of superior or inferior rank or social esteem in comparison with other subdivisions.' This definition puts the emphasis upon endogamy and rank and therefore, it is likely to give a one-sided picture of the Sri Lankan situation. It slurs the really crucial fact that caste is a system of inter-relationship and that every caste in a caste system has its special privileges. Definitions of Indian caste have usually taken the form of a list of cultural traits which are supposed to form a syndrome. The authorities, while admitting a great range of detailed variation, have mostly maintained that there is a certain minimal set of primary characteristics which together

embody the real essence of caste everywhere; Hutton, for example, holds that normally caste conforms to the following criteria:

1. A caste is endogenous.
2. There are restrictions on commensality between members of different castes.
3. There is a hierarchical grading of castes, the best-recognized position being that of the Brahman at the top.
4. In various kinds of context, especially those concerned with food, sex and ritual, a member of a 'high' caste is liable to be 'polluted' by either direct or indirect contact with a member of a 'low' caste.
5. Castes are very commonly associated with traditional occupations.
6. A man's caste status is finally determined by the circumstances of his birth, unless he comes to be expelled from his caste for some ritual offence.
7. The system as a whole is always focused around the prestige accorded to the Brahmans (Leach, 1960: 2,3).

In the Sri Lankan caste system, though hierarchically organized, one finds it difficult to locate a parallel to the position held by Brahmans in the Indian situation. The Indian situation may again differ from the Sri Lankan case in regard to rigidity of the system. Influenced by Buddhism, a religion which rejects caste, the caste system of the Sinhalese is seen as more flexible. However, the system among Tamil communities in Sri Lanka is much like the Indian, rather than the Sinhalese.

**The contemporary castes and subcastes in approximate
order or rank with most common English Designations**

<u>Caste</u>	<u>Sub-caste</u>
Govl-vamsa (cultivators of the soil)	Radala (King's office holders) Mudall (Leaders of the people) Katupulle (King's clerical servants) Porovakkara (Wood cutters to the King)
Karava (Fishermen)	Karava porovakkara
Salagama (Cinnamon peelers)	Hevapanne (Soldiers)
Durava (Toddy tappers)	.
Navandanna (Artisans, including smiths of all types)	
Hannall (Tailors)	
Rada (Washers to high castes)	
Badahala (Potters)	
Panlkk (Barbers)	
Berava (Tom-tom beaters)	
Kinnara (Mat weavers)	
Rodi ('Outcastes,' beggars)	

(Bryce and Ryan, 1953: 93,94)

The term Govl-vamsa or Govigama means literally "cultivators of the soil" and it is the cultivating, the farmer, caste which is at the peak of the Sinhalese hierarchy. While cultivation is not actually a caste monopoly, and many members are not in fact cultivators, presumably they have been distinguished from others because no low services or cultural practices were ascribed to them, as was the case for other castes who farm. Their numerical importance is singular. One would scarcely expect to find the peak of a social pyramid larger than its base, but it is probable that the Govigama constitute at least

one-half of Sinhalese society.

Karava, the 'fishing caste' of the Sinhalese, is heavily concentrated in the coastal area. More than any others, they have embraced Christianity, principally Roman Catholicism. This can be a product of their coastal position and is perhaps related to their less firm enmeshment in the Sinhalese feudal order and hence greater susceptibility to foreign influence.

Caste among Tamils in Sri Lanka is worthy of separate treatment. Historically, Tamils have been concentrated mostly in the North and North-east of the Island and the caste distinctions are grounded in the North, Jaffna. Tamils have had connections both to the South, with Sinhalese Buddhists, and to the North, with Tamil Hindu India. At least fifty castes are found among the Tamils in Sri Lanka (Banks, 1960: 61). The important castes are Brahmans (priests); Vellalas (landlords), the politically dominant caste; Koviyars (servants of Vellalas), small renter of land and formerly chattel slaves; Barbers; Washermen; and Pallas (landless labourers), who are also formerly chattel slaves.

There are some noteworthy structural features of the Tamil caste system. Except among Brahmans, there is a total absence of any prohibition on widow remarriage, and there is no suggestion that the woman who remains a widow is especially virtuous. Another peculiar feature is that temple entry is permitted to Vannars (washermen to the Touchable castes), while Barbers are excluded, which is the reverse of the South Indian rule.

The social and economic functions: Caste social and economic functions can be categorized as Public and Private services. Caste functions are socio-economic because their activities are related to social situations or occasions and a system of payment is often associated with it. The Washermen are called for service at the occasions like annual festivals at the Temple, the Devale or any other common function of a religious nature at a religious centre for the duty of cleaning cloths to decorate the temples or to make effigies of goddesses from starched white sheets for Gammaduva all of which are public occasions. Some payment is made by the Temple society and the amount varies according to the job. As private jobs, they do clean the cloths of a given number of families by periodical visits and the payment for that service varies according to the status and wealth of the patron. Boravayo services are made available at similar public occasions. They provide the ceremonial drumming during rituals and also do public announcements. In addition to the rendering of these services to individuals, they often act as dancers, or astrologers. The rules of payment are as same as for Washermen. A few castes, such as Achari and Valan karayo may not be paid by temple for services but individuals have to pay set prices for their services. In the Tamil caste system, payment in kind is common. Vellalas reward the members of other castes for their caste services in a variety of ways. Brahmins get a salary from the temple funds, plus various presents or rewards from families for specific services they render.

The origins and foundations: Throughout Sri Lanka, the origins of caste differentiation tend to be interpreted popularly

in terms of feudal services and occupations. It is highly probable, however, that many of the castes represent immigrant groups quite possibly having had predetermined statuses, while others arose through division of labour and other schismatic processes within the society (Bryce and Ryan, 1960:11,12). Thus, specific coastal castes undoubtedly have nitary tribal or caste origins in India. Upon what basis the interior, or Kandyan, castes were originally differentiated no one can say, although the most common designation of a caste is one differentiating it by traditional, feudal role. In the sense that most castes, including those probably of late South Indian origin, claim a service role or occupation as their primary distinguishing feature, we might, in terms of Risley's early classificatory attempts, say that most castes are of 'functional' type (Risley, 1915:78).

It seems probable that the component groups of the Sinhalese people accepted generally the Indian role and status definitions, adapting and modifying them to fit new balances of power, and new religious, political and economic systems (Yalman, 1960: 80-85). If the Sri Lankan caste system (at least that of the Sinhalese) is in fact a unique variant upon the Indian theme, what then are its chief features in concept, structure, and functioning?

Sinhalese caste structure is composed of communal groups standing in some hierarchical position in reference to at least some others. These groups, the castes and less frequently subcastes define the boundaries of the individual's friendly, egalitarian, and approaching behaviour. Hierarchical position of a caste tends, in Sri Lanka, to be in inverse relationship to the nume-

rical size, the highest caste including perhaps one-half of the population. There is virtually no formal organization either of the caste, the subcaste, or the system of caste, although to some extent they were formerly partially organized under a feudal bureaucracy.

(b) Impact of Caste on Individual Personality and Behaviour

In order to evaluate the possible impact and influence of caste on individual, it is important to re-iterate the functional characteristics of caste in Sri Lanka. The caste system has been differentiated by occupational or ceremonial responsibilities, or both, frequently amounting to monopolies. Caste responsibilities or prerogatives or obligations tend to be performed by members of a lower caste toward a higher or to the temple and, in earlier times, the king. Their performance entails reciprocal action on the part of the higher caste where a contractual economy is lacking. Former service to the king, the feudal lord, or the temple, whether occupational or ceremonial, is usually viewed as the chief functional characteristic of a caste and in many instances is preserved today in tradition and in the caste name, and in some actual behaviour. The manifestation of social distance in overt conduct vary in a rough relationship to the disparity in status between the persons. Although physical segregation in village residence is common, tabus of caste avoidance seldom apply to the whole gamut of human relationships, and are most pronounced in situations involving home, family, and food. Legal disabilities formerly associated with caste are abolished, but extralegal disabilities persist,

overtly as in certain temple functions, covertly as in prejudiced appointments to office. Symbols of social distance vary widely by region, but range from differential expressions in salutation to proscription of articles of clothing and ornament, and insistence upon worshipful behaviour toward the high caste.

A further summary exposition of caste relations in modern Sri Lanka, especially in the urban areas, is necessary to understand the impact of caste on personality and behaviour in the present day context. In Colombo, caste distinctions and discriminations approach the minimum, and the institution itself mainly exists below the surface of easy visibility. No person's caste is signified by his dress nor are symbols of status, systematic segregation in housing, or discriminatory treatment in schools, temples, or public places apparent. Although ancient caste roles have affected the modern occupational structure, conformity to traditional occupations is of no great importance in the urban life or economy. Typically, the sophisticated Goylgama urbanite will assure the outsider that caste is meaningless in modern urban Sri Lanka, except for the quaint retention of caste preference in marriage, and the superficial observer usually agrees. Also of central importance in the traditional caste system is the hierarchy of caste prestige. In the urban climate the hierarchy yet stands, but it is largely shorn of behavioural manifestations. Caste is a subjective reality even when behaviourally inconspicuous. To the person of low caste, birth status is always a potential explanation of untoward occurrences. On the other hand, leading citizens of low caste enjoy with sardonic amusement being offered honorary posts which are interpretable only as organizational techniques to

demonstrate that 'caste does not matter.' Despite the breakdown of feudal caste roles in the Low Country Sri Lanka, and particularly in the city, not all persons of lower caste have left their traditional vocations even in Colombo. Several of the old caste occupations are maintained as monopolies although it is obvious that not all members of the caste are associated with such work. Since occupations of high status in the urban environment have been dissociated from caste, the retention of such roles is among the lower economic classes. On the basis of above, we shall now examine the impact of caste on individual personality and behaviour. We will use the same framework adopted earlier to review the impact of family on individual personality and behaviour.

Dependence: The pattern of dependence that the family system promotes, as discussed earlier, is characterised by a tendency to look for approval, conformity, and acceptance in the absence of alternatives for effective choice. The caste system is hierarchically organized in such a way that the low-status castes have fewer alternatives as the status position goes down. Occupational alternatives are determined and the system of payment for services is so structured that the individual of low caste cannot determine price. Caste is both a system of social interrelations and a psychological order. The interrelations are governed by values which promote virtual acceptance of the will of dominating castes. It is a psychological order in the sense that the lower caste as well as higher caste individual has a mental framework justified by the caste stratification. Many things and functions are

fixed in a mental framework and beyond which a person would not expect to move. In this divided world, two features are dependency-oriented. Firstly, certain functions which are of low status enable those who are responsible for functions of higher status to functionally order the dependency pattern because of positional power, as in the case of landlord requesting the landless to perform certain functions for him (Tamil caste system). Secondly, the economic strength to demand services and unilaterally decide the value of such services. This allocative power, together with the power of hierarchical position, enables the higher castes to keep others dependent.

Lack of self confidence : Caste status and functional differences place artificial limits on opportunities available to low caste individual to assess his/her own strengths and weaknesses in different spheres of activity. He is denied opportunity to develop variant interests and test own potentials. The self contained environment for the use of ability prevents the development of confidence in the self to determine the future. In fact, to the contrary, one is made to believe or accept that one has only a limited range of ability as defined by the caste functions and thus the future is largely predetermined.

Accepting the status quo: A challenge to the status quo could come only by individual effort which is difficult, of course. Marriage across caste is one method of changing the caste position of getting rid of the boundaries of it, but as Bryce and Ryan say even endless cross marriages may not

draustically reduce the caste distinction primarily because it is a psychological phenomenon as well. For the same reason, hierarchically upward movement for better economic strength may not eliminate the subtle aspects of caste relations.

Work as means: The attitude that work is to live rather than live to work needs a fresh look in the context of caste. Traditionally, the people probably enjoyed the caste roles as in the case of participating in public functions associated with religious institutions or rituals. With the changing economic environment in modern times, there is no doubt that the new generations working in caste-determined jobs find that the tasks are monotonous, and that they are not materially or mentally rewarding enough. In the circumstance, one could expect low caste or functional caste people, as in fishery, pottery, or washing business consider that the "work is to live" rather than an enjoyable and psychologically rewarding exercise. Although certain functions such as washing and fishing are capitalistically organized today, both proprietor and his hired laundrymen are of Hena caste in the washing business, and Karava caste in the case of large fishing boat and netting organizations. Thus, technological advancement in the particular trade must have added flesh to the meaning of work, but again it is only for the few rather than the majority.

Caste is a primary source of gradation of work by status. Undoubtedly, such an approach to organization of work creates artificial and therefore, inefficient boundaries of work. The "principle" of division of work involved here is "unscientific"

and unable to obtain the economic advantages of the rationality of functional specialization.

Lack of system and perfection: System and perfection requirements of caste functions are all defined and embedded in the structure of caste system. Tradition governs the system design, and there is little freedom for the functionary to change. Improvement is not expected because each function as designed has its place in the system, and a change in one element would require change in other parts and perhaps in the system as a whole which is unthinkable; systems are grown over centuries of experience and the confidence in the history is strong to believe in its usefulness for the day. Thus, the belief is that, over time, the necessary perfection has been achieved and the current responsibility is to maintain and protect it. In the final analysis, it is alien to the system to envisage change of system design and improvement of system performance to achieve higher levels of output.

4. Ethnicity in Sri Lanka

(a) Structure and functions

The Sri Lankan society is comprised of three distinct ethnic communities : Sinhala (74%), Tamil (18%), and Muslim(6%). The Sinhalese, who are widely believed to be the descendants of Aryans of North India, are often identified into two regional groupings, namely, low country and up country or Kandyan. The Sinhalese living in the low country which is about half

of the total Sinhala population had the first opportunity of interacting with the Europeans and thus they became the first to exploit economic and professional advantages offered to them by the foreign administration. Their early mastery of the English language gave them a competitive edge over the Kandyans in matters of employment and commerce. The fact that the Kandyans were shut off from foreign influence until British Occupation in 1918, and that the commercial plantation deprived the peasantry of their traditional land and resources, had delayed their joining the main stream socio-economic development in the island. It is important to remember that the up country - low country division is still in the consciousness of the two groups, and it often surfaces at the organizational level.

The Tamil community, which is concentrated in two provinces - North and East - has its spread all over the island as well. Outside the two provinces, the Plantation Tamil community which has a recent Indian origin, is the largest. Tamils live in the urban areas of Colombo, Galle and suburbs as well. Distinct cultural, religious, and linguistic factors separate the Tamils from the Sinhalese.

Like the Sinhalese, the Tamils too are differentiated into two groups. The majority, about 2/3, are identified as Ceylon Tamils or those who have lived in the island for the known history. The plantation Tamils, the other 1/3, are of a recent origin and came to the island in the process

of plantation of tea and rubber by the British early this century. The 'Ceylon' Tamils, like the low country Sinhalese, are exposed to the foreigner, have learned English, and privileged in commerce and better employment in comparison to Indian Tamils in the plantations. The plantation community had been given little opportunity to mix with the rest of society by way of education and diverse employment, and therefore, they are cut off from the benefits or influence of the mainstream developments of the economy. The typical plantation family will have parents and children of the working ability attending the work of plantations as the major occupation of their life. They have remained an illiterate unemancipated group of estate labourers (Warnapala, 1973; 4), and positive changes have reached them only in recent years.

The Muslim community, composed of Ceylon Moors and Indian Moors, is spread well in the Island. Their main economic interests are in trade, both inland and foreign. Their cultural and religious bonds keep them in a strong communal solidarity though it does not affect their relationship with other community groups. Being confined to trade, the Muslims have largely neglected education for children, and therefore, they are not well represented in the public services.

Communal harmony is a subject of relevance to management of organizations. If all the communities live in harmony, then the organizations should have little to be concerned with issues of communal conflict. The peaceful coexistence, however, does not mean that perceptual differences among them will not be there or such differences are of minor importance. Perceptions which are antagonistic lead to conflictual relations, while other perceptions of differences such as of a cultural nature, enable the organizations to adjust and accommodate communal diversity. Thus, this study is concerned with perceptions leading to conflict and perceptions of communal uniqueness.

Among the various perceptions are (a) the overall perception of each community of its relative position in society, (b) the socio-economic status of itself and of the other communities and (c) the benefits it enjoys or what it has failed to derive from the socio-economic changes and the development processes during the last three decades. On the one hand, there is a common perception amongst sections of the Sinhala majority that the Tamil (Ceylon) community enjoys a privileged position, has received benefits from the economy which are far out of proportion to the share it has in the total population,

and that the average standard of living or income of Tamil households is significantly higher than that of the Sinhala households. The Tamil community, on the other hand, entertains the perception that they have been a disadvantaged community, have not been able to get an equitable share of the benefits of socio-economic development and therefore, that they have seriously fallen behind the levels of well-being achieved by the Sinhala community.

Both these perceptions of the Sinhala and Tamil communities are highly distorted and exaggerated and do not reflect the real situation. While disproportionate shares of gains and benefits may have accrued to small segments of the Ceylon Tamil population, and again while political processes may have had the effect of placing sections of the Tamil community in seriously disadvantaged conditions, it would not be true to say that in terms of average socio-economic well-being the Tamil community has been adversely affected (Marga, 1985: 6). At the same time, it would not be correct to say that the socio-economic status of the average Tamil household is significantly higher than that of the Sinhala household.

The second area of concern for perceptual differences between the Tamil and Sinhala communities is the language rights in the arenas of education and administrative/judicial affairs of Tamil-speaking areas and of Tamils in other parts of the island. The language in administration and judicial

affairs is a major issue concerning the Tamils resident in other districts than North and East. Eventhough legal provisions are there, the failure to implement fully and effectively seems to be at the root of the problem here. Beyond all the sorts of implementation problems, the Sinhala community must recognise the fact that the Tamils resident in Sinhala-speaking areas are often reduced to the condition of the illiterate when they receive communication in the official, Sinhala language. The Sinhala perception in this regard seems to be that those Tamils living in the predominatly Sinhala areas must learn Sinhala, as the latter has done so in the Tamil dominant areas.

Thirdly, perceptual differences are felt in the area of education. Tamils perceive that they do not have adequate language schooling facilities in the Sinhala dominant areas and increasingly in recent years, the patterns of higher educational developments have discriminated against the Tamil youth seeking unlvorslty entrance in particular. The Sinhalese perception in this regard is that the recent trends in higher education is an adjustment giving the Sinhala community its due share which it had been denied in the past.

Access to employment and the distribution of employment opportunities raise another area of perceptual differences. The Tamil community claims that they have been denied fair access to employment and that there has been serious discrimination

against them in this field. The Sinhalese side argues, however that the Tamils are over represented in employment, particularly in the public services and professional services.

Fourthly, perceptual disagreement is found with regard to the distribution of state land and land policies relating to land settlement. Along with this aspect of ownership and control is the issue of minority holdings in trade and business in the island. Thus, antagonistic perceptions are present in regard to economic status, language, employment, and ownership of wealth.

Cultural uniqueness of ethnic communities as relevant for organizations is the other aspect of concern here. However, there seems to be a serious lack of literature on this aspect and therefore, it is difficult at this time to identify significant cultural traits peculiar to Tamils and Sinhalese which are relevant to organizations. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, we may consider that all the ethnic groups share the same culture as far as organizations are concerned.

**(b) Impact of ethnicity on individual personality
and behaviour**

Dependence: The perceptual differences among the ethnic groups seem to introduce an element of independence into the dependency syndrome that is supported by family and caste in Sri Lanka. Individuals in organizational context would under the given ethnic relations try to keep away from each other, not readily accepting the authority of persons of other ethnic groups.

Lack of self confidence: Ethnic conflict may promote greater self confidence at the group level. However, the influence at individual level, apart from that trickle down from the group consciousness, is difficult to assess. At a time that the conflictual perceptions are high it is likely that the many would begin to lose faith in the existing order, and as a result they may begin to lose self confidence as well. In the event that one group is clearly dominating and the other group is forced to accept the phenomenon, it is likely that members of the minority group may become less and less confident of the ability of the self to progress. This may mean, ultimately, less confidence in the individual self, but more confidence in group effort

Accepting the status quo: The status quo will be challenged under conditions of perceptual conflict, and change would be demanded by both groups of individual.

Work as means: The meaning of work will be interpreted in economic terms further in order to identify inequalities and injustices of the system of remuneration and allocation of work opportunities. As a result of this trend, there will be little scope for the individual to define the meaning of work differently in relation to other drives of life such as achievement, enjoyment, or advancement. Work will be seen less and less as reasonable means to live.

Respect for authority: Legitimacy of the sources of authority whether the sources be formal or social, would be questioned. The factual bases of knowledge would be reexamined as a pre-requisite to the acceptance of knowledge as a source of authority.

Lack of system and perfection: Ethnic mind may not have a clear relationship with a person's inclination to system and perfection, and therefore, ethnicity is considered here as irrelevant.

Attitude toward opposite sex: Sinhalese, Tamil, and Muslim ethnic communities seem to assign somewhat different values to the role of opposite sexes. The Sinhalese community, influenced by Buddhism, a religion which promotes, at least theoretically, an idea of equal treatment of women, has allowed women to engage or occupy social activities more openly than the Tamil community. The influence of Hinduism on the Tamils, and Islam on Muslims have promoted a rather closed society for women. From an ethnic point view, though all the three communities agree that the male has a dominant role, they do not necessarily agree with regard to the role that the women should play. Thus, in an organizational context, the multiplicity of ethnicity would mean the difficulty of developing a uniform policy and behaviour with regard to the incorporation of sex factor.

6. The Socio-economic class

(a) Structure and functions

With the advance of capitalism and the elaboration of the administrative and judicial structure in British Ceylon (Sri Lanka) during the course of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, a whole new range of employment opportunities was created, while certain functions (e.g. district chief headmen) were maintained with some modification in roles. While subject to contraction at places and times, the number of officers,

roles, and positions of status arising from this process was generally on the increase throughout the period till 1948, the time of political independence for the island. A classificatory description of the routes of elite and class formation and the bases of class status, therefore, does not merely involve stories concerning the rise of this or that individual ; or the pursuit of aggregates based on several case histories; or the recording of group mobility and advancement. It calls for the appraisal of a fluid opportunity structure and a survey of the significance of elite roles at various points of time.

However, uneven in its diffusion, the economic and social transformation taken place in British times, provided individuals and families with the opportunity of achieving and consolidating national elite status through two broad areas of activity: various fields of capital investment and economic enterprise, most of which were new; and educational achievements, generally through the medium of the English language in an environment which gave scope, though with limitations, for the use of such skills. The two avenues of advance were closely intertwined. The hard-earned wealth of the pioneer entrepreneurs enabled them to educate their sons in the best schools; and even to send them abroad for education and professional training at higher levels. The second and third generations employed their education and their social contacts to consolidate their elite status. In other instances, the professions provided a ladder to the ramparts occupied by the national elite and acquisition of landed property from professional earnings, of a judicious marriage, supported the ladder. Again, dowries, strategic marriage

alliances and the establishment of family phalanxes or pelantiyas were another component in class formation.

The British administration in Ceylon needed the assistance of a class of native subordinates in the management of the affairs of their possessions and territory. It was for this class that the opportunities of English education were first created, and the objective was to create a "body of men respectable from superior education and property" to form the essential basis of good government (Pieris, 1964:435). Under the auspices of this policy, English was made available only to the Burghers and the Mudaliyar class whose sons were enabled to become clerks, interpreters, preachers and teachers (Jennings, 1951: 42). The earliest English educated elite was made up of Burghers and Tamils, and Sinhalese, and so was an outgrowth of traditional officialdom. After the spread of plantations in the island the recruiting ground of the English educated middle class formed the clanoman, coconut, gemming, and mining industry of the low country, and the activities connected with trade and commerce.

This middle class became differentiated into two identifiable sectors, now known as the 'upper' and the 'lower' middle class. The nucleus of the middle class proper, or the upper middle class, according to Tambiah, was 'composed of higher administrative servants, those engaged in the professions, those serving in managerial and executive capacities in foreign as well as locally owned plantations or mercantile firms' (Warnapala, 1973:17). The lower middle class which maintained a significant social distance from the upper segment, was composed of clerks employed in both public and private sector, school teachers and other officers in urban employment. This segment was later further differentiated on the basis of ability to speak English.

A brief discussion of the middle class culture is in order. British administrative institutions as transplanted in the island are perhaps most responsible for the moulding of the middle class culture. The basic structures of the ministerial department, and public corporation, the elitist institution of Administrative Class (which came to existence as Ceylon Civil Service), the dominance of the generalist over the specialist, overall treasury control of expenditure and personnel, and control of public service unionism were all entrenched in the country's system of government. These administrative institutions were shaped and run at the top by British administrators who coopted and inducted a segment of the middle class. Society was generally hierarchical with a general tolerance of some inequality. The middle class became intensely competitive lately against the limited opportunities available in the bureaucracy, and there grew up the desire to be more European-like by outlook and mentality.

At this point, it is interesting perhaps to note that the middle class in Europe and North America developed 'naturally' as these societies evolved from the feudal stage into secular-commercial and later industrial modes of production. The middle class of Sri Lanka, as of India and some Afro-Asian colonies, took shape somewhat artificially and exogenetically in response to colonial occupation. Thus, it could be called a 'derivative' of this rather novel situation. They were fundamentally different from their West European counterparts not only in their exogenetic origins but in their lopsidedness too.

The latter were part of an integrated socio-economic and political evolution and hence their middle classes included an economic-commercial wing as well. By contrast, established colonial rule was not keen to encourage local industry to provide a base for enhanced middle class. It was also imitative of the rulers functionally as well as otherwise. Imitation of some institutional ethic, e.g. separation of home from office, punctuality, planning time etc. were necessary to do business with them. In addition, some imitation of their dress was useful to impress the masses with their closeness to the rulers. Imitation often went much further to include other habits (drinking, smoking) and mannerisms with some irrational expectations of efficiency and success through magical association" (Subramaniam, 1982:11).

The lower or poor class of the Sri Lankan society, consisting of workers and peasants, can be divided into three groups of equal status: the urban workers, the estate workers, and the peasants. The economic and social disparity between the lower class and the upper class is wide. Despite remarkable achievements toward an egalitarian society since independence, with high standards of PQLI being reported for Asia, the lower 40 per cent of the population still in the 1980s live below poverty lines, whereas the top decile of population account for a little over 40 per cent of national income.

It may be suggested that a significant segment of the traditional elite groups of the higher class used their bases of power and influence to adapt themselves to the social

transformation of British times by acquiring the necessary levels of western education, by extending their landed base to include cash crop plantations, and by monopolising the key liaison posts in the administrative structure and the nominated legislative councillorships. In these capacities, they formed powerful segments within the newly-evolved Ceylonese national elite. "Pareto's epigram to the effect that History has been 'a graveyard of aristocracies' hardly holds true for the history of British Ceylon(Roberts1973: 278).

(b)Impact on personality and behaviour

Dependence: One could expect legitimately a class structure of the type described above to have a positive contribution to individual's dependence on others. For example, person's dependence on top administrators is promoted because the British holding the top positions of institutions set the example of power, status, and wealth, which was a re-strengthening of the feudal hierarchy. Person's dependence on government institutions for allocation of opportunity and services was also enhanced in the process of class formation.

Lack of self confidence: The structure of class places constraints on the number of alternatives available for the individuals of the lower levels and therefore, it tends to discourage the development of self confidence. However, one could argue that the hierarchy of class by itself is a challenge for the individual in the lower levels to achieve, and thus an encouragement to gain confidence. In any case, the formation of class in Sri Lanka did not enlarge the economic base as in a capitalist economy, and therefore, the majority at lower

levels had limited hope for entering the competitive race in order to rise through the class ladder. Both education and public service employment were two important sources of class formation, but the paradox today is that expanded education with a stagnant public sector frustrates those who aspire to move up.

Accepting the status quo: The 'struggle for independence' from the British colonial masters in Sri Lanka was a peaceful affair when compared to the violent agitations elsewhere such as India and Africa. It was a 'struggle' to occupy the top administrative and government positions by the local middle class rather than a direct challenge to the British or the centre of power. Authority of hierarchy was accepted in principle, as it was evident in the post independent veneration of the Britain as mother country for ideology and advice. Class formation that took place during the colonial period re-settled the position of feudal elite enabling them to continue its tribal character.

Work as means: In addition to the economic role of work, the class structure has added a new meaning to work as a means to gain status and power.

Respect for authority: Established position in class, particularly the middle and higher has re-stated the importance of respect for authority.

Lack of system and perfection: The westernization as a standard spread through classes though it was only the middle and upper segments that could successfully imitate. The tendency

was to imitate, as against the need to develop "system" to suit the local situation; and it yielded poor results while prone to misinterpretation. System, order, and perfection are the traits to acquire through evolutionary experience, as an essential means to success. Furthermore, it is only a small fraction of the population that has learnt by close association with foreigners, at least to imitate.

7. Education

(a) Structure and function

In Sri Lanka, as in other colonial territories, the needs of public services largely determine the pattern and content of education. Supporting this view, Graon(1956;53) wrote that 'whether or not western education aimed first at religious conversion is unclear; that it had a vocational purpose in producing clerks and other such servants of State is certain, as it is that it sought to realign the loyalties of some in terms of ruler identification.' Although educational facilities registered a considerable expansion, this objective underwent no substantial change in the last one hundred years.

The pattern of distribution of educational facilities in the island closely follows the work of the missionary network. Its concentration on certain urban areas as Colombo and Jaffna where Christianity gained ground is today blamed for a lopsided development in education, and subsequent social consequences. Bryce attributes the slowness of Kandyans to appreciate

government employment to the failure to establish schools in the Kandyan territory during the early periods of colonization (1961: 473). The missionary supported schools were open primarily for the children of the well-to-do parents, and 'English education had for long been the preserve of those with the ability to pay fees' (Green, 1956:54).

From the early British period, the curriculum in schools was planned on the pattern of the Grammar school in England and the sole aim was to impart a 'sound classical and mathematical education.' (Rubaru, 1962:264). The study of humanities was promoted, particularly in the belief of 'generalist' administrator for the public services.

Technical and professional subjects in the areas of medicine, engineering, general sciences, and law were introduced to the University but initially and until recently these areas have been largely restricted to higher income groups of urban areas where facilities for secondary schooling are available. Commerce subjects which were originally taught only at the technical school level were introduced to school curricula in the 1960s. Initially these subjects were not attractive, but in the 1970s they have become increasingly popular. However, the universities have not expanded facilities for commerce and management education in the belief that commerce and management graduates would have difficulty in securing employment relevant to their education.

Education system is to be blamed for not having both appropriate content and method of delivery. Teaching in schools as well as in the universities increasingly depend on lecture method where the students are compelled to take notes and

memorise them for competitive examinations for university entry or university final examinations. The poor quality of teaching can be attributed to lack of policy, poor teacher training or lack of training, and low remuneration of teachers at educational institutions. As a result, private tutorials have mushroomed in the past two decades by almost ruining the chances of students not attending tutorials to succeed at examinations on the one hand, and dangerously depreciating the level of education in the formal schools on the other. The inappropriate and outdated methods of teaching continue to ruin the creative abilities of the student.

As a result of the tremendous expansion of educational facilities at the primary level there has grown an almost unbearable pressure on the institutions of higher education in the country. In recent years, approximately 150,000 students appear for the GCE (advanced level) examination conducted annually by the Department of Education from which university admission is determined. The total intake to all the seven universities and one university college in recent years has been around 5,000 per year, which is around 3% of the total student population having some hope of university education. About 30,000 qualify each year to enter the university, according to the minimum aggregate marks required, but the government has to allocate the smaller number of available places among them. Considering the disparities in the distribution of educational facilities at district and rural level, the government has adopted a policy of incorporating merit as well as district basis to determine university entrance (i.e. 30% on merit as shown

in aggregate marks; 65% on merit within the district of school education of the applicant; and further 5% on merit within the district identified as educationally under-privileged).

Today, nearly 80% of the university student population comes from rural areas of the island. Their adaptation to the new life, amidst few hopes for better employment opportunity despite difficult life in the urban setting, is slow, and the lowering standards of university education and its inability to take the challenge of preparing the youth for the development process have reduced the richness of university life. Increasingly, the university campuses have become centres of violence and 'irrational' agitation. As a result, the rest of the world institutional system is losing its faith in university education in this country. The private sector, quite explicitly, has demonstrated an apathetic attitude to employing university graduates. However, there is little doubt that the university education itself has to bear part of the blame for this situation.

(b) Impact on personality and behaviour

Dependence: The education system that has developed over decades if not centuries, has certainly prepared the mind of the person to look for public service jobs. A study of employment expectations was conducted by this author among 837 students entering the university of Sri Jaywardenepura in 1983. The students entered three major branches of study: Arts (41%); Management and Commerce(44%); and Applied Sciences(16%). Among the five factors determining their choice of employment after graduation, "independence at job" ranked last, and "employment stability" ranked second. The first

was opportunity for higher education. Among the types of job preferred, there was an overwhelming preference for public sector and banking sector jobs. More interestingly, only 8 persons (11) indicated preference for self employment (further details of this study are reported later in this paper). Job security and stability are sought as opposed to challenging jobs because the youths are not trained in educational institutions to assess their abilities and make use of them for a meaningful life.

Lack of self confidence: Do our youth have self confidence? The fact that there is almost complete reluctance to assume self employment suggest on the one hand, the perception of impracticability of pursuing a career of own, and on the other, a serious lack of mental and skill preparation for adventure.

Accepting the status quo: Student unrest manifest more of a resentment of institutional order which has failed to accommodate student expectations. The institutional system favours a status-quo at a time the challenge is to change the institutional system through innovation in order to make it better suited for the changing desires of new comers.

Work as means: The education system does not promote a work ethic which is desirable for progressive development of the person or the macro economy. The youth are trained to look for positions to acquire, rather than seeking for meaningful work opportunities to engage themselves and test their abilities.

Respect for authority: Teacher-student relationship is based on the belief that teacher is always right and he/she

is the example for thought and behaviour. Traditionally, teachers occupy an important place in the Sri Lankan society particularly in the rural village. The student is to get disciplined and prepared for society at the school. However, this primary function is gradually withering away from the school environment, and it is replaced by a widening student-teacher gap of understanding. The school system and the higher learning institutions have contributed to the cultivation among students, a respect for authority though the recent phenomenon is somewhat different.

Lack of system and perfections: The type of education given at the educational institutions does not appreciate the system and perfection needs of the productive organization of a modernising society. Further, the deterioration of standards in school in recent times seems to inculcate in the mind of the young 'a system of chaos.'

Attitude toward opposite sex: Mixed education that was followed popularly in the government schools for decades has been a key factor in bringing about an egalitarian treatment of sex difference in society. At the university entrance level there seems an equal distribution of admissions between male and female sexes, and occasional by top scoring is achieved by females. The liberal way of life in the University has given opportunity to increase mutual understanding and appreciation of each other (even though the gates of the female hostels are closed for males after 9.00 pm!). Thus, education has had a positive impact on attitudes toward opposite sex.

8. Buddhism and the philosophical foundations of social values

Buddhist values in Sri Lanka may have had some effect in three areas, namely, attitude to population growth, to education and to trade. "The conclusions are that traditional Sinhalese Buddhism bears some responsibility for retarding economic development through merit-making practices, non-rational attitudes to life and population increase"(Ling, 1980:577). In the study of Buddhism's influence on economic life, attempt has been made to identify a modern version of religion in which the emphasis is placed on rational and scientific aspects of the teaching contained in Buddhist scriptures and ritualism. These modern Buddhists are considered more achievement-oriented than are their rural counterparts (Ames 1968:279), and a parallel to the Calvinistic-Protestant ethic has also been drawn (Long 1980:579). However, a clear relationship of this version of religion to productivity has not been established yet.

A perspective drawn from the Buddhist philosophy could be applied to the study of economic organizations. In dealing with questions of effectiveness in organizations, an organizational member is supposed to choose what is good for the organization. And he is to do so by accepting certain things as truths or facts. The ethics and social philosophy of Buddhism have made their own contribution to answer the question: What should we do? In a Buddhist frame of reference the answer to this question concerns on the one hand -- the individual dimension -- what the goal of a life should be, or is, and what we have to do for self-improvement, self realization, and the attainment of the highest "good." On the other hand, it has a social dimension that concerns what we have to do

for the good or welfare of the society.

The meaning of 'truth' or 'fact' is relevant in understanding the religious ways of defining what is good for the self and society. In the Buddhist teaching, meaning of 'reality', and 'truth' or 'facts' can be found expressed in a variety of ways. For instance, it is found in the Four Noble Truths. In the Buddhist account of reality, truth has been professed with respect to (a) the continuity of individuality, (b) the avoidance of evil and the cultivation of the good along with the purification of mind which tend to make individual's nature better and happier, and (c) the existence of a state when the mind is pure and cleansed of all defilements -- a state of bliss, perfection, realization, and ultimate freedom. There are certain facts regarding this spiritual health about which it is necessary to have "right" views in order that what is good may be defined accordingly.

With regard to the human and physical things or objects in the world, Buddhism also observes two fundamental truths: uniqueness of things (variety) and state of finite (state of constant change).

Buddhism is a way of life, and therefore, it is with the human personality that it is almost wholly concerned. The various metaphors used to describe the essential nature of the personality are meant, inter alia, as a deprecation of any genuine satisfying value in spiritual life to be found either in the pride of life or in the lust of the world.

The depth to which these professions of Buddhism have characterised the values and perceptions of the individual

in the Sri Lankan society can be understood only by a qualified guess.

Buddhist philosophy, inclined to consider the universals in expressing the ideas of things, considers the position of the perceived individual as minimal in favour of the inferred particular and the conceived universal. This differs from the schools of European philosophy in which the individual, i.e. the particular, and the universal were all given equal consideration with respect to their meanings and logical status. In the East the tendency is to lay stress on the significance of the universals only, and it almost neglects the significance of the individual or the particular. Following this thinking, abstract conceptions are treated as concrete realities, and this is manifested in the (Buddhist) influence on education which perhaps promoted the value of humanities as opposed to crafts and technique.

The Buddhist way of expression has a particular liking for the negatives as opposed to the positives. Things are often expressed in negative terms. For example, 'non-grudge' (avera), 'non-violence' (ahimsa) appeal as more positive moral virtues than 'tolerance' and 'peace.' In the final analysis, a negative attitude is taken to life as well, professing ultimate diffusion of life as the end to be desired. Prevention of doing wrong things (e.g. the five precepts, panchaseela) rather than doing positive things, is often stressed.

Buddhism also stresses the supremacy of the universal self over the individual self. The focus is to comprehend the

individual as opposed to the outward behaviour of man. Change is seen as natural and universal, and therefore, the individual's role in contributing to change in the environment is minimized.

Impact on personality and behaviour: In a historical perspective of Buddhist influence in Sri Lanka, one could suggest that Buddhist values about life are radically different from Protestant ethics. A Buddhist is self-contained in a mediocre life in which accumulation for material growth is hardly valued. It is in this context that the meaning of work is often defined.

The Buddhist perception of reality, as mentioned above, is governed by the given truths about the world. It is pertinent to ask whether the acceptance of such truths may shape the process of collection or perception of facts. The failure to attach a prominence to the particular may prevent the development of norms and attitudes which are necessary to appreciate the meaning of perfection as demanded by the modes of behaviour in the modern work organization.

An interest has been expressed in other parts of the world with respect to the possible impact of Buddhist ethics and social philosophy on the patterns of distribution of wealth in Sri Lanka. The concept of "egalitarian society" seems to have been a relevant factor in the shaping of public sector activities and policies in Sri Lanka. Buddhist ideals of sharing and giving have been probably extended to the government arena, compelling the state to distribute 'hand outs' to the public in the guise of welfare. Thus, if that is the case, Buddhism has had its share in promoting the dependency syndrome of the individual personality.

9. Culture-behaviour matrix

This Chapter examined six of the most important socio-cultural institutions of the Sri Lankan society: family, caste, class, ethnicity, education and religion (Buddhism). The purpose of this examination was to ascertain possible relationships of cultural institutions to individual personality and behaviour which are relevant to the management of organizations. The personality and behaviour characteristics that were selected included seven concepts: dependence, lack of self confidence; accepting the status quo; work as means; respect for authority; lack of system and perfection; and attitude toward opposite sex. In the discussion some of the important behaviours which emerged from the concepts in relation to further understanding managerial behaviour are the following :

<u>Concept</u>	<u>Behaviours</u>
Dependence	- Individualism, lack of change
Lack of self confidence	- reluctance to accept responsibility
Accepting the status quo	- doing the minimum in order to survive
Work as means	- status, and income as motivators.
Respect for authority	- status, order and obedience as organizational culture
Lack of system and perfection	- Ad-hoc and situational ways of doing
Attitude toward opposite sex	- Role differentiation by sex

From the analysis, a culture-behaviour matrix emerges (Fig. 1). In this matrix, except the ethnicity factor which is considered only in the context of conflictual perceptions, all other cultural institutions contribute positively to the forma-

tion of a behavioural syndrome which is incompatible with the expectations of Western management theory and practice.

Figure 1: A Culture-behaviour Matrix for Sri Lanka

	family	caste	ethn.	class	edu.	Buddh.
dependence	X	X	-	X	X	X
lack of self confidence	X	X	-	X	X	X
accepting the status quo	X	X	-	X	X	X
work as means	X	X	-	X	X	X
respect for authority	X	X	-	X	X	X
lack of system & perfection	X	X	O	X	X	X
attitude toward opposite sex	X	O	O	O	-	X

X = positive effect on the syndrome
 - = negative effect on the syndrome
 O = no relationship can be seen

Chapter 3

CULTURAL IMPACT ON MANAGEMENT

1. Introduction

The previous Chapter examined at length the possible relationships of the social and cultural institutions with individual personality and behaviour. The discussion showed that a behavioural syndrome that is incompatible with the expectations of the Western managerial theory and practice results from the interface between culture and Western-type organization. The question for the present Chapter is: how does this behavioural syndrome affect the behaviour of individuals in organizations, and how is it reflected in organizational performance particularly in the public sector of Sri Lanka. The aspects of management which are selected for detailed review are given below :

Culture-Related Behaviours	Aspects of Management Process
Individualism, lack of Change	Planning Innovation and change; Commitment
Reluctance to accept Responsibility	Structuring of Organization Authority Responsibility
Doing the minimum in order to survive	Decision Making MBO
Status and Income as motivators	Motivating Rewards
Status, order, and obedience as organizational culture	Evaluating Control, Criteria of success
Ad-hoc and situational ways of doing	
Role differentiation by sex	

2. Planning

(a) The cultural orientation

In the Sri Lankan cultural context, planning is not considered as a pre-requisite to success. This is in contrast to the notions held by counterparts in the developed world. For example, the individual in the liberal society acts in a social environment in which he has considerable choice in what he does. Being individualistic, he expects future events to follow his action now. He is ready, therefore, to take the blame for what may go wrong. Individual responsibility for one's action is stressed in other societies such as India and Sri Lanka as well. This is often explained in terms of the religio-social doctrine of Karma which says that an individual is working out in the present life, the consequences of his actions in the past life, and also those of the present life. However, there are two distinct differences to be noted in these Western and Eastern doctrines. The liberalist notion of the individual refers to the relations between individual and his external environment, the material and social. There, the individual is self-confident in his ability and believes in the desirability of self-determination of his own situation. The Buddhist Karma perspective of the individual, drawn from the principle of moral responsibility of man for his own deeds, refers to individual's actions in relation to one-self, the spiritual and internal environment. Here, the individual is helpless regarding his own situation, and the question of man's ability and desirability of determining the external future environment does not arise.

The doctrine of Karma professes the transference of guilt or merit from one individual to other individuals or to the group as a whole (Thakur, 1981: 72). Attribution of cause to the external like in attributing famine to the wrong deeds of the king for example, is related to the doctrine of Karma. Thus, the idea of controlling the future is alien to the cultures where Karma is valued. Planning is consistent with the liberal value that the individual has confidence in self-determination of his future environment, but not with a system of value in which the individual does not take responsibility in his relation to the material and social environment.

The philosophical foundations which govern the cultural values dampen individual's natural desire to conquer the environment. An individual, lacking self confidence and ready to accept status quo, is subservient to the concept that change is natural, and that man can bring about little change. The dependency character of the individual also reduces the drive for planned change because of his different expectation framework. With planning, one makes commitments for the future. But, the individual who does not value commitment as something to fulfill without fail cannot implement a plan. With this background, let us take a look at some of the policy and planning experiences in the public sector.

(b) The public policy experience

For the impossibility of planning, discrete political decision-making pervades over all the activities of government. Under the circumstances, the policies emerging from public administration had been highly pragmatic, showing tendencies for sub-

optimization. The policy process is incremental or as Richard Rose calls it, discontinuous or cyclical. Incrementalism is far removed from the rational approach to problems in developing countries where fundamental change is required. Incrementalism implies among other things, conservatism, lack of confidence in significant departures and a lack of will to exercise freedom to choose. The definition of a new policy objective represents discontinuity from the past while the policy maker's alternation between options over time represents a cyclical model (Rose, 1976: 7-9). Cyclical and discontinuous policies are adopted when the government wishes to cope with a problem rather than eliminate its causes; resolve dilemmas of choice by making different choices at different points in time; and deal with 'problems' only when they are present and pressing for solutions. This behaviour is reactive, and evasive. It is different from perseverance of a direction based on expectation, prediction, and vision. The question is, when politico-economic phenomena are conducive to planning, would people of Sri Lanka make rational public policies, and would they plan to implement them?

(c) The planning experience

In December 1983, a total of 30 organizations was surveyed by the writer with a view to assessing certain managerial inclinations. The organizations were distributed as, 9 government departments, 5 public corporations, 11 government boards/institutions, and 5 private sector firms. This survey of managerial practices was the first of this kind conducted in Sri Lanka.

From the responses to the questionnaire (Appendix 28) and documents it seemed that planning was an accepted process in 23 of the organizations (77%), even though the plans were not always explicit; in fact the meaning of planning was not agreed upon at least to say whether planning would mean the presence of a plan document. In fact only in 12 organizations there were plan documents made available to the managerial ranks, and in eight others there were documents which can be interpreted as plans (such as budgets) in a limited sense. The existence of plan documents did not necessarily imply that organizations follow planned direction. Only in five organizations that plans guided day to day work of managers in a meaningful way, while in 15 of the organizations plans did not serve such practical purposes. Since independence, Sri Lanka has had numerous socio-economic plans at the national level, including the most popularized Ten Year Plan (1958-67), and Five Year Plan (1972-76), and the fact that their objectives were hardly approached by concerted effort at implementation should not be taken by surprise. The surprise is that at least the printed document came out of planning offices within the early period of the planned period.

Planning habits are all pervasive, and the private sector is not particularly different. In an effort to promote industrial investment, the Central Bank of Ceylon conducted a survey among 5,426 private organizations in 1984, and found that one half of private sector companies do not plan at all; nearly one third had a planning horizon of 1 to 2 years and about a tenth had a planning horizon of over 4 years (Central Bank

of Ceylon, 1984: 46). The reasons given there are quite expectable from investors : insufficiency of resources, uncertainty of the market for products, and problems of obtaining credit. The cultural lack of a planning tradition is exemplified by the nature of explanation given there: planning means dealing with problems of market uncertainties, and mobilizing resources which will not be available without sufficient planning and confidence of business.

Systematic long term planning is foreign to management thinking at the departmental level. Through the preparation of annual budget, the officials face an unavoidable situation of thinking about the next year, and that year's budget is casted on this year expenditure plus general increases in almost all items of expenditure. Programme budgeting as a concept was introduced to budgeting in the public sector in the 1970s and the financial budgets are prepared on the basis of some 'projects' or 'objects' which are not necessarily clarified for objectives and targets. The departmental budget exercise is done in a haste in anticipation of a short dead-line given by the respective ministry which follows Finance Ministry warnings, and therefore, serious thinking as to the work for future is not done at the budget stage. Once the budget estimates are approved, various programmes or projects are thought of, to be financed by drawing from various votes of expenditure, where necessary. Prioritizing cannot be planned out because of various reasons including political considerations. If the Hon. Minister in charge of the Ministry decides to go ahead with a programme or project as important, almost all other programmes and projects are temporarily suspended or given scanty attention, and everyone

is alerted to the specific project at hand. Of course, to succeed there, one person with authority must work at the top hard enough to pull the men together, and the task is easy if the Hon. Minister himself or his Private Secretary is having a personal hand behind the managerial authority. Thus, the process is inherently ad-hoc, un-balanced, and un-systematic. Caiden and Wildavsky's work on planning and budgeting in poor countries cites sufficient international parallels to this from the third world countries. Their thesis of "anti-planning phenomena" in LDCs can be enriched by adding a cultural variable into the explanation.

An important assumption underlying the future-orientation in planning is the realistic or pragmatic evaluation of what can be achieved in the future which is an equalization of one's capacity and objectives. The dependent and confidence-lacking personality finds comfort with the idealistic estimations when planning is requested in the organizational hierarchy. Planning efforts in Sri Lanka are idealistic in the sense that costs are under estimated, benefits are over-estimated, and targets are set at higher levels. Idealism affects the extent of clarity, detail, and logic in implementation. Organizations are overly optimistic about achieving objectives on the one hand, and on the other, they do not have faith in the means toward goal achievement, i.e. commitment to the planned promise, and persistent hard work, as understood in the West. A fact is that the inherited wealth as opposed to the recently accumulated wealth, and perhaps the faith in luck are valued more than hard work. Hard work is interpreted often

to mean 'working to earn soon' rather than being systematic and future oriented. The predominant tendency is to focus on the short-run with a view to earning the investment as early as possible. By doing so, the necessary bases for long term development are undermined or destroyed. In the public sector, a drive to accumulate is not operative, and therefore, the tendency is to do the minimum as required by the short-run perspective.

(d) Innovation and Change

In the Survey of Managerial Practices, managers were asked to comment on their experience of introducing innovations and change. There seemed to be a widespread lack of understanding the real meaning of innovation. The ideas showed that the changes they wanted to introduce were of a superficial nature. Even in regard to such changes, success stories were obtained only from 14 organizations (47%). The general attitude toward change was rather negative in 17 organizations, and only six organizations exhibited an over-all positive attitude.

The experience of introducing administrative reforms in the public sector has not been encouraging. The first serious attempt at an overview of the entire problem of administration and development was made in 1966, by the Committee of Permanent Secretaries on Administrative Reforms (known as Rajendra Committee). This was followed by the appointment of a task force on administrative reforms consisting of local as well as UN officials. Yet the basic approach to reforms remained as before, and whatever changes were introduced from time to time were ad-hoc and piecemeal... (SLIDA:1983,67).

At times, it was felt that the lack of political interest in reforms is at the root. In 1977, the present government appointed a committee of members of Parliament to report on the bureaucracy. The committee, consisting of young members of Parliament who were by no means experts in administration, made several, seemingly useful, recommendations. A cabinet decision to introduce work norms to government departments was one of the results followed, even though the implementation of that decision has become a problem since then. A second decision was the setting up of the present Parliamentary Committee On Public Enterprise (COPE). The COPE meets regularly and reviews progress of various enterprises and organizations under the Ministerial set-up of the public sector, and mostly meaningful discussions take place there. The officials are pressurized to find better answers to problems! However, the lack of follow-up work, and the fact that it does not exercise control with rewards/punishments, there is not much influence of its deliberations on the performance of enterprises.

In the arena of district administration there has been important changes including (a) decentralized budgeting, (b) District Minister system (c) District development councils, and (d) Integrated Rural Development Programmes (IRDP). Since district administration has only a marginal interest of the scope of this study, these reforms are not detailed out here. In any case, the experience is that these changes have not produced any tangible results, except in the case of IRDPs, which are funded and assisted/controlled by international donor agencies such as World Bank and SIDA.

A recent Colloquium on Administrative Reforms (SLIDA) concluded, inter alia that,

- a. the approach to reforms has been gradualistic, ad-hoc and fragmentary;
- b. they fail because of lack of political support;
- c. structural changes have not been accompanied by significant changes in behaviour and attitudes toward achievement and motivation;
- d. personnel administration has not received due attention.

The behavioural syndrome which we discussed in the previous Chapter should explain most of these observed shortcomings.

3. Structuring of Organization

The structure of organization is characterized by excessive centralization of managerial work at the top of structure, very often in a single important person. This tendency is actively supported by two distinct psychological processes of the individual personality: one is the authority-conformity orientation of the individual, in which case the relations between parent-oriented superior and the child-oriented subordinate are the principal force for centralization; and secondly, there is excessive individualism pushing the work upward the hierarchy. In the second case, there is no much room for staff consultant; and individual competition suppresses group work. Both of these processes can be attributed to certain aspects of the behavioural syndrome, such as dependency, lack of self confidence, acceptance of status quo, and respect for authority. A detailed analysis of these processes follow.

Authority-conformity orientation: The authority structure and patterns of relation in the socio-cultural system in Sri Lanka is seen responsible for the development of a behavioural syndrome. An important feature of the working of this syndrome is found to be a 'child-parent' type relation. Eric Burns (1964) in his exposition of transactions between individuals suggested that an individual may have three different mental states: Child, Parent, and Adult. Though these ego states may be present in all individuals, the degree to which they can exist in an individual is shaped by the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose components are shared and transmitted by the members of the society in which the individual has grown, i.e. culture. The analysis of communication between individuals on the basis of these three ego states and their behaviour is known as Transactional Analysis (TA) in the management literature.

Child type of behaviour is demonstrated when: demands help frequently and in detail; shows support explicitly or openly, and expresses feelings openly. Parent type of behaviour is present when: expects child type behaviour from others; demarcates spheres of activity; imposes 'dos' and 'don'ts'; helps selectively. And, adult form of behaviour is exhibited when: controls both parent and child types of the self; values freedom to choose, change, and to respond to new stimuli in new ways etc.; controls emotions; and sticks to current state of affairs/facts in a reasoned and controlled manner.

The author of the present study conducted a research project in 1983 (Nanayakkara & Ranasinghe, 1984: 198-206) using the above three ego states as the focal concepts. The principal hypotheses tested tantamounted to a proposition which can be formulated for the purpose of the present study: The Behavioural syndrome causes child-parent relations pattern (authority-conformity orientation) which intensifies centralization in organizations.

The study was conducted with regard to managers from 52 organizations (government=15; public corporations=22; and private sector=15). The sample included 58 managers from the public sector, and the rest 15, from the private sector. It was hypothesized that in the upward direction of relation in an organization, managers demonstrate a greater child orientation than an adult orientation. In the downward direction, managers were expected to have a greater parent orientation than an adult orientation. While these two hypotheses were supported, it was also found that those managers who demonstrate child orientation tended to demonstrate parent orientation as well but in two different directions of relation. While more than 50% of the managers belonged to these types, only a very few managers had adult orientation.

Eventhough the sample was relatively small, the findings were more important eye-openers for the management researcher in Sri Lanka.

The centralizing organizational structure is characterized by a process that is related to individualistic behaviour. Let us consider this aspect and related literature.

Individual orientation: The behavioural syndrome of the Sri Lankan manager does not allow for collective effort in organizations. Drawing from Indian philosophical bases of the Indian civilization that the person's inner conflict rather than his conflict with the physical environment or fellowmen is important, one could suggest that the Sri Lankans would be more inclined to be individualistic than pluralistic/group oriented. In fact there is some empirical evidence about such tendencies of the Indian managers. George W. England's study (1975) of 2556 managers of five countries, including 623 from India (USA 997; Japan 374; Korea 211; Australia 351) showed the following comparison:

<u>Indian managers</u>	<u>American managers</u>
Personalistic goals & status-oriented	High achievement and competence-oriented
Oriented to Organizational stability	Oriented to profit maximization
Oriented to organizational compliance and competence	Oriented to organizational efficiency and high productivity
Individual-oriented	Group-oriented

Compared with the international average, the Indian manager scored low on values pertaining to the roles and importance of other persons in their organizations such as peer groups, subordinates, technical employees, white collar employees, and blue collar employees. (International sample total score for five categories of persons was 206; USA 238; and India 141).

Indian managers scored relatively high on the concepts of obedience, loyalty, trust, and honour, suggesting an organizational compliance orientation. Further, they rejected the notion of aggressiveness as being behaviourally relevant which further supported their compliance orientation. These findings support our construct of behaviour syndrome. And, it is consistent with Chowdhry's observations about managing agencies which have established most modern industry in India: "The typical organization of a managing agency can be described as highly centralized and personal, with a rigid social structure" (Chowdhry, 1970: 32)

Individualism as a behavioural characteristic was observed at least in one study in Sri Lanka. This one, conducted by this writer in the Bank of Ceylon, one of the two major commercial banks of the government, focused on the group processes centered on Committees at middle and higher executive levels. The alternative hypotheses were concerned about the productivity of groups, and individualism was considered as an intervening variable.

Dynamic groups attempting to achieve organizational goals through group decisions require that members of the group place high value on the relevance of other people (McGregor, 1960; March 1965; and Harrison, 1981). The dynamic character of groups was examined in this Bank of Ceylon study with regard to (a)group cohesiveness, (b)type of decision made, and (c)group orientation. The relation of group to organizational goals is also examined in order to perceive the implications of group behaviour on hierarchy.

Approximately 90 percent of the top managers (at the levels of Deputy General Manager/Assistant General Manager) of the Bank, numbering a total of 34, were contacted using the questionnaire (Appendix 29) and discussed the results with them at a week-end seminar on the subject (April 1984).

The hypothesis that group functions are inadequate to convince managers of the utility of having committees is generally held. Ten out of 34 wanted to see that the committees performed more meaningful things; Fifteen wanted to run the committees more efficiently, and, however, twelve still see that the committees are worthwhile continuing. The general dissatisfaction of the functions of the committees is again reflected in the type of decisions they make mostly. They mostly make routine decisions, and very few creative ones. (More details on decision making aspect will be discussed later in this Chapter).

The committees are oriented toward task than group maintenance and self-oriented behaviour of members. This finding does not support our hypothesis of individuality. However, the task achievement of committees is the weakest element in the task orientation of a committee. This suggests that though the group process is close to ideal, the group fails to achieve the task. One could tentatively conclude that this failure is at least partly due to implement group decisions which may be due to, among other things, lack of group behaviour outside of the committees.

With regard to goals that the committees are interested, responsibility was seen as the most important, having a total

value slightly higher than that of performance. The predominant concern for responsibility in a commercial banking venture signifies the importance attached to hierarchy, and an environment of individual concern rather than an organizational concern. An organization's responsibility is to show results; it is the personalistic view to say responsibility itself is important, and important than perhaps the results. Thus, it seems that individualism prevades over collectivity and it promotes centralization and importance of hierarchy.

Organization structures and the processes of structuring of the government Ministries and Departments need closer examination. The above research framework, with suitable modifications may be useful for an exploratory study. As a preliminary step toward this purpose, information on organization structures of 27 Ministries is collected (Appendices 1 to 27), including lists of persons holding important positions in those Ministries. More descriptive information about a few Ministries (Finance and Planning; Plan Implementation; Public Administration; Mahawell Development; Lands and Land Development; Food and Cooperatives; and, Health) is also given (Appendices 30 to 36).

A few general observations of structures of public organizations are in order. There seems to be a proliferation of government organizations in Sri Lanka. This is evident at all levels, including the level of Ministry. In fact, as a result of very large number of so-called ministries, a number of categories of ministry has also developed in recent years (Cabinet Minister, non-Cabinet Minister, Minister without Portfolio, District Minister etc.). Accommodation of individuals is perhaps the primary

motive in setting newer ministries. Conflict among individuals within ministries may also lead to setting up a new umbrella post. More importantly, the centralizing process is responsible for this institutional proliferation. A person's capacity to manage effectively is limited and therefore, as the organization grows, due to the difficulty of broad basing and professionalizing the management, it naturally becomes inefficient. Sri Lankans cannot manage large organizations successfully. As the demands on government for development increase, existing organizations cannot expand to cope up with them efficiently and effectively because one man cannot do many things at the same time, and hence, organizational proliferation is inevitable. Basically the same process is evident when the more capable and promising leaders (Ministers or administrators) are assigned more and more new responsibilities, institutions etc. until such time that the person becomes incompetent to handle any of them. This is how a few personalities have got a number of portfolios or positions. The boundaries of organizational re-shuffling are reached when leader begins to prove his or her incompetence. Smaller units, managed by Sri Lankans are more successful, simply because of the function of span of leader control.

4. Decision making

(a) Management By Objectives (MBO)

Objectives, properly developed, analysed, and understood before trying to achieve them, play an important role in the success of managing and organization. Operational goals provide guidance to day to day decisions, while higher level goals guide policy

decisions. Since we have already made reference to policy making issues, attention could be more directed here to the role of objectives in the implementation process.

The very essence of management involves coordinating the activities of people toward goal attainment. MBO assumes that the decision making process itself can contribute to it. "Management by objectives is, first of all, a philosophy of management. It is a philosophy which reflects a "proactive" rather than a "reactive" way of managing. The emphasis is on trying to predict and influence the future rather than on responding and reacting by the seat of the pants. It is also a "results-oriented" philosophy of management, one which emphasizes accomplishments and results. The focus is generally on change and on improving both individual and organizational effectiveness. It is a philosophy which encourages increased participation in the management of the affairs of the organization at all levels (Rala, 1974: 11). It must be already clear to the reader that such a philosophy of management will have little practical value for managers having the behavioural syndrome we have identified.

Sri Lankan managers are 'reactive' because they lack self confidence and ready to accept status quo; they are responsibility oriented rather than results-oriented because they are dependent and authority-oriented; and they cannot productively participate in group work because they are individualistic. Thus, the philosophy of MBO is alien to the philosophy of Sri Lankan management culture.

MBO is also a process consisting of a series of interdependent and interrelated steps: (1) the formulation of clear, concise statements of objectives; (2) the development of realistic action plans for their attainment; (3) the systematic monitoring and measurement of performance and achievement; and (4) the taking of the corrective actions necessary to achieve the planned results. The key elements in the process are goal setting, action planning, self control and periodic progress reviews.

MBO as a process seems to require certain individual qualities which are inherently absent in the Sri Lankan cultural context. It calls for the quantification of objectives which are often expressed in value terms; considerable effort to assembling relevant information, and rational explanation based on such information before decisions are reached. Factual, rational analysis is Western rather than Eastern; Eastern culture emphasizes the importance of global concept not the particular which receives emphasis in the West. MBO requires dependable data. Accurately and promptly recorded data and their use are not valued by a person who lacks system and perfection in the personality. Dishonesty in reporting information is not considered as a serious offence or even a serious mistake in our organizational setting. MBO requires ready availability of data for managers. Our managers, so individualistic, jealous of others using them, fear of authority and feeling insecure in the release of information, find comfort in the safeguarding of information in his own desk. However, information will be made available to others if such act adds to the importance of the individual, say as the key man or the man who is

In control.

MBO process, further, requires objective discussion of information and ideas. It requires an environment in which participants could speak out freely, criticise, express opinion, and pass judgments, without fearing personalistic impressions, i.e. objectively. The behaviour syndrome does not allow such an environment for obvious reasons.

(b) Group decisions

In the Survey of managerial behaviour in the public sector, managers were asked to suggest attitudes/orientations which prevented or promoted participatory decision making in their organization. Participatory decisions are encouraged by such factors as risks in decisions, desire to share responsibility or escape direct responsibility, and the structure of committees themselves. Group behaviour is discouraged by such factors as individualistic attitudes, structure of the organization lack of common goals, lack of faith in subordinates and status distance. In summary, the decision making environment in general is not supportive of group work.

The study at the Bank of Ceylon, the decision making experience of the committees was illustrated by the following findings:

Table 6: Type of decision made by committees

Decision type	response average (High=1, Low=5)
Routine	2.0
Negotiated	2.2
Creative	3.9

Table 7: Group conditions for decision making

Type of condition	Response	(High=1, Low=5)
(I) For routine decisions		
Time constraint	3.2	
Stress	4.0	
Pressure to perform	2.5	
Quick decision via specialist	2.6	
(II) For creative decisions		
Relaxation	1.3	
Support for originality	2.4	
Pressure to perform	2.4	
Problem analysis	2.8	
Chairman awaiting creativity	2.0	
(III) For negotiated decisions		
Reach compromise than the best	1.8	

(Bank of Ceylon study, Sample= 34)

It is interesting to find that the committees are operating under conditions largely ideal for creative decisions but creative decisions are not made. Managers do not see groups as means to solving basic issues. This corresponds to England's findings that Indian managers are oriented toward stable organizational goals. When dynamic change is not envisaged, issues of a fundamental nature requiring original approaches and innovative decisions do not arise in a group setting. The banking institution was selected for the case study with the expectation that the managers would take innovative decisions in the present macro environment of competitive financial market in Sri Lanka. However, such an organization which should try to be dynamic in the market place is not serious about the challenge, which most probably reflect the orientation of top management. Bank's personnel policy of promoting from the rank and file to top positions, except the post of Chairman, is largely responsible

for this situation.

(c) Autonomy

In the Survey of managerial behaviour in the public sector, the degree of autonomy that managers at the middle level enjoy in their day to day work was examined by trying to explore their perception of (a) superiors leadership style, and (b) nature of subordinates. A large majority (70%) felt that they had a lot or sufficient autonomy. This is enabled by democratic leader style of superior (55%) against authoritarian or consultative leader style (34%), and because of the nature of work involved (16%). Freedom to act was described in terms of access to the superior (70%), and leader readiness to accept suggestions (44%). With regard to the nature of subordinates they had, 60% of the managers felt that they did not show excessive desire to consult. This evidence should be considered with additional care since the type of issues involved is sensitive. For example, one may exaggerate the degree of freedom available in the belief that the contrary would mean his own weakness or low status in the organization! The response to the question of responsibility for decision making is rather interesting:

Table 8: Readiness to accept responsibility

<u>Level</u>	No. of Public Sector <u>organizations</u>
High	8
Middle	7
Low	10

A tendency to by-pass responsibility is seen in the pattern of readiness to accept responsibility observed above.

5. Motivating

(a) Meaning of work

Adriano Tilgher, a distinguished pioneer in the study of work, has traced a fascinating history of change in the cultural meanings of the concept from Biblical times to the 1920s, the decade in which he wrote (Berg, 1968: 341). According to Tilgher, work was regarded then (1920s) as an activity in which man was free to find dignity or not. Thus, work is no longer thought to be the only or even the best way to gain nourishment. In the public sector survey, managers were asked to define the meaning of work for them by saying why did they work, and why did other people work.

The responses are given below:

Table 9: Meaning of work

<u>Reason</u>	<u>Why do I work?</u>	<u>Why do others work</u>
1. Earning a living	83%	73%
2. Self satisfaction	47%	23%
3. Recognition/status	23%	13%
4. Achievement feeling	22%	13%

According to the manager responses listed above, our managers are economic men. In Berg's presentation of the history of meaning of work in America, the economic interpretation of work is assigned to the period 1860-1900, the period of industrial take-hold. In any case, as he suggests, the individual's meaning of work is conditioned by much that he brings with him to his job which are influenced by the social order in which the man has to work.

Another study conducted in Sri Lanka in the mid 1970s reports the 70% of the managers surveyed in the public sector felt job satisfaction as the most important employment objective, whereas satisfactory remuneration was ranked first only by 10%; the other 20% ranked public recognition as the first objective or motivator (Peoples Bank; 1979: 13). Given the wide prevalence of job dissatisfaction and low salaries/remuneration in the public sector, this reporting is highly questionable. It is also difficult to interpret this information for the definition of meaning of work.

(b) Factors of motivation

In the public sector survey, managers were asked to give factors which they thought would motivate them to work more and rank them order. Out of the references made, 76% were related to intrinsic category, and the rest were extrinsic:

Table 10: Factors of motivation

<u>Intrinsic</u>	
Recognition	38%
Achievement	16%
Opportunity for advancement	16%
<u>Extrinsic</u>	
Money	25%
Equality in rewards	05%

In combination with the interpretation of meaning of work the factors of motivation suggest that the managers are not satisfied with their work; the work does not give them much other than an income. They are in search of more intrinsic satisfiers through work. This reminds us the words of the French utopian

Charles Fourier who, believing men by nature are creative and active, argued the need to match men and jobs and to vary work content in such a way as to make work both attractive and pleasurable (Berg, 341). In Sri Lanka, this match is apparently very weak.

6. Evaluating

(a) Control

Asked to define the meaning of control in their organizations, the majority of managers in the public sector survey, tried to define in terms of regulation and supervision (40%) cutting expenditure or waste (18%). Only 15% described control in terms of corrective action or concepts close to management control. Managers found it difficult to appreciate that the control function is based on evaluation of results, as an essential process of planned work, or to think of preventive control and feed-forward controls. The importance of hierarchy and the colonial administrative culture has cultivated the notion of control in the context of supervision within a span of control.

Control is perceived as a process focussed on employee behaviour relating to observation of rules and regulations and breach of discipline. The fact that middle and lower level managers had little authority to reward employees has weakened even this control function. Difficulties of locating responsibility and measurement of output are among the reasons for lack of control.

(b) Evaluation

Evaluation presumes a concern for results and achieving targets. The lack of planning emphasis in management, the assumption that the responsibility for results lays at the top, and a conspicuous deficiency of skill, both professionally and technically to monitor and collect information relevant to indicators are at the root of the difficulties in evaluation.

The evaluation needs are diluted in the communication process. The behavioural syndrome restricts, on the one hand, upward communication which is necessary for evaluative purposes in the fear of authority, but on the other, it creates an information overload at the top since many want to push issues upward for consideration. In other words, the centralising tendencies dampen the feasibility of evaluation even where data are available for the purpose.

Chapter 4

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Objectives

The objectives of recommendations proposed in this Chapter are two-fold: (I) Firstly, planned interventions into the present state of affairs in the public sector of Sri Lanka must recognize the urgent need to orient the administrative organizations to make fundamental choices aimed at more rational and progressive solutions to public issues, and (II) Secondly, the system of public management must undergo rapid change in order to be efficient in the implementation of choices.

The objectives can be approached in two directions: change in organizational structures, and greater professionalization of management. Ironically, these two approaches seem to suggest a blend of local cultural experience and western management experience may work. Structural changes could be designed by giving due emphasis on local cultural factors because the former seems to hold strong grips on the latter. There is much to learn and adopt from western management experience in the professionalization of management in the public sector.

A few more words about the objectives are in order. In developing countries like Sri Lanka, managers in public organizations has a key role to play in the determination of fundamental choices for social progress. Fundamental choices provide a basic framework for action and give direction to societal change. The Western societies have chosen the capitalist framework and have progressed within it. Managers there

too have to make important decisions but they are normally within the framework or system. Sri Lanka, as a politico-economic system has not succeeded yet in developing and establishing a suitable system, such as the western capitalist system or a rational derivative of it. The responsibility of public sector administrators and managers for fundamental policy choice to effect a suitable macro system, therefore, looms large.

Many social scientists believe that a system change in the public administration of Sri Lanka is sine qua non to be able to determine fundamental choices. Those who are concerned with development administration, development economists, and political scientists, to name a few categories, increasingly believe that the satisfaction of basic needs of the majority of people and stabilizing the political-economic system are the two directions in which public administrators are called upon to make fundamental choices be made. In other words, organizations in the public sector must be made effective within the macro socio-economic-political environment.

Once a choice is made, the role of the manager is to be efficient or productive in the implementation of the choice. He is to utilize the organizational mechanism in order to minimize time and cost in the achievement of results as envisaged in the choice.

The time-cost minimizing behaviour is basically human and technological. It is human in the sense that productivity of individual behaviour is intervened by an unconceivable number of variables and relationships which have at least something to do with the cultural environment. Nonetheless, not all the

human behaviours are particularistic; some can be universalistic and some of others could be directed toward universalism by concerted effort. Productive behaviour is technological in the sense that the ways in which resources are combined has a direct relationship to results. Again, as in the case of human behaviour, the productivity of certain techniques and technologies are society bound. Administrative/managerial interventions must bear this type of preliminary considerations.

2. Structural changes

Small size: The tendencies to centralize are too strong to neutralize in the near future, and therefore, it seems rational not to allow organizations to grow in size. The pressures of growth on top are normally dealt with through decentralization. The decentralization strategy does not work in Sri Lanka. Therefore, decentralization should be achieved through a strategy of organizational fragmentation. They can continue to be efficient units under the leadership of a strong person at the top.

Structural change in the Administrative Service: The Sri Lanka Administrative Service (SLAS) has grown in size, perhaps with a corresponding lowering of its quality and appropriateness. The concept of generalist administrator can no longer provide the rationale for its structure. Time has come to introduce two types of major changes: (a) A functional division of the SLAS, as in the case West Germany, wherein the character of the service will be determined by the needs of the functional area will be the first type of change. Functional division

could include, for example, four or five fields such as Industry and trade; Agriculture; Infrastructure including science and technology; and state services. The administrative services in this case could be confined to each area, having separate entry system, remuneration, and other treatments. The evasion of administrative responsibility and professional decay are very much due to all-island combined service principle of the present SLAS.

The second major change in the structure of the SLAS is the reduction of its total size. This should allow on the one hand to promote other professional technical personnel into management positions, and on the other enable the government to recruit directly from outside eminent professionals to man key positions where external injection of novelty is justified. The SLAS must open the doors for competition. The SLAS in the present format is largely responsible for developing an organizational culture in the line of behavioural syndrome which we discussed in the previous chapters.

Staff reduction: The unnecessary fat, which is a lot, in the public services should go. This is a tough political step if it would mean unemployment, but it would not be a difficult decision if the excess personnel are redirected for productive employment. This is easily said but how to achieve is a subject for another effort.

Restructuring support staff: The General Clerical Service, Stenographer service, Typists Service etc, which are support services at lower level of government organizations are still

continued on the basis of combined all-island services. Office level managerial inefficiency is deeply rooted in these services which do not cultivate any sense of management for development. These services should be eliminated and substituted with departmental systems which the individual organizations could decide. This should enhance immensely the effective authority of managers at the top.

Temporary organization structures: Organizations must be compelled to justify their existence periodically. The concept of stability and security of public service is so embedded in the minds of the people of this country, that it may be difficult to apply sun-set laws or zero-based budgeting for the organizations. However, the need to introduce an element of instability into the structures of organizations is defensible. Therefore, the overall structure of the typical public organization be such that part of the structure or a number of divisions is organized on temporary basis. If the tasks are programmed and projects are set-up as the basis of organization, such a scheme would be feasible. The concept of smaller units of organization, and the need to emphasize goal directed structures can be attained simultaneously.

Physical structure of office: Excessive compartmentation of office layout today prohibits interaction which is vital for the promotion of group work, and enables officials to maintain individuality. Office layout should follow an open society concept.

3. Professionalization

A Professionally qualified SLAS: Being at the apex of public organizations, the SLAS would continue to play a key role in running the organizations efficiently. It can live up to this expectation only if the service is professionalized by compulsory education and training requirements at various levels of the service. At entry as well as at the points of so-called efficiency-bars professional management qualifications must be sought.

A Rational management development strategy: There is a strong and undeniable need for policy and institutional arrangements to provide standard facilities for the public services to professionalize through management development programmes conducted locally. Institutional capability for management development programmes could be achieved by bringing all the present administrative and management institutes under the umbrella of one strong central School or a National Centre for Management Development. The institutions which could come under such arrangement include (1) Sri Lanka Institute of Development Administration, (2) National Institute of Business Management, (3) National Institute of Plantation Management, (4) Sri Lanka Institute of Cooperative Management, (5) Local government training institute, and (6) the proposed Postgraduate Institute of Management at University of Sri Jayewardenepura. At the present time, as they are, the institutions themselves are a hindrance to management development in the respective spheres of interest.

Under such a School or Centre, there should be established an institute for public policy studies which could also devote some time to research into managerial phenomena.

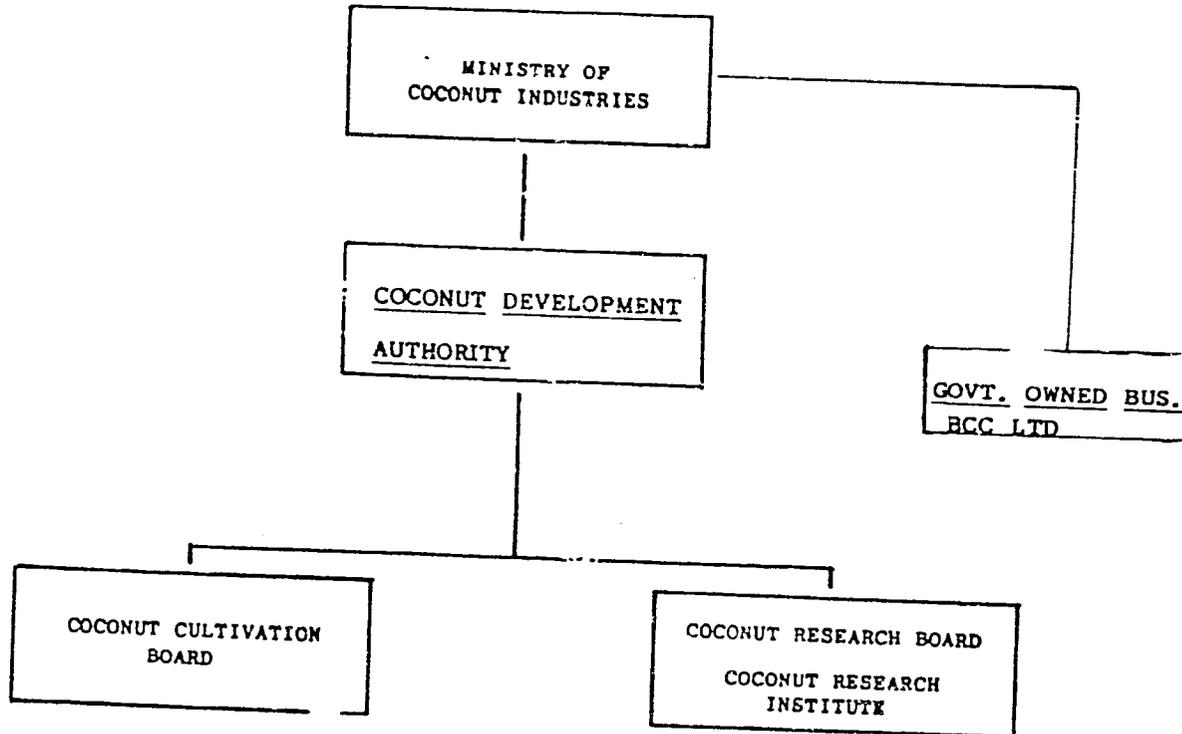
A reasonable remuneration system; The primacy of remuneration of professionals in particular in upgrading the quality of work in the public service is unquestionable. A fair balance between various modes of remuneration, and explicit linking of remuneration to results through schemes of incentives are some essential elements to bear in mind.

The role of scientific & other professional services; There has traditionally been a gulf between the managerial and other professional services in the public service. Both groups should work hand in hand, particularly in order to bring about technological changes through public policy. Both sides must appreciate each other's role and complementarity. Personnel on both sides should be given some formal education plus training in each other's fields. Management of research, state support of science and technology, and technology transfer are vital areas where both sides will have common interest.

1.0 COCONUT INDUSTRY

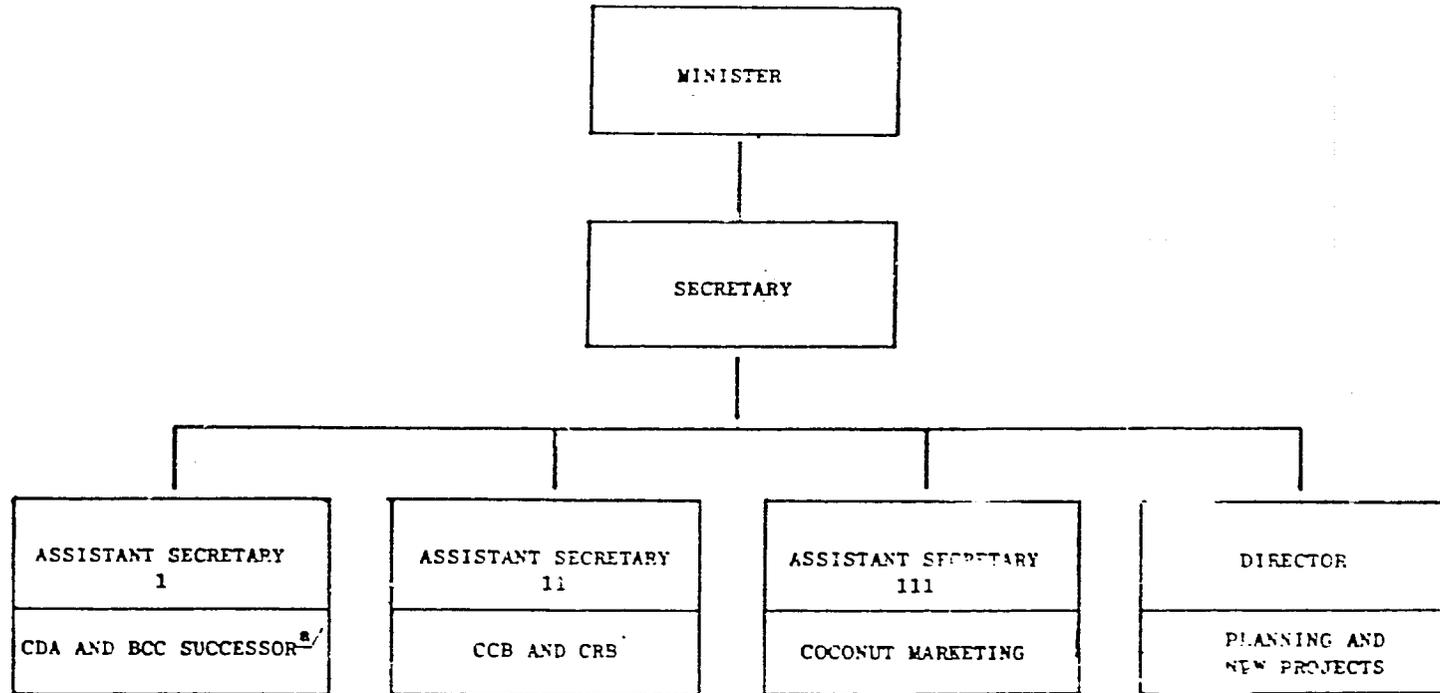
PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANIZATIONS, FUNCTIONS & RESPONSIBILITIES

ORGANIZATION OF COCONUT SECTOR



1.1

ORGANIZATION OF MINISTRY OF COCONUT INDUSTRIES



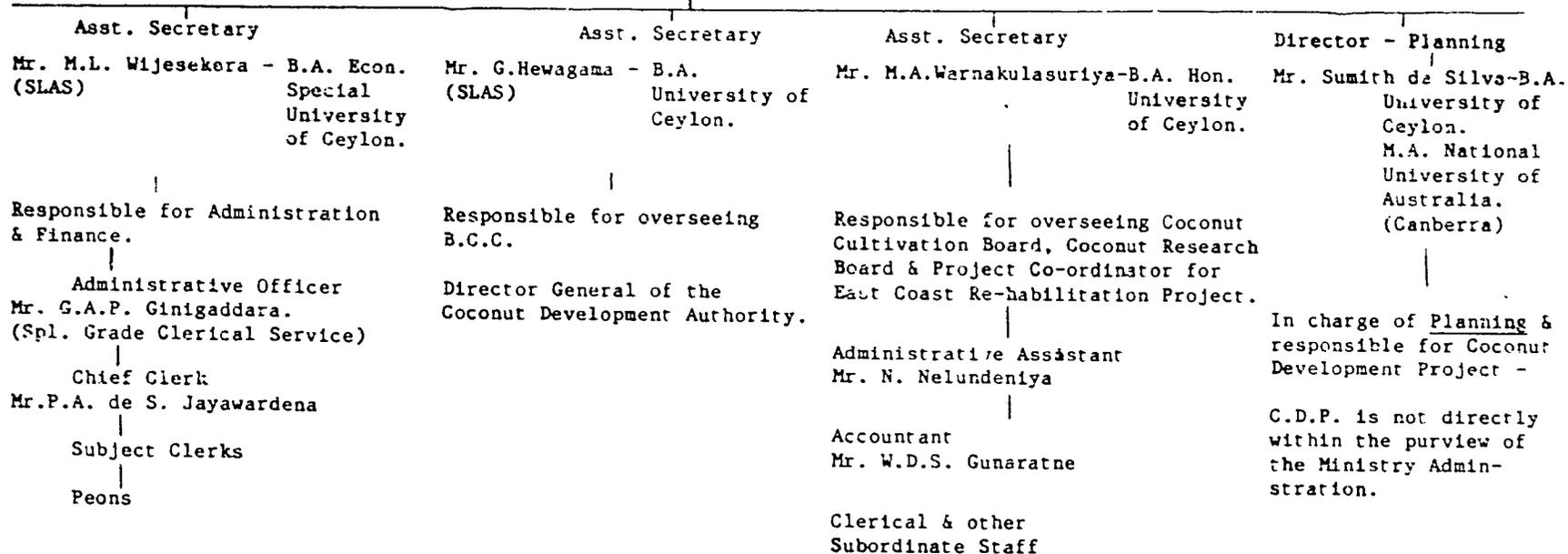
^{a/} Government of Sri Lanka (Ceylon) Successor to the Business Undertaking of British Ceylon Corporation Ltd.

ORGANISATION CHART FOR MINISTRY OF COCONUT INDUSTRIESMINISTERHon. Harold Herath - Attorney-at-Law

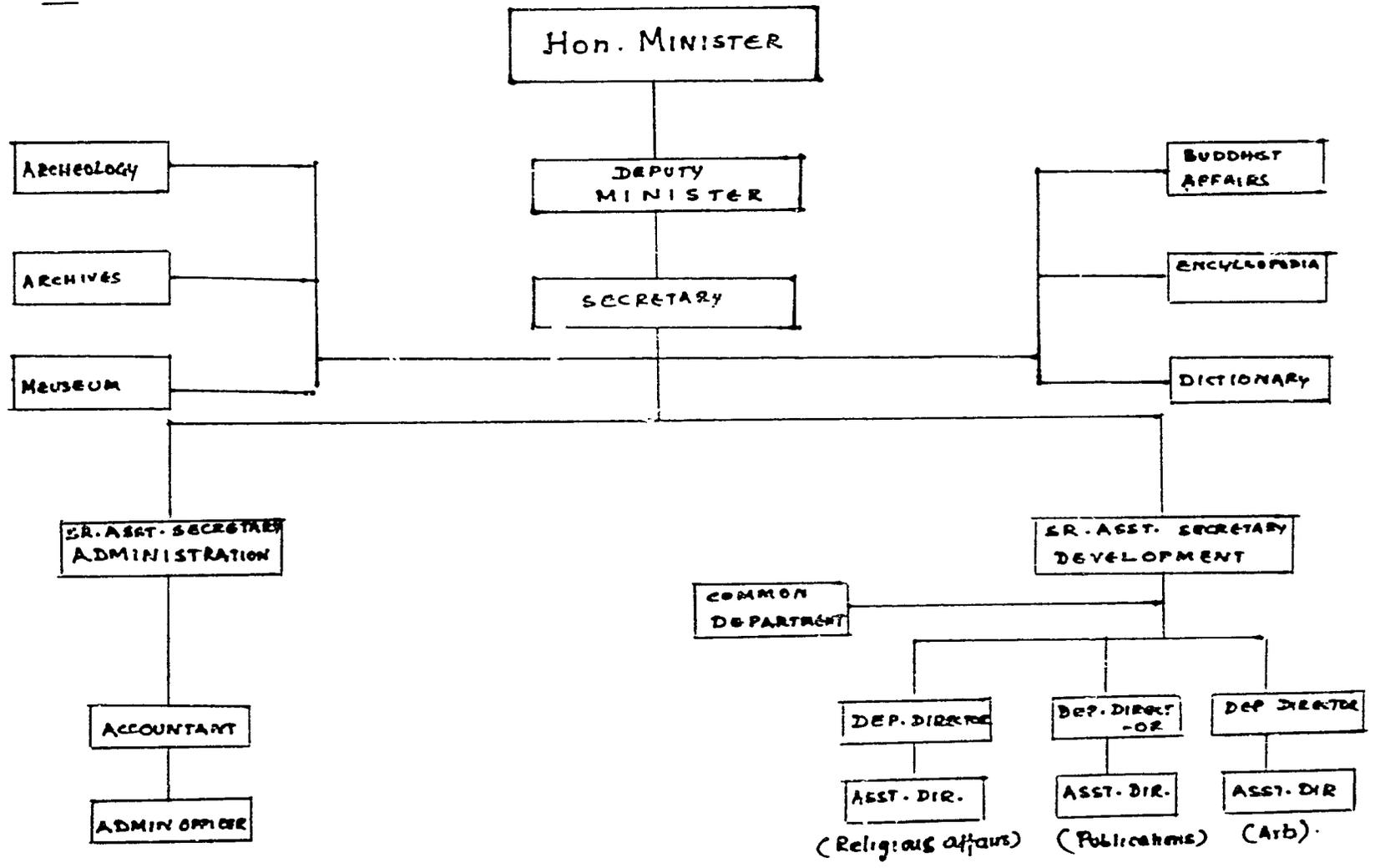
Private Secretary - Mrs. Gwen Herath
 Co-ordinating Officer -
 Mr. J.C.de Z. Wijerakshitha
 Public Relations Officer -
 Mrs. Carole Perera

SECRETARY

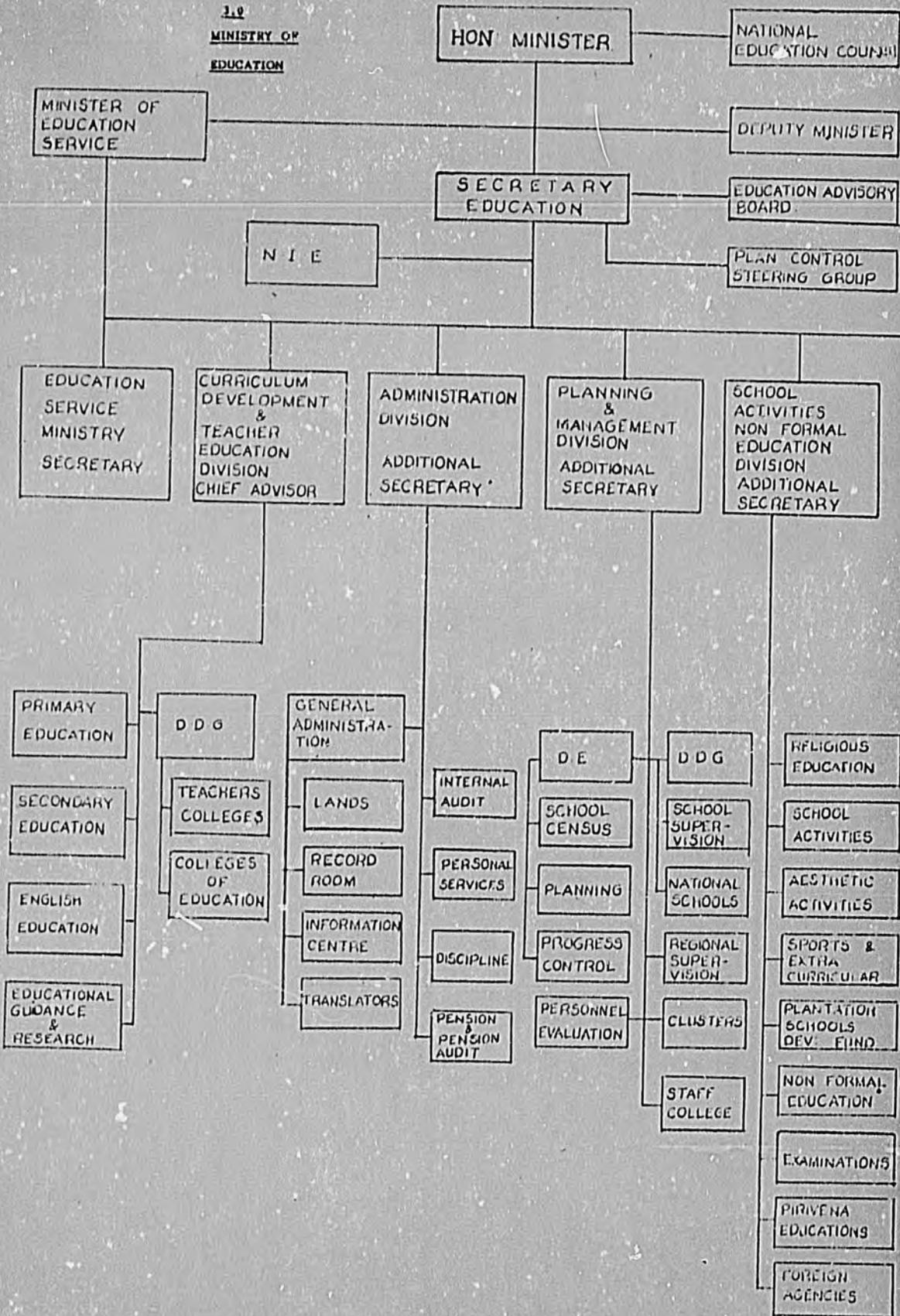
Mr. D. Wijesinghe BA(Cey) S.L.A.S.
 Policy decisions and overall responsibility
 covering the entire functions of the Ministry
 Administration & implimentation of Ministerial
 objectives/directives of the Minister.



2.0 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE CULTURAL AFFAIRS MINISTRY (1980-1985)



1.0
MINISTRY OF
EDUCATION



3.1 The names of the Officers in-charge of branches and their Educational qualifications:

Curriculum Development & Teacher Education Division

1. Mr. D.A. Perera (B.Sc; M.Sc; Dip.In.Ed) CH. Advisor (CDTE)
2. Mr. G.Wickramaratne (B.Sc.Dip.In.Ed.) DDG (Ed.Colleges)
3. Mrs.T.Kariyawasam (B.A.M.A.Ph.D.Dip.In.Ed.) DDG (EGR)
4. Mrs.M.Abeydeva (B.A; Dip.In.Ed) DE (Primary)
5. Mr. M.M.Premaratne (B.Sc;Dip.In.Ed) DE (Secondary Ed.)
6. Mr. M.A.De.Silva (B.A.Dip.In.Ed) DE (English Ed)
6. Mr. Piyatilake (B.A.Dip.In.Ed) DE (Teacher Colleges)

General Administration Division

1. Mr. M.B.C.Silva (B.A.) SLAS; Addl.SE. (Admn)
2. Mrs. K.Wijewardene (B.A.) SLAS; SAS (Admn)
3. Mr. A.S.Weeraratne SLAS AS
4. Mr. Rajapaksa SLAS AS
5. Mrs R.Rajapakse (B.A.)SLAS AS
6. Mrs.M.Perin (B.A.Dip.In.Ed)SLAS AS
7. Mr. Jinadasa SLAS AS
8. Mr. Almeda SLAS AS

Planning & Management Development Division

1. Mr. W.Jayamaha (B.A;M.P.A;) Addl.SE (PMD)
2. Mr. M.Bandunena (B.A.) SLAS SA2 (PE)
3. Mrs.H.Jayasinghe (B.A;Dip.Ed.Ed) DDG (Sch.Sup)
4. Mr. D.Gunaratne (B.Sc; MBA;Dip.In.Ed) DE (Planning)
5. Mr. D.N.Weerasinghe (B.A; Dip.In.Ed) DE (Sch Clusters)
6. Mr. Sathgumarajah (B.Sc. Dip.In.Ed) DE (Sch . Sup)
7. Mr. P. Kumarasiri (B.A;Dip.In.Ed) DE (Staff College)

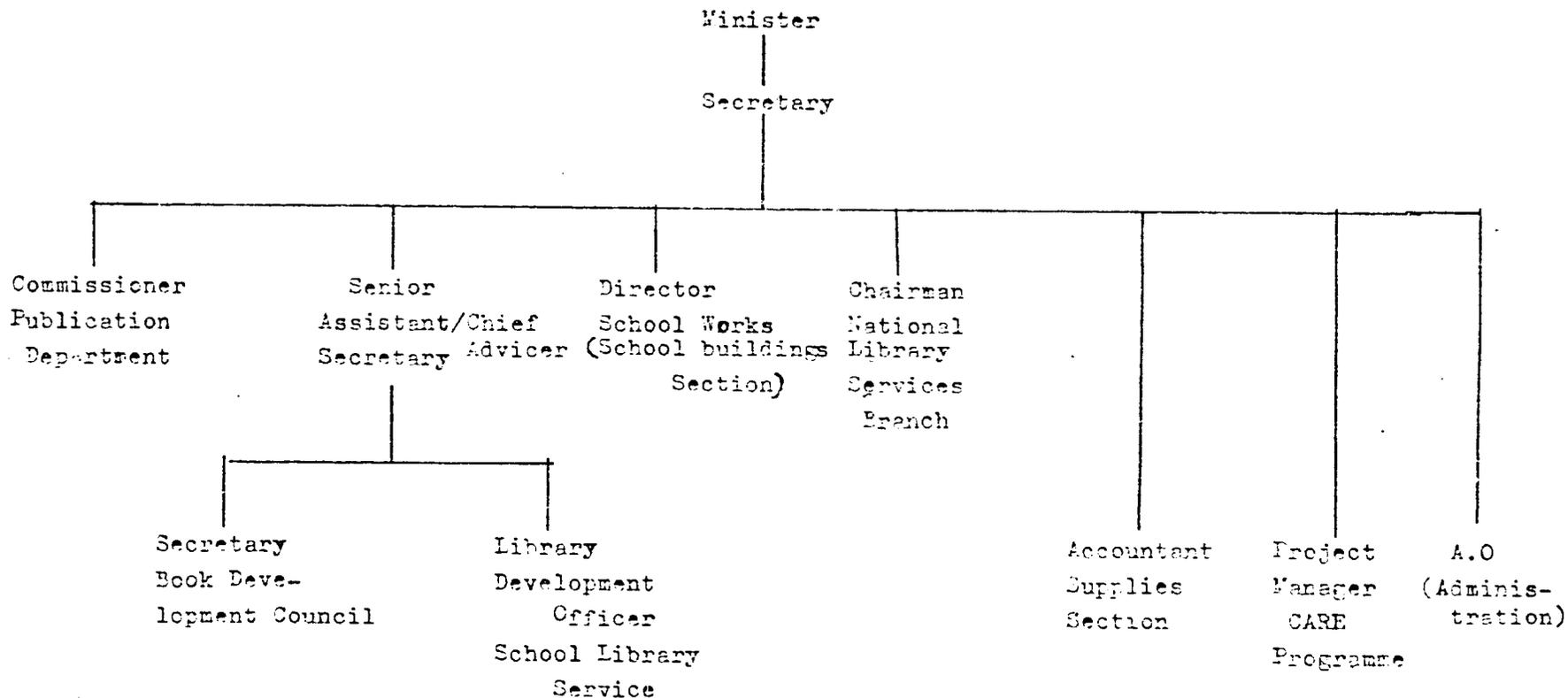
School Activities & Non-Formal Education Division

1. Mr.J.T.Dumbukla (B.Sc.) SLAS Addl.SE (SANP)
2. Mr. Sumanesekera(B.Sc;Dip.In.Ed) DE (Sch.Acti.)
3. Mr.L.B.Samarakoon (B.A;Dip.In.Ed) DE (Aesthetic)
4. Mr. Sunil Jayaweera DE (Sports)
5. Mr. S.Kariyawasam (B.Sc;Dip.In.Ed) DE (ESDP)
6. Mr. S.M.D.Perera (B.Sc;Dip.In.Ed) DE (NF.ED)
7. Mr. P.Kariyawasam (B.Sc;Dip.In.Ed) COM (Exams)
8. Mr. Adhikari (B.A; Dip.In.Ed) DE (Pirivema)
9. Mr.K.K.V.S.DE.Silva (B.A;Dip.In.Ed) DE (FA)

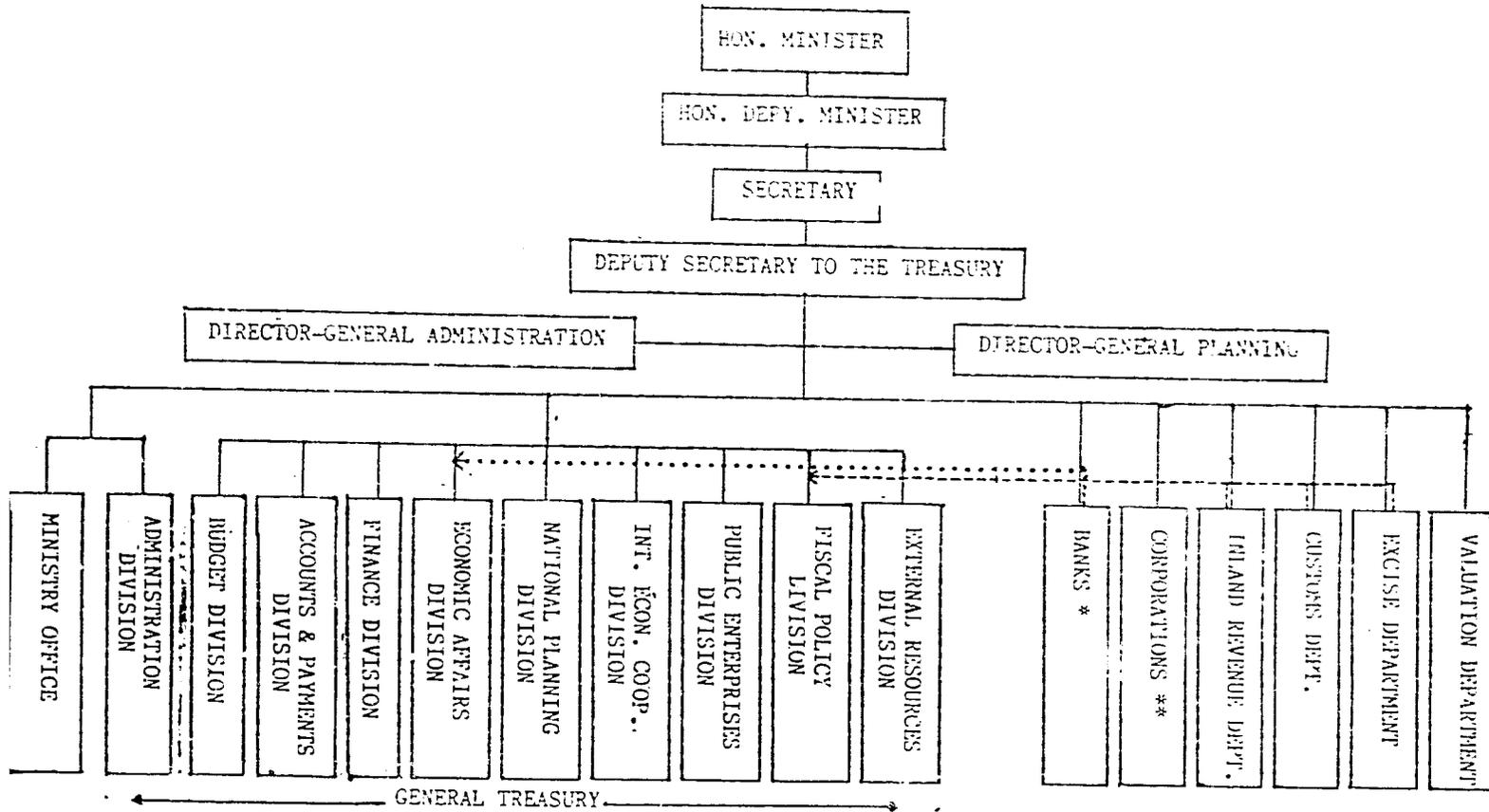
Finance Branch

1. Mr.G.S.Pallewatte (ICMA) Chief Accountant

4.0 Organization Structure of the Ministry of Education Services



5.0 THE ORGANISATION CHART OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE & PLANNING



* CENTRAL BANK, BANK OF CEYLON, PEOPLE'S BANK, NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK, NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT BANK, STATE MORTGAGE & INVESTMENT BANK.

** STATE DISTILLERIES CORPORATION, NATIONAL LOTTERIES BOARD, STATE GEM CORPORATION.

5.1

IMPORTANT POSITIONS IN THE MINISTRY AS AT 9TH OCT. 1985.

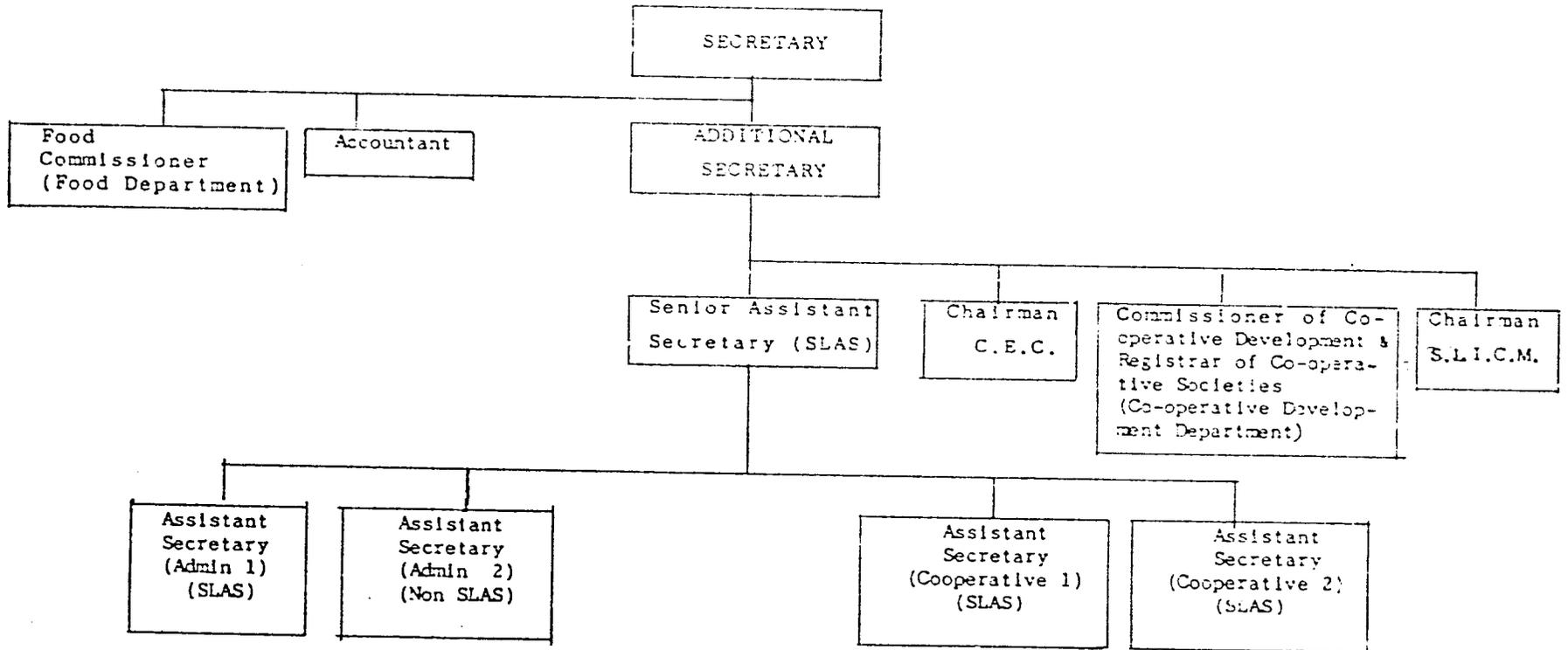
<u>Position</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Professional/Acadamic Qualifications</u>
Secretary	Dr. W.M.Tilakaratna	Ph.D.(London); BA (Econ.Hons) Ceyl.
Deputy Secretary	Mr. G.Cumaranatunga	SLAS I; BA (Hons) Cey.
Director General Administration	Mr. Ronnie Weerakoon	
Director General National Planning	Mr. B.Mahadeva	
Senior Asst. Secretary	Mr. S.N.Perera	SLAS I; B.A (Cey.)
Senior Asst. Secretary	Mrs. R.S.Athukorala	SLAS I; BA (Hons) Cey.
Senior Asst. Secretary	Mr. Nalin Mendis	Inland Revenue Service I; BA(Western History Hons.)
Director Budget	Mr. H.A.Abhayagunawardana	SLAS I; MSc.(Civil Eng.-Transport) London BA (Cey.)
Addl. Director Budget	Mr. S.Kathiragamanathan	SLAS I; BSc (Maths) Cey.
Director Accounts & Payments	Mr. S.Kanapathipillai	Govt. Accountants Service I.
Director Finance	Mr. C.V.Unamboowa	SLAS I; BA (Cey.)
Director Economic Affairs	Dr. A.C.Randeni	Ph.D(Econ) Sussex; MA (Economic Development) Sussex; BA (Econ) Peradeniya.
Addl. Director Economic Affairs	Dr. G.Abeysekera	Ph.D/M.A.(Econ) Wisconsin; B.A.(Econ) Cey.
Director National Planning	Dr. Lloyd S.Fernando	Ph.D (Econ) Sussex; MSc (Econ. & Planning) Moscow.
Addl. Director National Planning	Mr. N.B.F.Bharati	SLAS I; BA (Econ).

<u>Position</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>5.2</u>	<u>Professional/Acadamic Qualifications</u>
Director International Economic Cooperation	Mr. W.S.Nanayakkara		MA (Econ. Development) University of East Anglia; BA (Geo. Hons) Peradeniya
Addl. Director International Economic Cooperation	Mr. T.J.M.Jayasinghe		BA (Hons) Peradeniya
Director Public Enterprises	Mrs. I.S.Jayasinghe		MPA (Harward); FCA.
Director Fiscal Policy	Mr. K.Shanmugalingam		SLAS I; BSc. (Econ. Hons) London.
Director External Resources	Mr. M.A.Mohammad		BA (Hons.) Peradeniya
Addl. Director External Resources	Mrs. S.L.Kuruppu		BA(Econ. Hons); National Planning Service I.
Addl. Director External Resources	Mr. S.L.Seneviratne		MA (Econ.) Manchester; MA (Econ.) Vid. BA (Econ. Hons) Vid.
Commissioner General Inland Revenue	Mr. Hugh Molagoda		Inland Revenue Service I; BA (Cey.)
Principal Collector of Customs	Mr. H.B.Dissanayake		SLAS I; BA (Hons)
Commissioner Excise	Mr. W.N.F. Chandraratna		
Chief Valuer	Mr. B.L. Ariyatillaka		

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6.0 MINISTRY OF FOOD & CO-OPERATIVES

ORGANISATION CHART



6/2

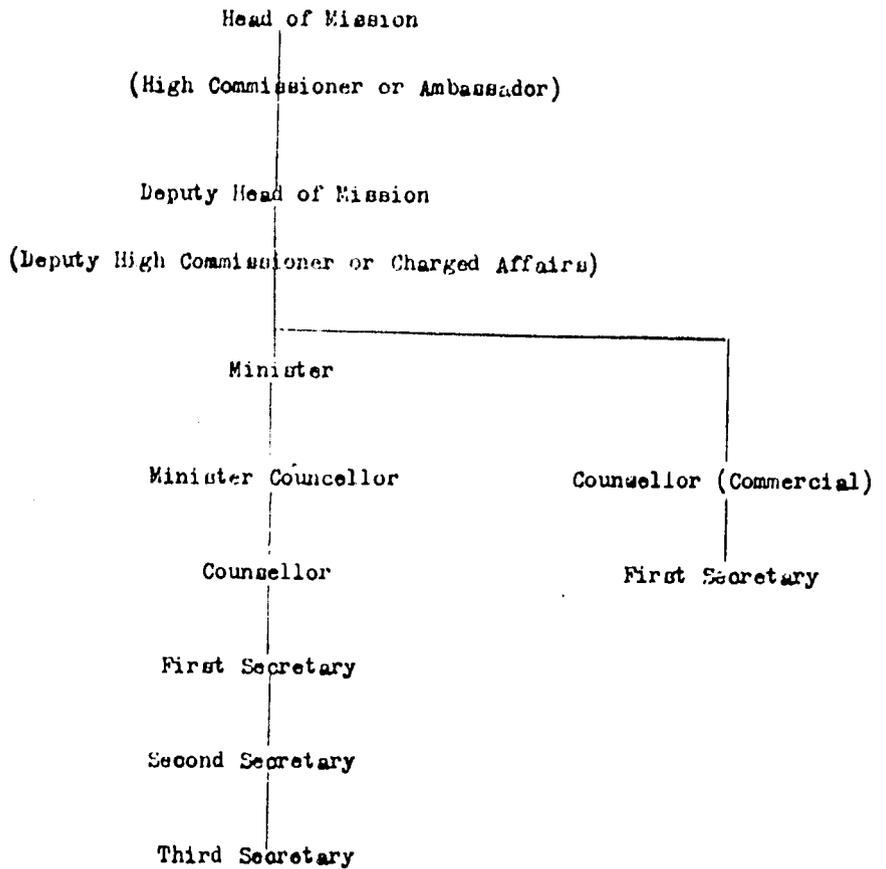
6.1

NAMES AND QUALIFICATION OF HOLDERS OF KEY POSTS

DESIGNATION	NAME	QUALIFICATIONS
a) Secretary	M.D.D. Peiris	S.L.A.S.
b) Additional Secretary	W.A.L. Wijepala	F.A. (Hon.) S.L.A.S.
c) Senior Assistant Secretary	E.A. Nanayakkara	B.A. (Hon.) S.L.A.S.
d) Accountant	(Vacant)	
e) Assistant Secretary (Admin. 1)	Subasingha	
f) Assistant Secretary (Admin. 2)	B. Liyanarachchi	
g) Assistant Secretary (Co-operatives 1)	(Mrs.) R.M.C.G. Ukugampola	B.A. S.L.A.S.
h) Assistant Secretary (Co-operatives 2)	(Miss) A.P. Munasingha	B.A., S.L.A.S., Post Graduate Dip. in Education, Dip. in Co-op. Mgt. (Bulgaria)

- * Qualification given is not a complete list but only what is generally known in the Ministry, as the higher officials could not be interviewed to determine their qualifications

7.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CHART FOR THE
MISSIONS ABROAD.



7.2 Senior Officials of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs

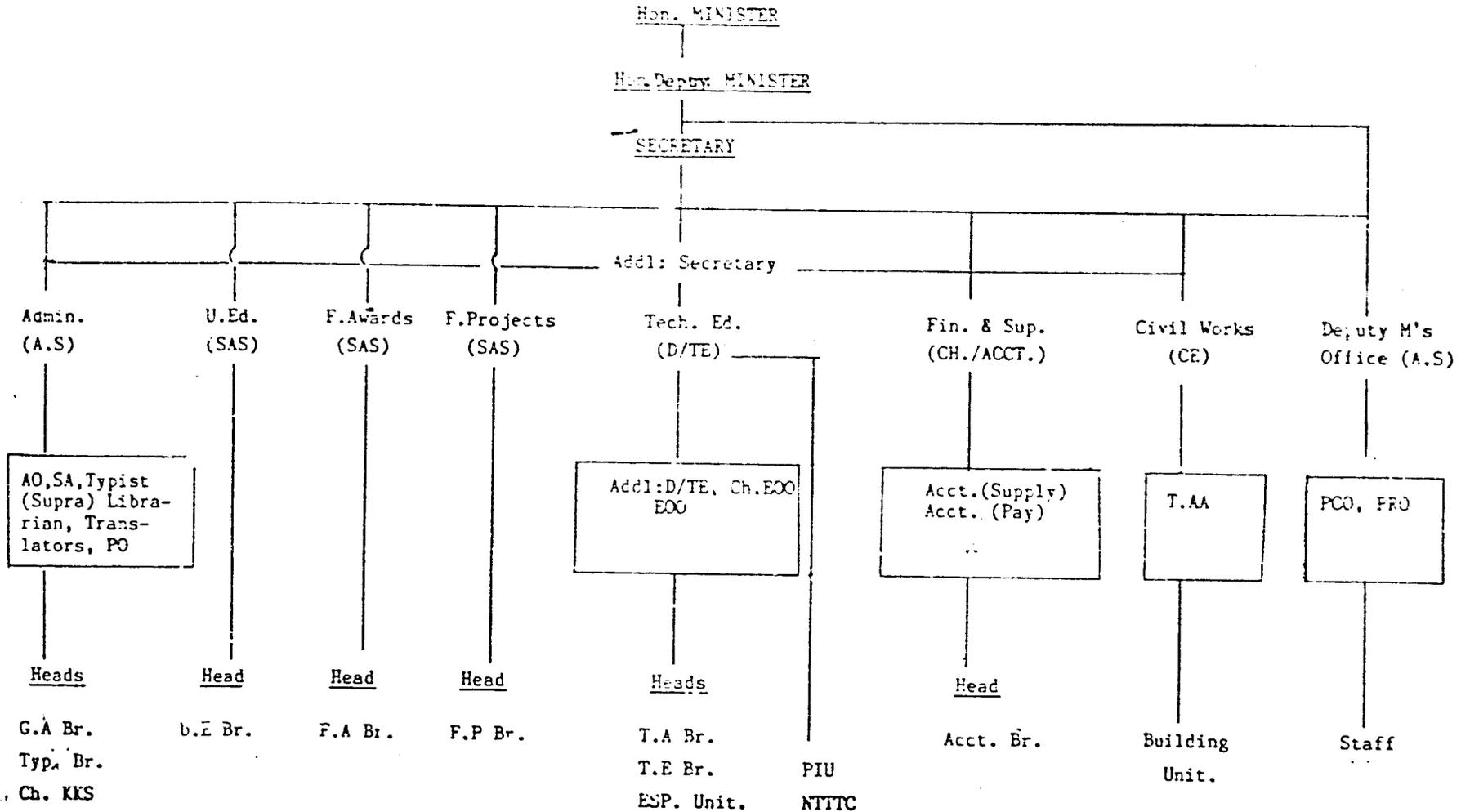
Presently working in the Ministry.

<u>Designation/post</u>	<u>Name of the Officer</u>	<u>Qualifications</u>
Secretary	W.T. Jayasinghe -C.C.S	Class I
Director-General (Administration)	T. Ranaviraja -S.L.A.S	Class I
Director-General (Political Affairs)	C. Mahendran -S.L.O.S	Grade I
Director-General (Economic Affairs)	Susantha De Alwis -S.L.O.S	Grade I
Director-Africa Desk	W.M.J.B Nakkawita -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-Middle East Desk	W.M.J.B Nakkawita -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-South-East Asia Desk	T.H.W. Houterus -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-South Asia Desk	J.C. Rajapaksa -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-Gen	Susantha De Alwis -S.L.O.S	Grade I
Director-Non aligned	R.C.A. Vandergert -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-Non aligned Documentation	R. Jayasinghe -S.L.O.S	Grade III
Director-U.N & Human rights	R.C.A. Vandergert -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-Consular Affairs	N. Wijeratna -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Director-Economic Affairs	Susantha De Alwis -S.L.O.S	Grade I
Chief of protocol	Edmond Jayasinghe -S.L.O.S	Grade III
Director-Publicity		
Internal -	Mrs. Manel Abesekara	Grade II
External -	T.D.S.A. Dissanayaka	
Director-conference	Kalidasa De Silva -S.L.O.S	Grade II
Legal Advisor	Rohan Perera -L.L.B Attorney-At-Law	

7.3 Senior Officials Presently Work in the Missions Abroad

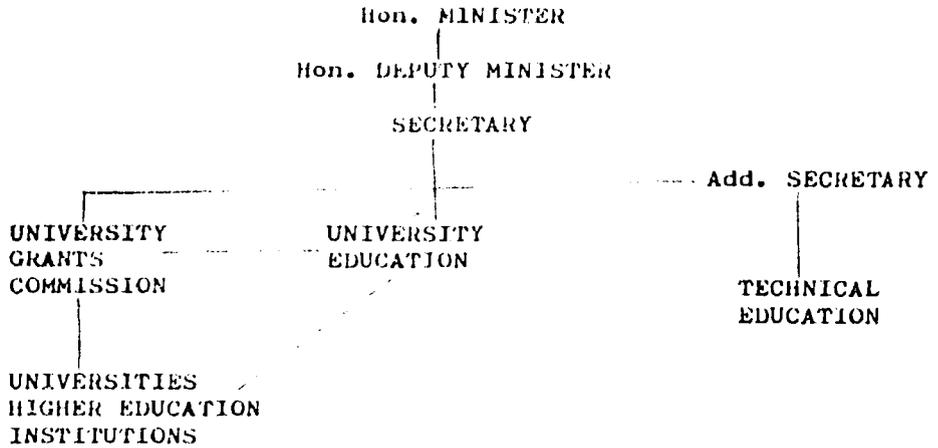
Australia	--	"	"	His Excellency Lieut: General J.E.D Perera.
Bangladesh	-	"	"	Mr. D.S. Tilakaratna.
Belgium	-	"	"	Mr. D.A. De Silva.
Britain	-	"	"	Mr. I.B.C. Monerawela.
Burma	-	"	"	Mr. Wijenarayana.
Canada	-	"	"	Dr. P. B. G. Kulugali.
People's Republic of China	-	"	"	Mr. K. N. Samarasinghe.
Arab Republic of Egypt	-	"	"	Mr. A. Kathiramasalinathan.
France	-	"	"	Mr. D.G.E. De Silva.
F.R.G.	-	"	"	Mr. A.T. Jayakoddy.
India - New Delhi	-	"	"	Mr. Bernard P. Tilakaratna.
Madras	-	"	"	A.H. Senaviratna - Deputy High Commissioner.
Indonesia	-	"	"	Mr. K.B. Rajasinham.
Iraq	-	"	"	Mr. N. Navaratnaraja.
Italy	-	"	"	Mr. M.A. Piyasekera.
Japan	-	"	"	Mr. A. Hanayake.
Kenya	-	"	"	Mr. B.C. Perera.
Kuwait	-	"	"	Mr. A.C.H. Mohamed.
Federation of Malaysia	-	"	"	Vacant
Republic of Maldives	-	"	"	Mr. M.E.H. Mohamed Ali.
Pakistan	-	"	"	Mr. Austin Jayawardana.
Philippines	-	"	"	Mr. N.M.M.J. Hussain.
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	-	"	"	Mr. A.L.M. Hashim.
Singapore	-	"	"	Mr. N. Balasubramaniam.
Sweden	-	"	"	Mr. P.H. Kurukulasuriya.
Switzerland	-	"	"	Mr. J.C.B. Dhanapala.
Thailand	-	"	"	Mr. D.D.I.G. Seneviratna.
U.A.E	-	"	"	Mr. S. Gauthamadasa.
U.N	-	"	"	Mr. Nissanka Wijewardana.
U.S.A	-	"	"	Mr. Ernest Corea.
U.S.S.R	-	"	"	Mr. Neville Kanakarathna.
Yugoslavia	-	"	"	Mr. R.A.R.S. Ramnayake.

8.0 ORGANISATIONAL CHART OF THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION



8.1

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART SHOWING MAJOR DIVISIONS
AND RELATIONSHIP WITH UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION



Note: The Secretary, Ministry of Higher Education is also Chairman of University Grants Committee.

8.2 University Grants Commission

The University Grants Commission, which is an autonomous body, was established on 27th December, 1978 under the Universities Act No. 16 of 1978.

The main functions of the University Grants Commission are:-

- (a) "The planning and coordination of University Education so as to conform to national policy;
- (b) The apportionment to Higher Educational Institutions, of the funds voted by Parliament in respect of University Education, and the control of expenditure by each such Higher Educational Institution;
- (c) The maintenance of academic standards of Higher Educational Institutions;
- (d) The regulation of the administration of Higher Educational Institutions;
- (e) The regulation of the admission of students to each Higher Educational Institution";

Under the Act, 6 campuses of the former University of Sri Lanka were deemed to be Universities with effect from 1st January, 1979, as follows:-

<u>Campus</u>	<u>University</u>
Colombo Campus	University of Colombo
Peradeniya Campus	University of Peradeniya
Vidyodaya Campus	University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Vidyalandara Campus	University of Kelaniya
Katubedda Campus	University of Moratuwa
Jaffna Campus	University of Jaffna

In addition, three new Higher Educational Institutions were established.

Ruhuna University College (now University of Ruhuna)

Dumbara Campus (of the University of Peradeniya)

Open University of Sri Lanka.

Batticaloa University College (Affiliated to the University
-of Peradeniya)

8.3

Other Higher Educational Institutions are:-

- (a) Postgraduate Institute of Agriculture
- (b) Postgraduate Institute of Medicine
- (c) Postgraduate Institute of Pali and Buddhist Studies
- (d) Institute of Aesthetic Studies
- (e) Institute of Indigenous Medicine
- (f) Institute of Worker's Education

8.4

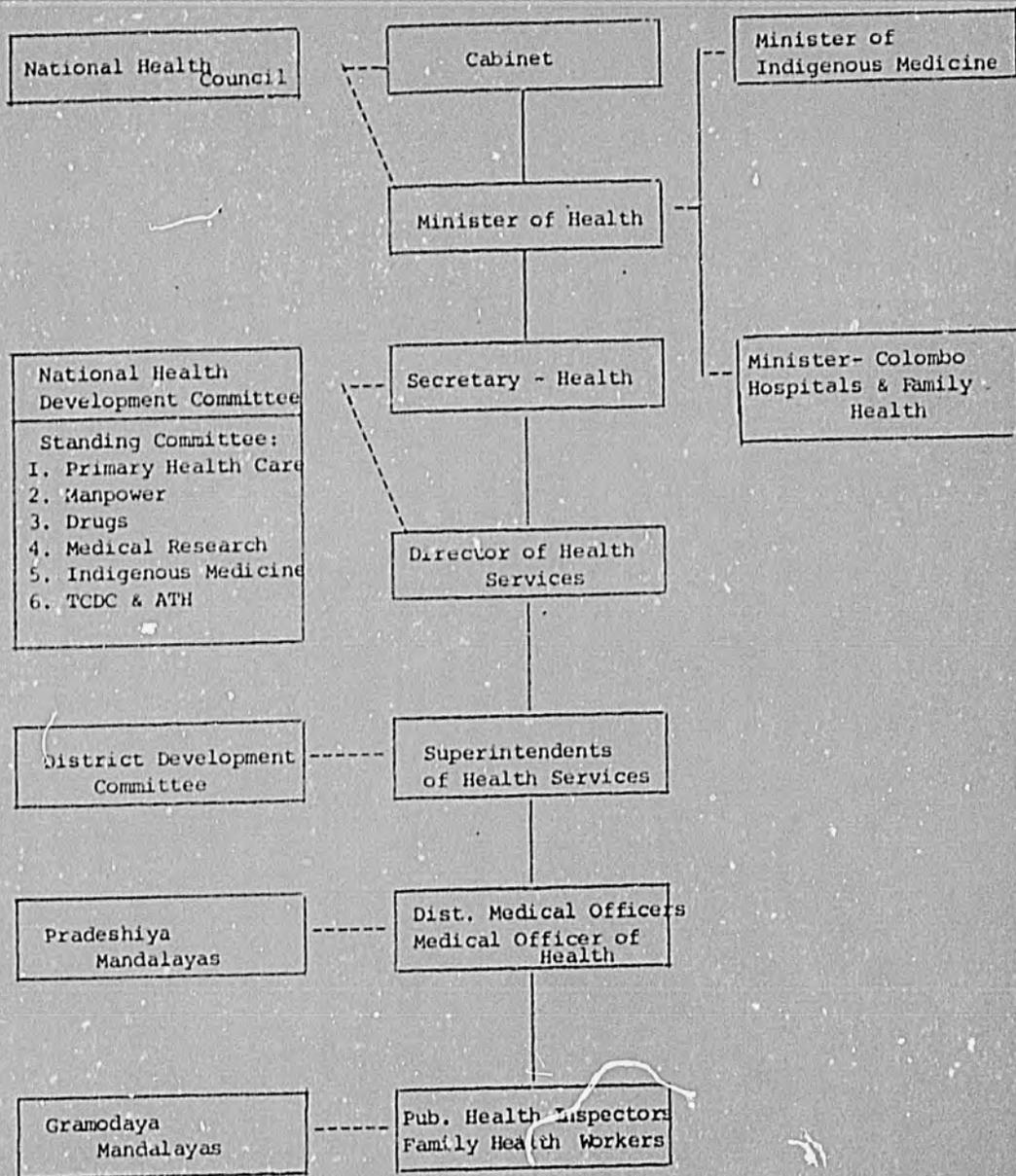
List of Important Positions and Persons in the Ministry of
Higher Education

<u>NAME</u>	<u>POSITION</u>
* H.E. Hon. J.R. Jayewardene	Minister of Higher Education
* Hon. Mr. A.M.R.B. Attanayake	Deputy Minister
* Dr F.S.C.P. Kalpage	Secretary
Mr M.C.T. Fonseka	Additional Secretary
Mr N. Samarasundara	Senior Assistant Secretary (University Education/Foreign Awards)
Mr. R.B. Wanninayaka	Senior Assistant Secretary (Foreign Projects)
* Mr. R.A.A. Rupasinghe	Assistant Secretary (Trade Unions)
Mr. W. Samarasinghe	Director (Technical Education)
Mr. M.B.P. Handakubura	Party Coordinating Secretary
Mr. P.R.W. Pathirana	Chief Accountant
Mr. W. Brindley	Civil Engineer
Mr. W. Samaranayake	Administrative Officer

Note

* Political Appointments

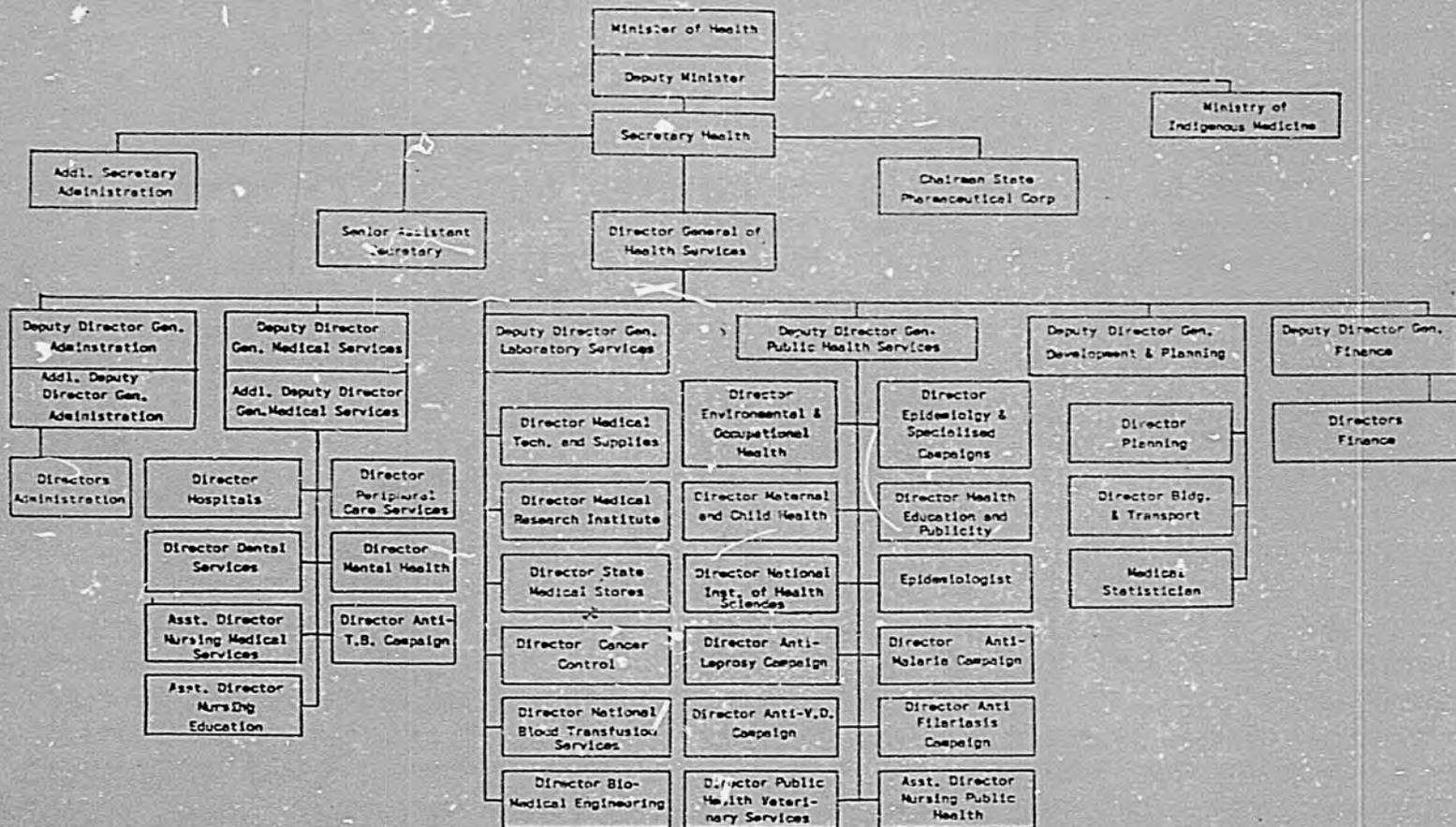
9.0 HEALTH DEVELOPMENT NETWORK IN SRI LANKA



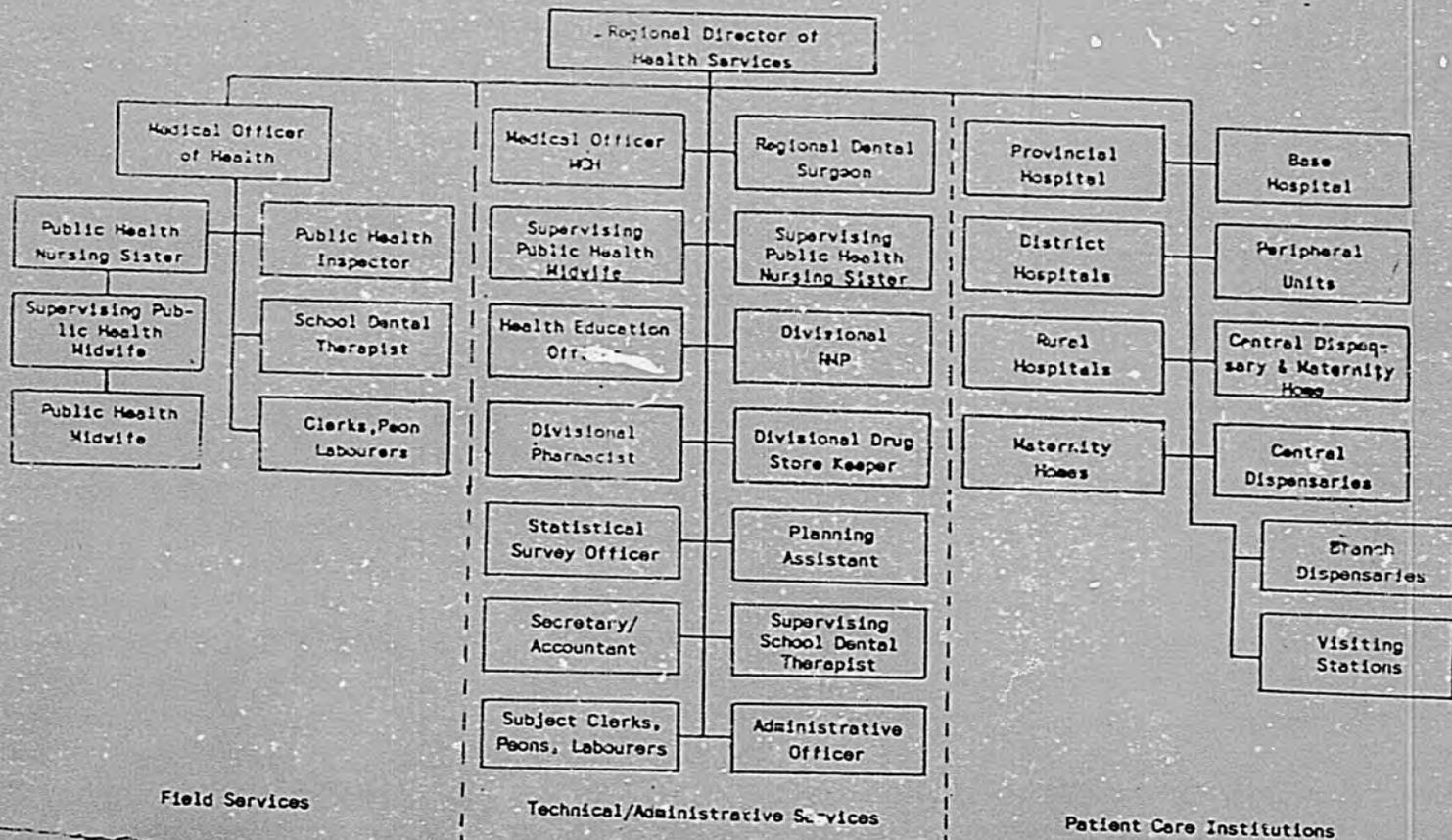
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9.1 MINISTRY OF HEALTH, SRI LANKA

ORGANISATION CHART



MINISTRY OF HEALTH, SRI LANKA
 ORGANISATION OF REGIONAL HEALTH SERVICES



9.3 LIST OF NAMES OF PERSONS IN THE IMPORTANT POSITIONS
OF THE HEALTH MINISTRY

- 5.1. Minister of Health
Dr. Ranjith Atapattu
- 5.2. Deputy Minister
Mr. Chandra Gankande
- 5.3. Ministry of Indigenous Medicine
(Project Ministry)
Minister - Mr. V.J.M.Lokubandara
- 5.4. Secretary/Health
Dr. S.D.M.Fernando
- 5.5. Addl. Secretary Administration
Mr. W.Tennakoon, S.L.A.S.
- 5.6. Senior Assistant Secretary
Mr. J.D.Ariyasinghe S.L.A.S.

9.4

- 5.7. Director General of Health Services
Dr.C.D.Herath
- 5.8. Chairman State Pharmaceuticals Corporation
Dr. (Mrs.) Gladys Jayawardena
- 5.9. Deputy Director General Administration
Mr. S. Gubbilawatte, S.L.A.S.
- 5.10. Deputy Director General Medical Services
Dr. Joe Fernando
- 5.11. Addl. Deputy Director General Medical Services
- 5.12. Director Hospitals
Dr. K.T.K. de Silva
- 5.13. Director Peripheral Care Services
Dr. V. Singanayagam
- 5.14. Director Dental Care Services
Mr. D. de Fonseka
- 5.15. Director Mental Health
Dr. A.C.S. Jayasinghe
- 5.16. Asst. Director Medical Services
Mrs. B. Nagahawatte
- 5.17. Director Anti - T.B. Campaign
Dr. M. Weerasekera
- 5.18. Asst. Director Nursing Education
Mrs. P.C.S. Samarasekera
- 5.19. Director Administration
Mr. P. Banbarawana S.L.A.S.

9.5

- 5.20. Deputy Director General Laboratory Services
Dr.W.George Fernando

- 5.21. Director Medical Technical & Supplies
Dr.Reggie Perera

- 5.22. Director Medical Research Institute
Dr. U.T.Vitharana

- 5.23. Director State Medical Stores
Mr. Wijewantha S.L.A.S.

- 5.24. Director Canceal Control
Dr. B.D.P. Gunawardena

- 5.25. Director National Blood Transfusion Services
Dr. (Mrs.) S. de Zoysa

- 5.26. Director Bio Medical Engineering Services

- 5.27. Deputy Director General Public Health Services
Dr. M. Rodrigo

- 5.28. Director Environmental & Occupational Health
Dr. E. Rajanathan

- 5.29. Director Maternal & Child Health
Dr. N.W. Vidyasagara

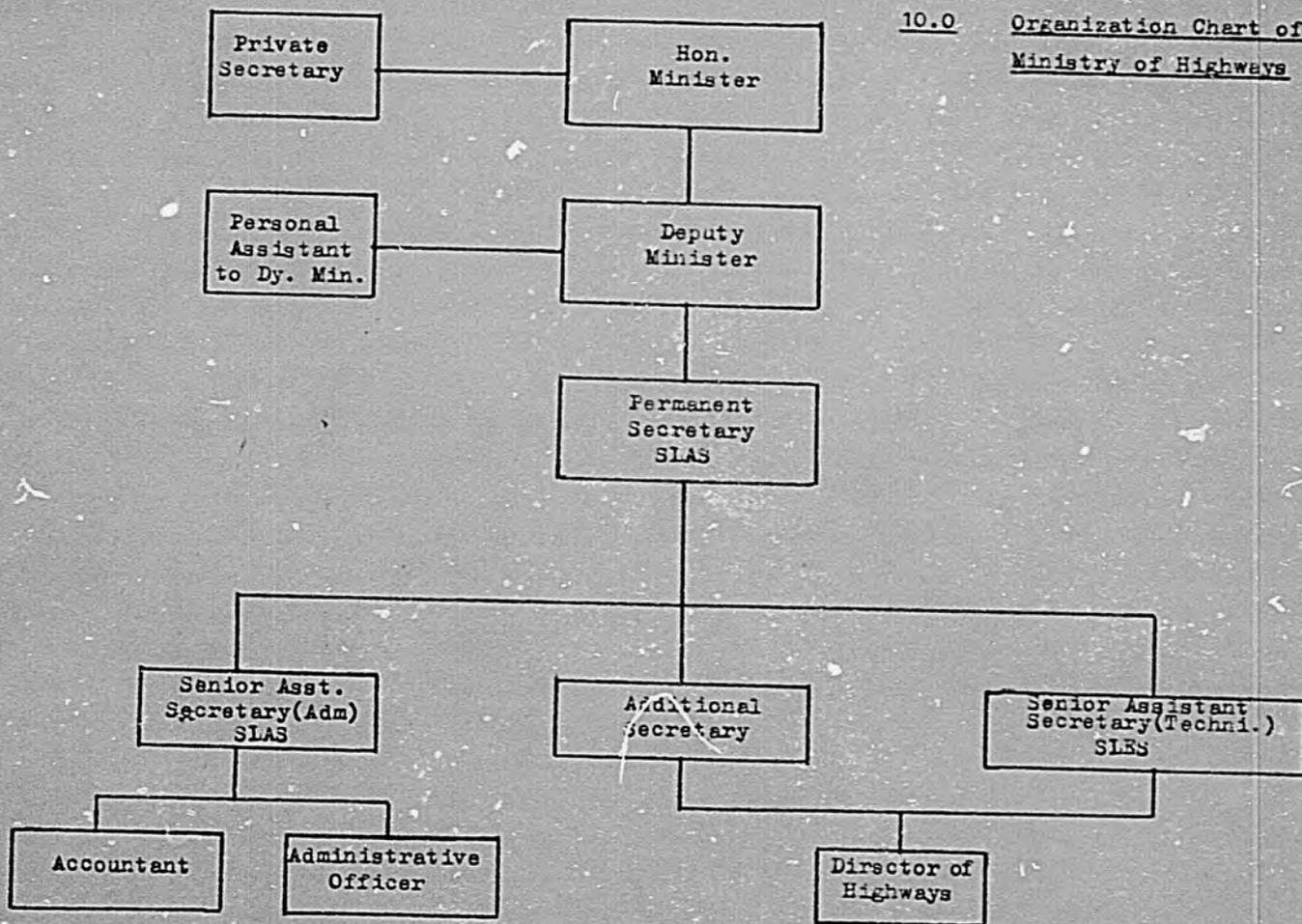
- 5.30. Director National Institute of Health Services
Dr. T. Cooray

- 5.31. Director Anti-Leprosy Campaign
Dr. C.S.P.Sabapathy

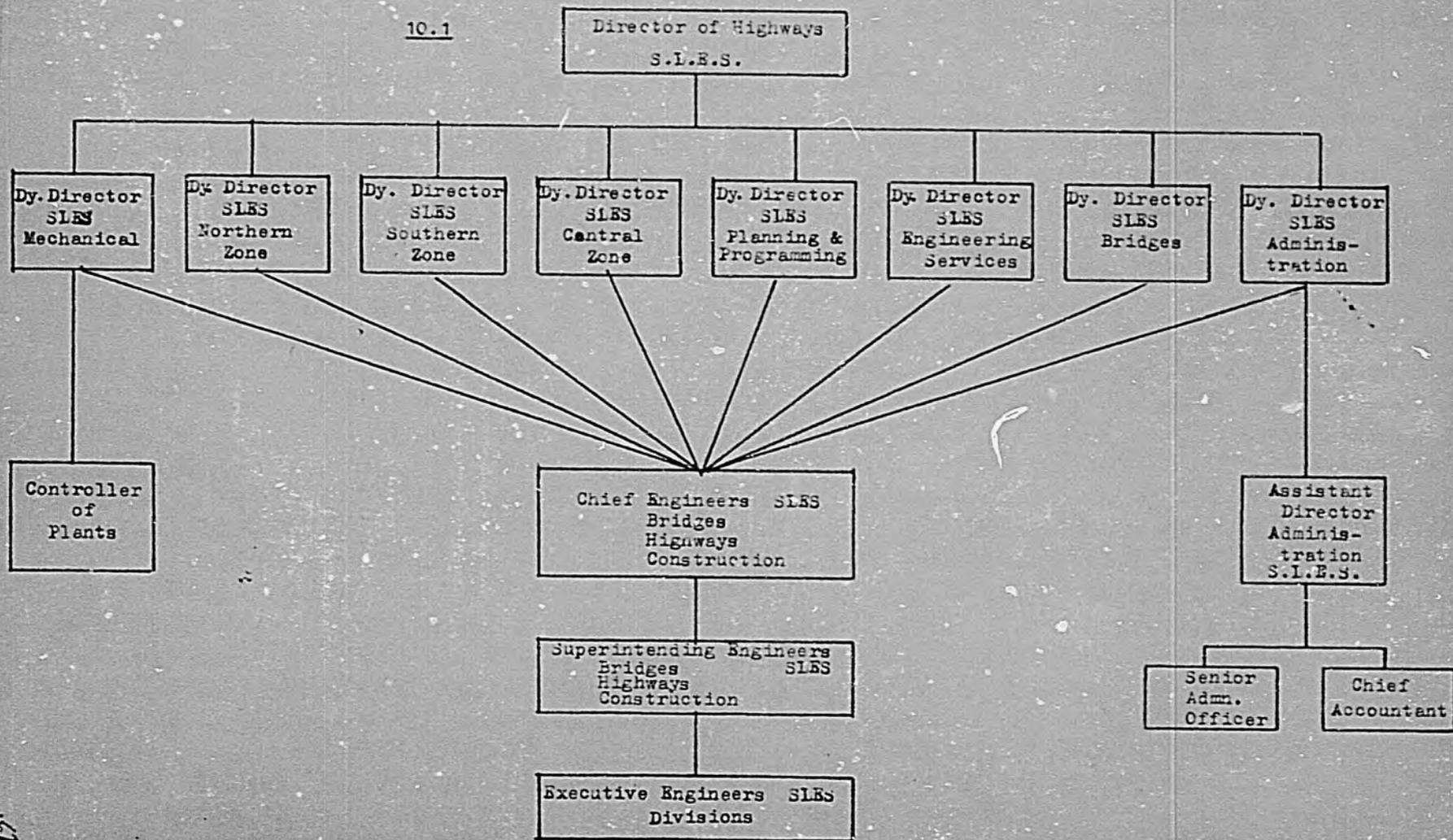
9.6

- 5.32. Director Anti -V.D. Campaign
Dr. G.N.Jayakuru
- 5.33. Director Epidemiology & Specialised Campaigns
Dr. K. Heendeniya
- 5.34. Director Health Education & Publicity
Dr. Merl Perera
- 5.35. Epidemiologist
Dr. A.V.K.V. de Silva
- 5.36. Director Anti - Malaria Campaign
Dr. K. Subramaniam
- 5.37. Director Anti Filaria Campaign
Dr. C.L. Mendis
- 5.38. Asst. Director Nursing Public Health
Mrs. D.D. Piyaratne
- 5.39. Director Planning
Dr. D.C.R. Liyanage
- 5.40. Deputy Director General/Finance
Buddhadasa, Accountant
- 5.41. Director Finance.

10.0 Organization Chart of the
Ministry of Highways



10.1



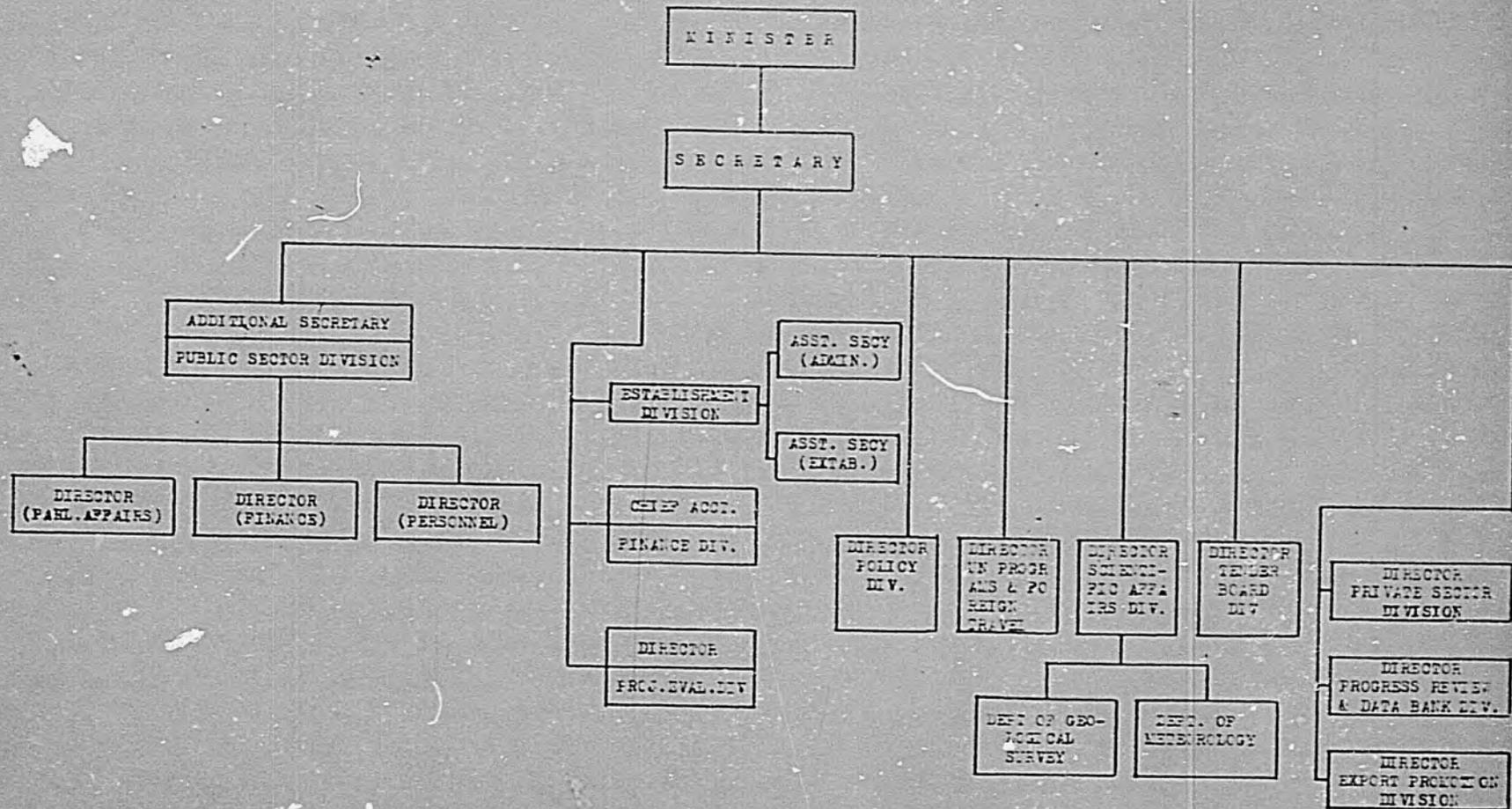
10.2 MINISTRY OF HIGHWAYS: KEY POSITIONS

Hon. Minister : R. Premadasa - Hon. Prime Minister
Hon. Dy. Minister : S.W. Alawathuwala
Pte. Secy to the Minister : F.D. Balasuriya
Personal Asst. to the Dy. Minister : M.B. Alawala
Permanent Secy. to the Minister : R. Paskaralingam, C.C.S.
Addl. Secy. : D.J. Amerasinghe
Snr. Asst. Secy (Admn) : M.J. Silva S.L.A.S.
Snr. Asst. Secy. (Tech) : B.M. de Soysa S.L.E.S.
Accountant : K. Doranegoda
Administrative Officer : R. Ramasinghe

List of Names who hold key positions in the Dept. of Highways

Director : B.C.H. Mendis S.L.E.S.
Dy. Director (Southern Zone) : H.A.H.S. Perera S.L.F.S.
Dy. Director (Central Zone) : C.J. Senanayake S.L.E.S.
Dy. Director (Planning & Programming) : W.A.V. Wickremasinghe S.L.E.S.
Dy. Director (Northern Zone) : G.P.S. Dassanayake S.L.E.S.
Dy. Director (Bridges) : F.F.M. Perera
Asst. Director (Admn) : C. Miyanawala
Chief Accountant : S.C. Navaratnam
Chief Engineer (Construction) : R.S.A. Peiris
Chief Engineer Designs (Highways) : D.D. Senanayake
Chief Engineer Designs (Bridges) : D.D.O. Paranagama
Chief Engineer (Traffic and Planning) : G.S. Haththotuwegama

11.0 MINISTRY OF INDUSTRIES AND SCIENTIFIC AFFAIRS



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LIST OF IMPORTANT POSITIONS

11.1 Ministry of Industries and Scientific Affairs

HON. MINISTER	-	H DENZIL FERNANDO	
SECRETARY	-	A A JUSTIN DIAS	
ADDITIONAL SECRETARY	-	L DE SILVA	
ESTABLISHMENT DIVISION			
ASST. SECRETARY (ADMIN)	-	H P DE SILVA	SLAS
ASST. SECRETARY (ESTAB.)	-	W U. WEERAWARDENA	SLAS
CHIEF ACCOUNTANT FINANCE DIVISION	-	D B PERERA	SLAS
DIRECTOR PRIVATE SECTOR DIVISION	-	D L MUDALIGE C.ENG.	
PUBLIC SECTOR DIVISION			
DIRECTOR (PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS)	-	HAROLD FERNANDO	SLAS
DIRECTOR (PERSONNEL)	-	HANDASENA SENARATNE	SLAS
DIRECTOR (FINANCE)	-	D B PERERA (SUBSTANTIVE)	
DIRECTOR TENDER BOARD DIVISION	-	MRS ROHINI JAYASINGHE (MINISTRY PARALLEL, GRADE)	
DIRECTOR, POLICY DIVISION	-	H R PERERA	SLAS
DIRECTOR SCIENTIFIC AFFAIRS	-	DR SENEVIRATNE (PH.D)	
DIRECTOR UN. PROGRAMS AND TRAVEL DIVISION	-	P G KARUNASIRI	SLAS
DIRECTOR DATA BANK DIVISION	-	D DE. S RATNAWERA (M.A)	
DIRECTOR PROJECT EVALUATION	-	D H SATHISCHANDRA	SLAS
DIRECTOR EXPORT PROMOTION DIVISION	-	AMARA HEWAMADUWA	SLAS
DIRECTOR DEPT OF GEOLOGICAL SURVEY	-	DULIP JAYAWARDENA	
DIRECTOR DEPT. OF METEOROLOGY	-	MR PIYASEKERA	

11.2

LIST OF GOVT. OWNED BUSINESS UNDERTAKINGS
UNDER THE MINISTRY

SRI LANKA INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT CO. LIMITED

BOGALA GRAPHITE MINES

VIJAYA TILES LIMITED

MOORANI TILE WORKS

SHOW INDUSTRIES LIMITED

LANKA PORCELAIN LIMITED

LANKA WALL TILES LIMITED

UNITED MOTORS LIMITED

AUTOMOBILE ASSEMBLY & MANUFACTURE

CEYLON OXYGEN LIMITED

LANKA PINEAPPLES LIMITED

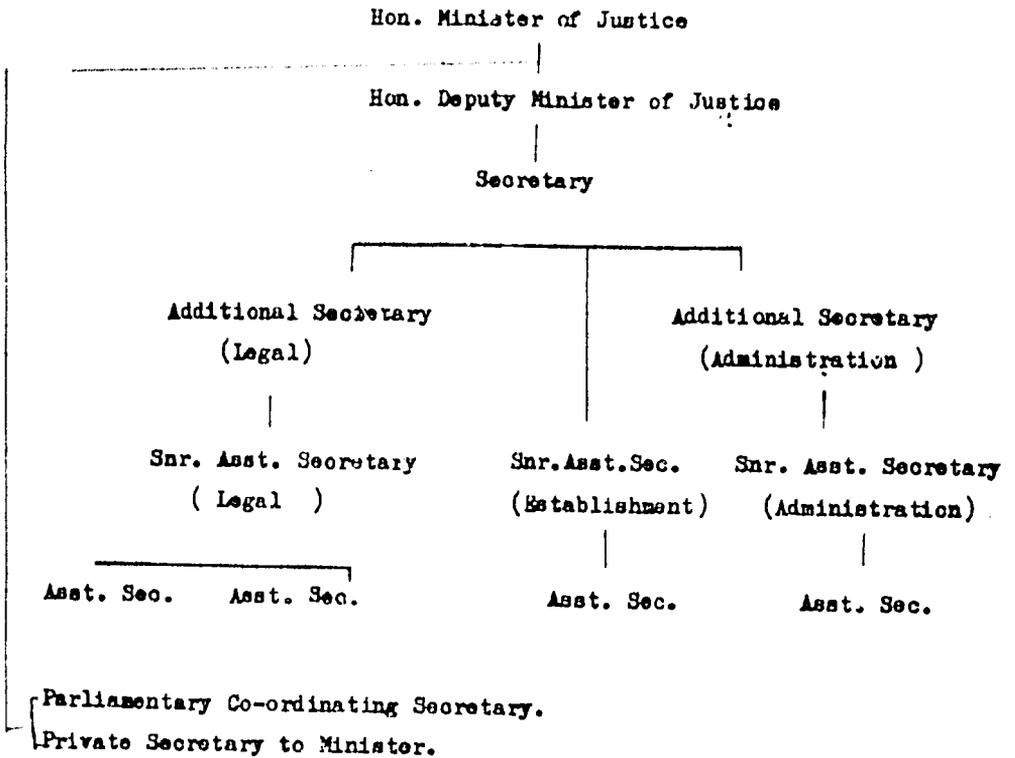
LANKA LEYLAND LIMITED

LANKA CEMENT LIMITED

12.0

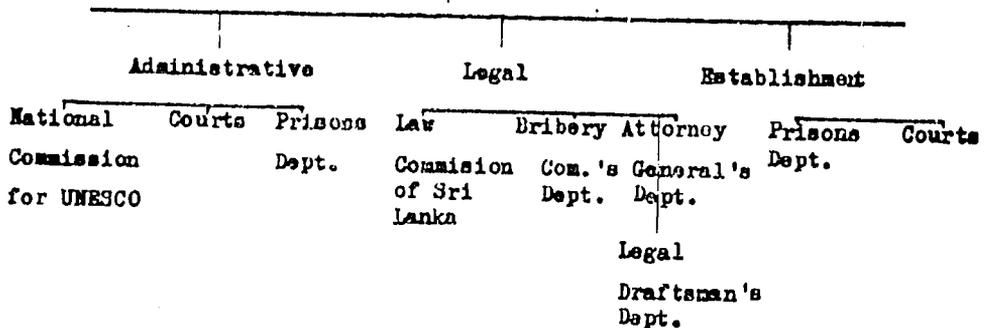
MINISTRY OF JUSTICE

ORGANISATIONAL FLOW CHART - FUNCTIONAL.



MINISTRY OF JUSTICE

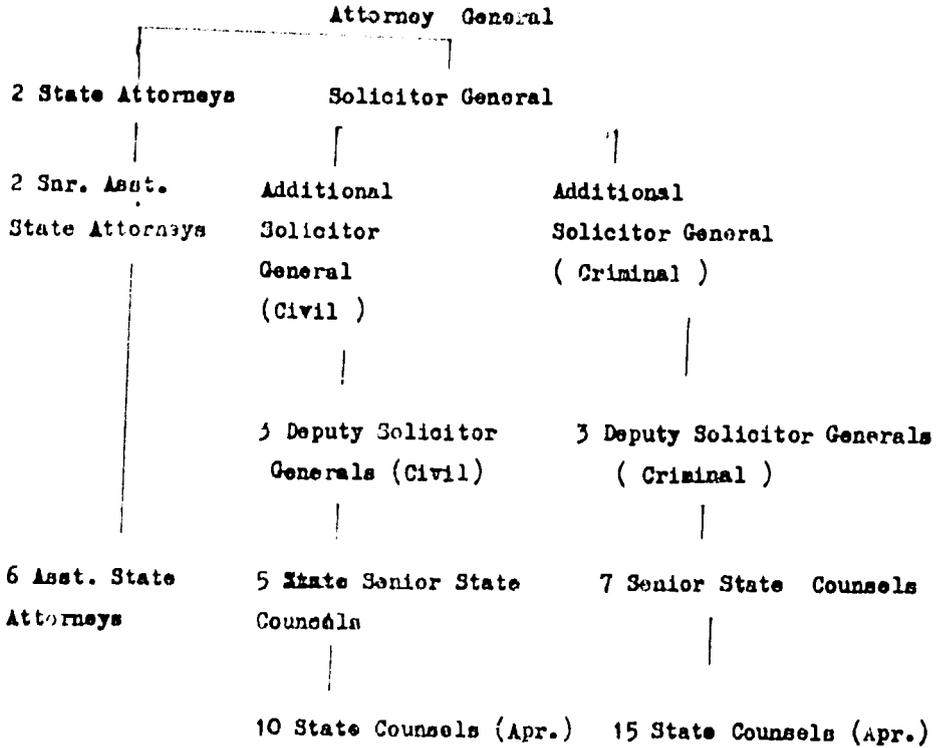
ORGANISATIONAL FLOW CHART - DEPARTMENTAL



12.1

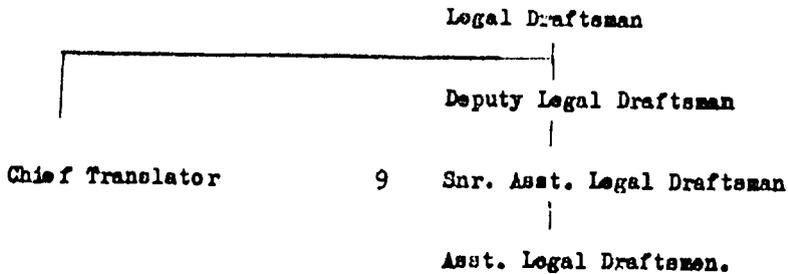
ATTORNEY GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT

ORGANISATION FLOW CHART



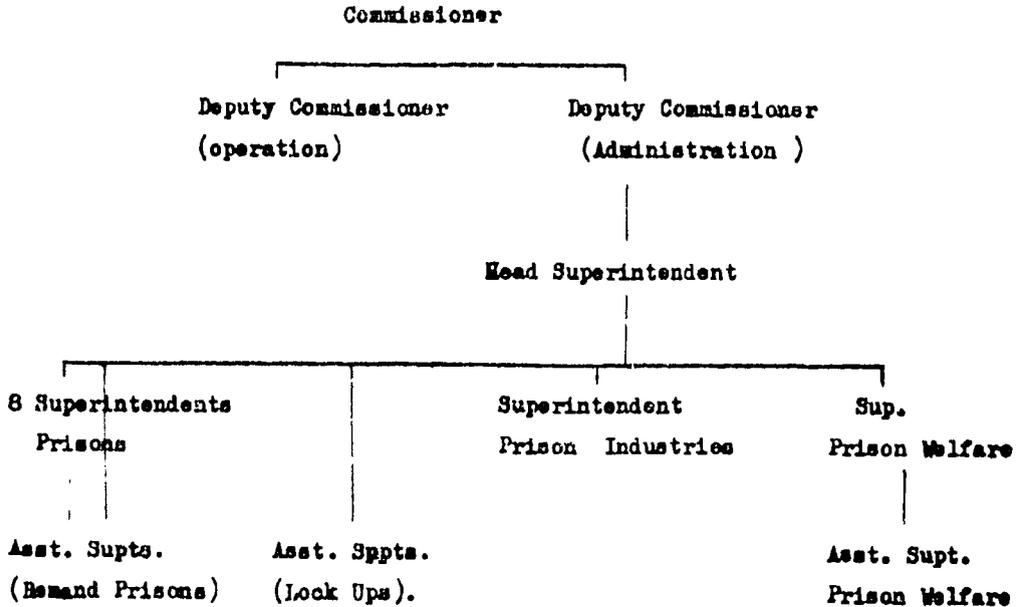
LEGAL DRAFTSMANS DEPARTMENT

ORGANISATIONAL FLOW CHART.



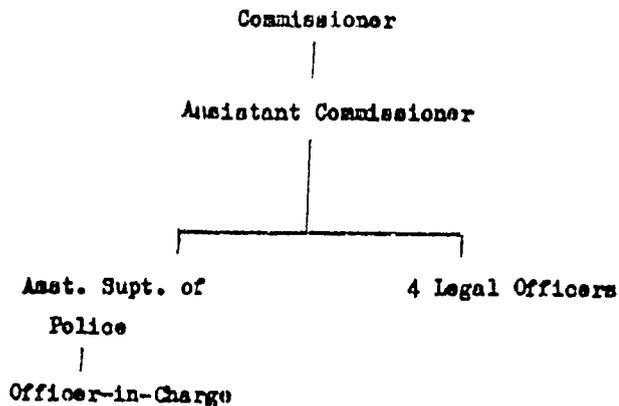
12.2 PRISONS DEPARTMENT

ORGANISATIONAL FLOW CHART



BRIBEY COMMISSIONER'S DEPARTMENT

ORGANISATIONAL FLOW CHART



12.3 JUSTICE MINISTRY

SENIOR OFFICIALS

1

Minister : Dr. Missanka Wijeratna, M.P.Ç.C.S
Deputy Minister : Shelton Ranaraja , M.P. Attorney-at-Law
Secretary : Dr. A.K.B. Amarasinghe
Addl. Secretary : P.B. Herat.
(Legal)
Add. Sec.(Admin.): S.J. Samarasekera Banda
Snr. Asst[†] Sec.
(Establishment) : K.J.C. Wijewardena
-do-
(Legal) : Mrs. D.S. Wijetillake
Asst. Sec.
(Administration) : W.A. Somadasa
Asst. Sec. : Mrs. K. Kulatunga
Asst. Sec.
(Legal) : Mrs. L.S. Perera
-do- : Mrs. S.A. Miles
Private Sec. to
Minister : Mrs. M. Wijeratne
Parliamentary
Coordinating Sec.: Heranjan Wijeratne

2

ATTORNEY GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT

Attorney General : Shiva Pasupathi
Solicitor General: K.H.M.B. Kulatunga
Addl. Solicitor
Generals : 1. S.W.B. Madugodapitiya (Civil)
2. P. Sumil Silva (Criminal)

12.4

Deputy Solicitor Generals : P.R.P. Perera (Criminal)
T.J. Marapana (Criminal)
S.N. Silva (Civil)
M.S. Asis (Civil)
P.L.D. Premaratne (Civil)
Upawansa Yapa (Criminal)

Snr. State Counsel : A. De Z. Gunawardena
H.S. Yapa
E.R.L. Jayatillake
A.S.M. Perera
J.A.N. Silva
D.P. Kumarasinghe
M.J.P.R. Perera
K.L. Kamala Sabesan
A.S. Ratnapala
C.R. de Silva
S. Marsoof
P.H.K. Kulatilake
C.N. Jayasinghe)
R.A.F. Arakularatne) Acting

Above Order is based on Seniority.

3

LEGAL DRAFTSMAN'S DEPARTMENT

Legal Draftsman : K.H.M.B. Kulatunga (Acting)
Deputy Legal Draftsman : V.K.N. Ramanayake
Snr. Legal Asst. Legal
Draftsman : N.J. Abeysekera
Mrs. R.F. de Soyaa
S.K.H. de Silva

12.5

M.E. Goonaratne
C.S. Arunasalam
M.E.N. Peiris
Mrs. T.R. Perera
Miss S.P. Ovitigala
H. Balasingham
Chief Translator : P.N. Mallowathanthri

STATE ATTORNEYS

2
State Attorneys : T.G. Goonaratne
U.R. Wijetunga
Snr. Asst. State
Attorneys : N.P. Thillakaratne
K.D.L.W. Perera

4 BRIBERY COMMISSIONER'S DEPARTMENT

Commissioner : Noel Wijenaike
Asst. Commissioner : Mrs. Nelum Ganuge

5 PRISONS DEPARTMENT

Commissioner : J.P. Delgado
Deputy Commissioner : C.T. Jones (Administration)
H.G. Dharmadasa (Operations)
Head Superintendent : D.A. Wickremasinghe
Supdt. Prison Industries : W.S. Singhapahu
Supdt. Prison Welfare : E.P. Amarasinghe

12.6

LAW COMMISSION OF SRI LANKA.

Chairman : Victor Tennakoon Q.C.
Act. Secy. : P.B. Herat
Commissioner : Dr. H.W. Tambiah Q.C.

Asst. Secretaries : Mrs. M.M. Gunawardena
Mrs. B.L. Gunasekera
Miss. M.N.B. Fernando
Mrs. P. Wijesekera.

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR UNESCO IN SRI LANKA.

Secretary : Cyril Fernando

All officials in the Justice Ministry and its Departments are Attorneys-at-law other than the persons who are in a administrative capacity. They are generally members of the Sri Lanka Administrative service. Generally they do not like their qualifications to be mentioned.

MINISTER

DEPUTY MINISTER

SECRETARY

ADDITIONAL SECRETARY

SENIOR ASSISTANT SECRETARY
(PLANNING & PROGRESS CONTROL)

ASSISTANT SECRETARY
(ILO)

ASSISTANT SECRETARY
(ADMINISTRATION)

COMMISSIONER OF LABOUR

DCL
(Adm)

DCL
(MAN POWER)

DCL
(EPF)

DCL
(OCCUP SAFETY)

DCL
(OCCUP HYGINE)

DCL
(ENF)

DCL
(WOMENS AFFAIRS)

DCL
(WOMENS & CHILD CARE)

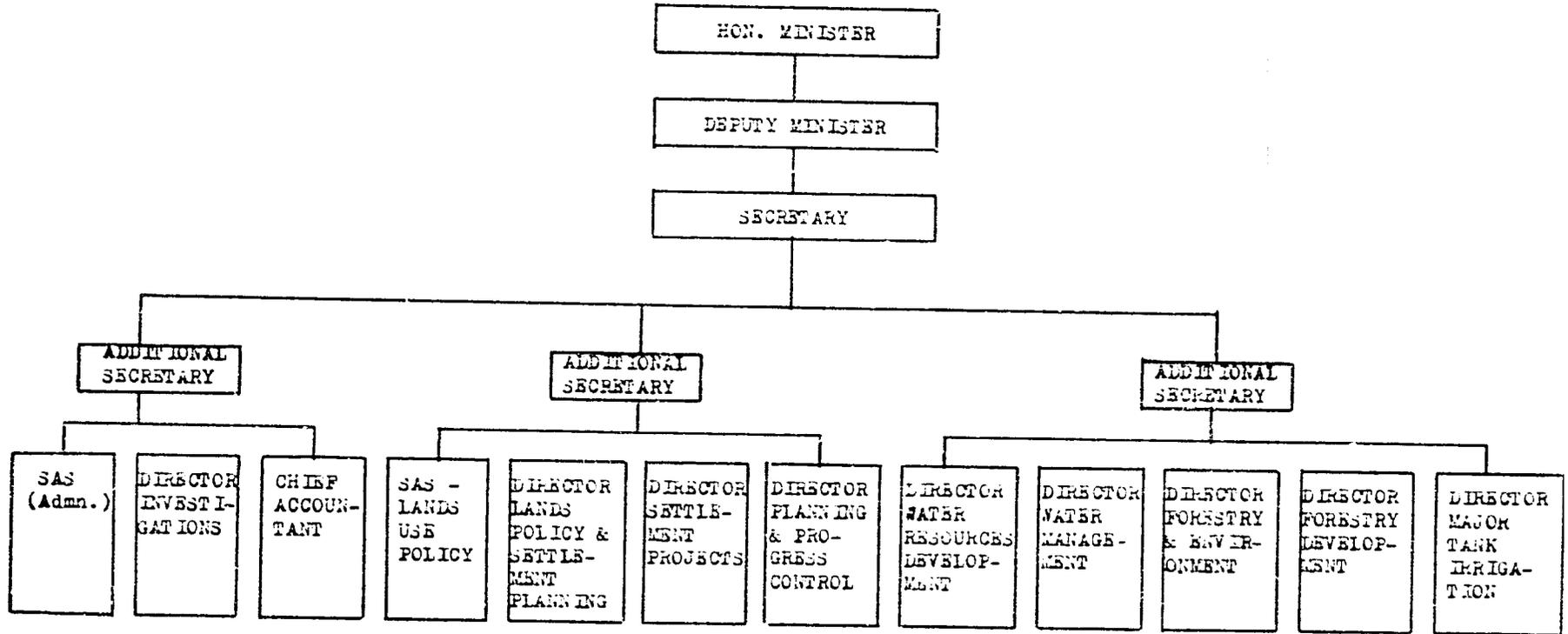
ENGINEER
(MAINTENENCE)

DISTRICT VTC

ENGINEER

ORGANIZATION CHART

13.0 Ministry of Labour

MINISTRY OF LANDS & LAND DEVELOPMENT

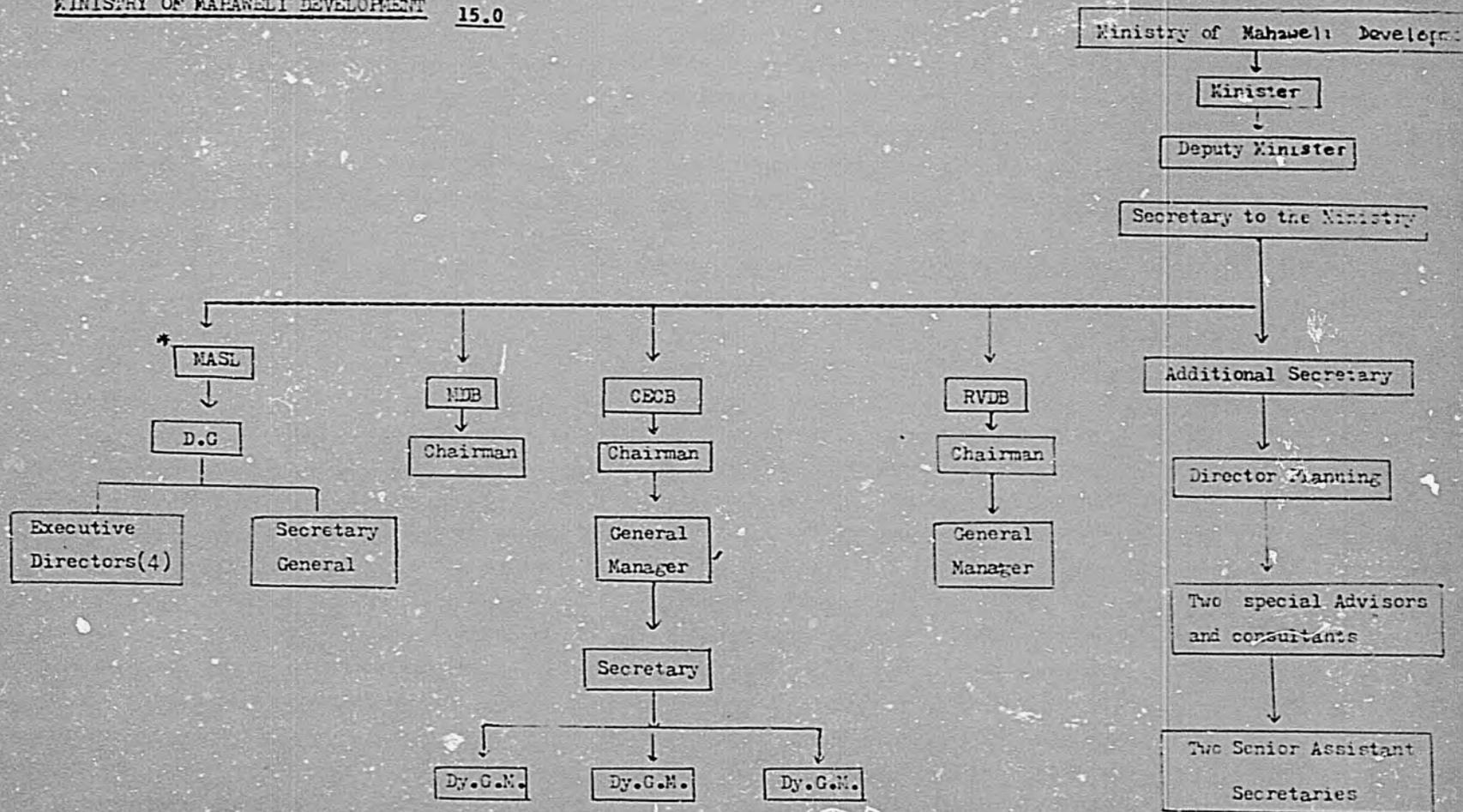
14.1Key Personnel in the Ministry

<u>Designation</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Background</u>
Secretary	Mr Nanda Abeywickrama	C.A.S.
Additional Secretary(1)	Mr R.S. Jayaratne	C.A.S.
Senior Asst. Secretary (Land Policy)	Mr O.C. Jayawardena	C.A.S.
Director (Land Use)	Dr Silva	Professor of Geography
Director (Planning & Progress Control)	S.M.P. Marikkar	
Additional Director (Planning & Progress)	Mr I.P.C. Mendis	C.A.S.
Director (Settlement Projects)	Mr Ananda Weerasekera	C.A.S.
Additional Secretary(2)	Mr D.G. Premachandra	C.A.S.
Director (Water Resources Development)	Mr J. Alwis	
Director (Water Management)	Mr K.D.P. Perera	Engineer
Director (Forestry & Environment)	Mr S.B. Bandusena	C.A.S.
Director (Forestry Development)	Mr A. Pushparajah	Scientific Service
Director (Major Tank Irrigation)	Mr P. Senarath	Engineer
Additional Secretary(3)	Mr K.W.M.P. Napitigama	C.A.S.
Senior Assistant Secretary	Mrs N. Mphottala	
Director (Investigation)		
Chief Accountant	Mr M. Saravanamuttu	Accountant's Service.

ORGANISATION CHART

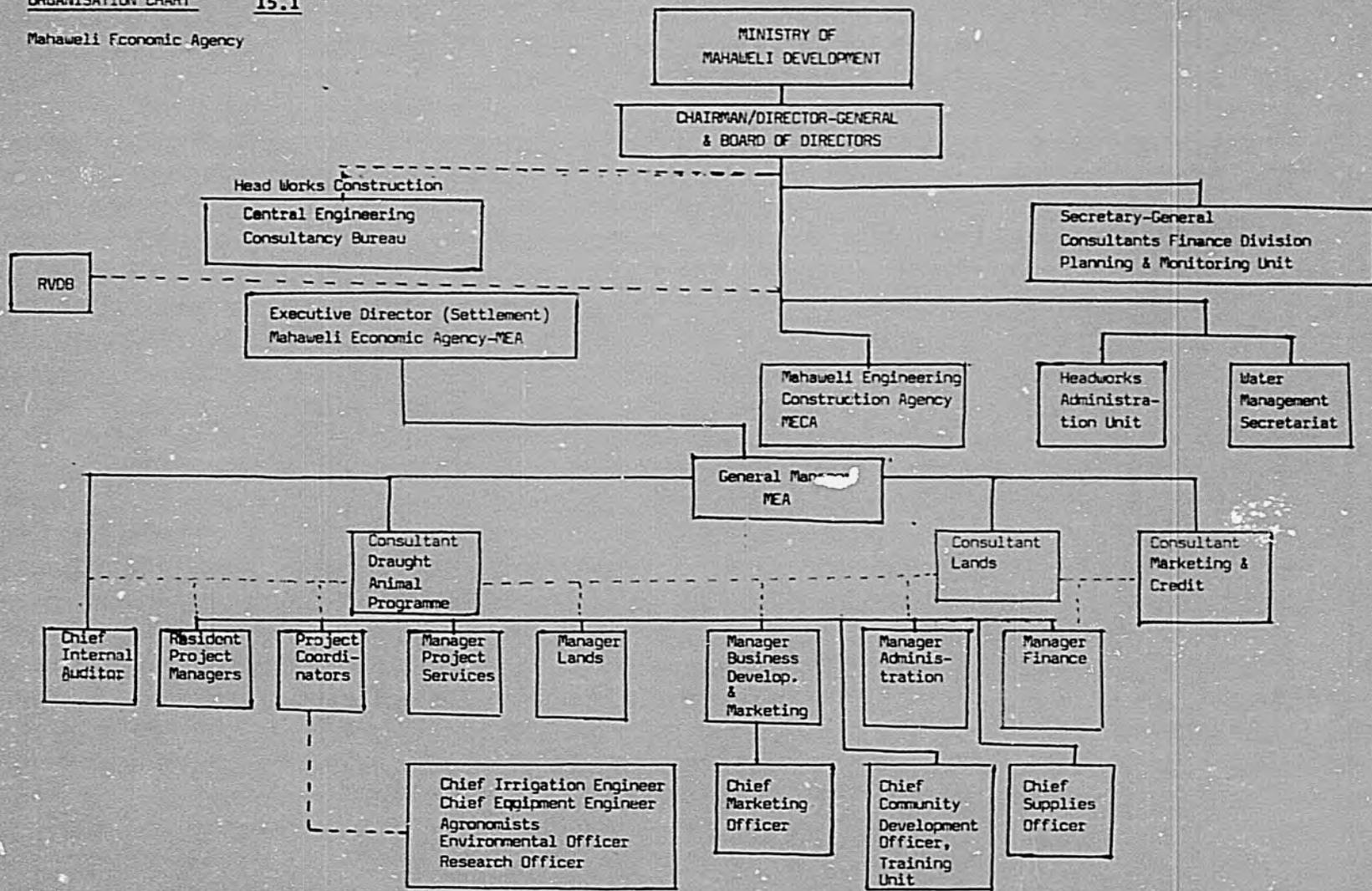
MINISTRY OF MAHAWELI DEVELOPMENT

15.0



* See Chart (2) for Details.

Mahaweli Economic Agency



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MINISTRY OF MAHAWELI DEVELOPMENT - POSITIONS AND
 NAMES OF PERSONS - 15.2

<u>Position</u>	<u>Individual</u>	<u>Qualification</u>
Minister	Ganini Disanayake	L.L.B. (Cey)
Dy. Minister	M.L. Adikari	
Secretary	Ivan Samarawickrama	S.L.A.S, B.A.
Additional Secretary	C.W.Rupa	S.L.A.S, B.A.(Honn)
Additional Secretary	A.D.N. Fernando	S.L.A.S
Additional Secretary	D.J. Bandara/goda	
Additional Secretary	I.K. Weerawardena	S.L.A.S., B.A.(Honn)
Director Planning	T.H. Karunatilake	
Special Advisor	H.S. Cocke	
Consultant	V.H. Rajaratnam	
Senior Asst. Secretary	H.K. Somasundaram S. Mudalige	

MAHAWELI AUTHORITY OF SRI LANKA

Director-General	K.H.S. Gunatillake	B.Sc.(Eng)
Executive Director (Engineering)	-	-
Executive Director (Settlement)	D.J. Bandara/goda	S.L.A.S
Executive Director Secretary General	I.K.B. Godamune	S.L.A.S
Dy. Secretary General	P.T. Senaratne	-
Dy. Special Projects	K.B. Varnasooriya	-
Finance Co-ordinator	N.A. De Mel	F.C.A.
Financial Accountant	C.M.de Wann	A.C.A.
Legal Officer	S.T. Yatawara	L.L.B (Attorney-at-Law)
Consultant (Agriculture)	D.V.W. Aboye/gunawardana	B.Sc., Ph.D
Director Water Management Secretariat	L. U. Weerakoon	-

<u>Position</u>	<u>15.3</u>	<u>Individual</u>	<u>Qualification</u>
Dy. Director		P. Samaraweera	-
Director (Planning & Monitoring Unit)		A. Attanayake	B.A., Ph.D
General Manager (MEA)		Sisil Amarasinghe	B.A., S.L.A.S
Manager (Projects)		H.M.W. Samarakoon	B.A. (Hons.)
Manager (D.W. Kannangara	-

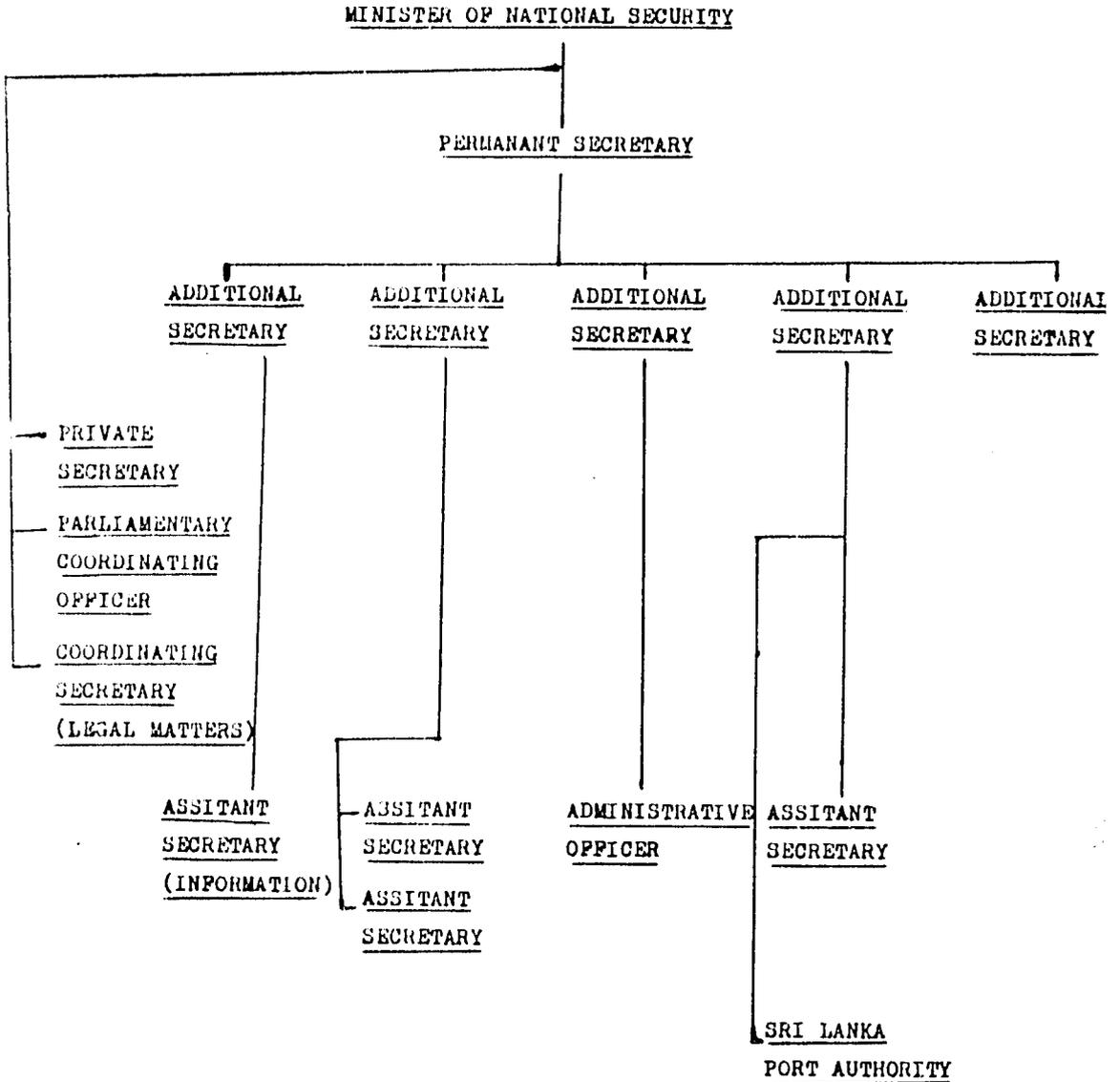
MAHAWELI ENGINEERING & CONSULTANCY AUTHORITY (MECA)

Chairman		R.U. Fernando	B.Sc., Ph.D
Dy. Chairman		Pujitha Manawadu	
Director Administration		W.S. Hulugalle	
Director		M.R.A. Jilangakoon	

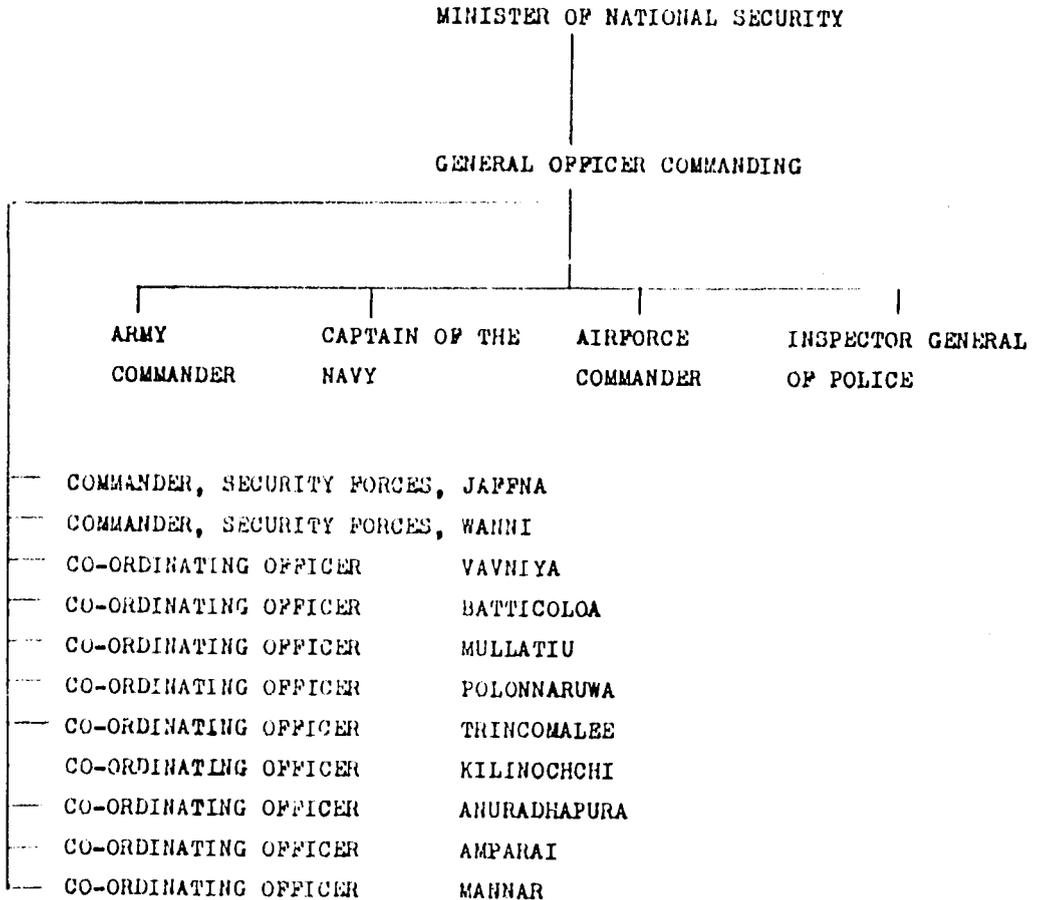
CENTRAL ENGINEERING CONSULTANCY BUREAU (CECB)

Chairman		A.N.S. Kulasinghe	B.Sc., Ph.D
General Manager		G.G. Jayawardena	B.Sc., MIECE
Secretary		H.J.P. Perera	-
Addl. General Manager		Sivapala Bandara	-
Dy. General Manager		H.B. Jayasekera	B.Sc., MIECE
Dy. General Manager		K. Kulavaratharash	B.Sc. MSc.
Dy. General Manager		G.B. Palipana	

16.0 ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF
NATIONAL SECURITY



16.1 THE SECURITY NETWORK FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE PREVENTION OF TERRORISM
IN SRI LANKA



Above mentioned officers are appointed by the President to act as Co-Ordinating Officers under the emergency (Misc Provisions & Power) regulations of No 9 of 1985

16.2

List of important positions, names of persons and their qualifications
of the Ministry of National Security

a. Minister of National Security

Hon. Mr Lalith Athlathmudali, MP
B.C.L.(Oxford), LL.M.

b. Personal Secretary

Mr A.P.Hapudeniya
B.A., S.L.A.S.

(In addition to this appointment he also acts as the additional
secretary to the Ministry of Defence)

Additional Secretaries:

c. Dr Wickrama Weerassoriya

LL.D., Ph.D.

d. Mr Harsha Wickramasinghe

B.A., S.L.A.S.

e. Mr Luxman De Mel

B.A. Hons, S.L.A.S.

f. Chandra Wickramasinghe

B.A., S.L.A.S.

Personal Staff of the Minister:

g. Private Secretary

Mr U.Gooneratne

h. Co-Ordinating Secretary and Legal Advisor

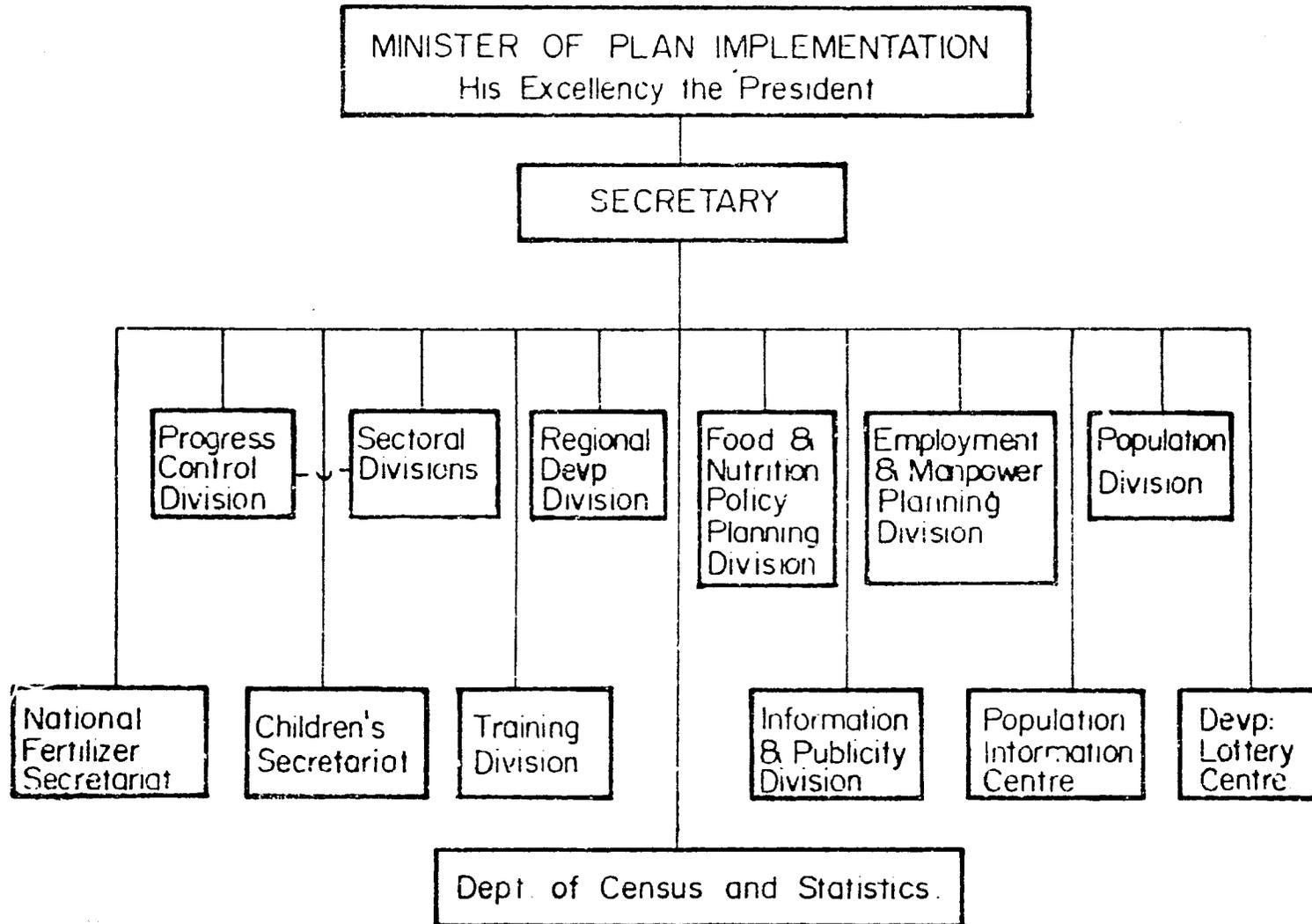
Miss Shamila Perera
Attorney-at-Law

i. Parliamentary Co-Ordinating Officer

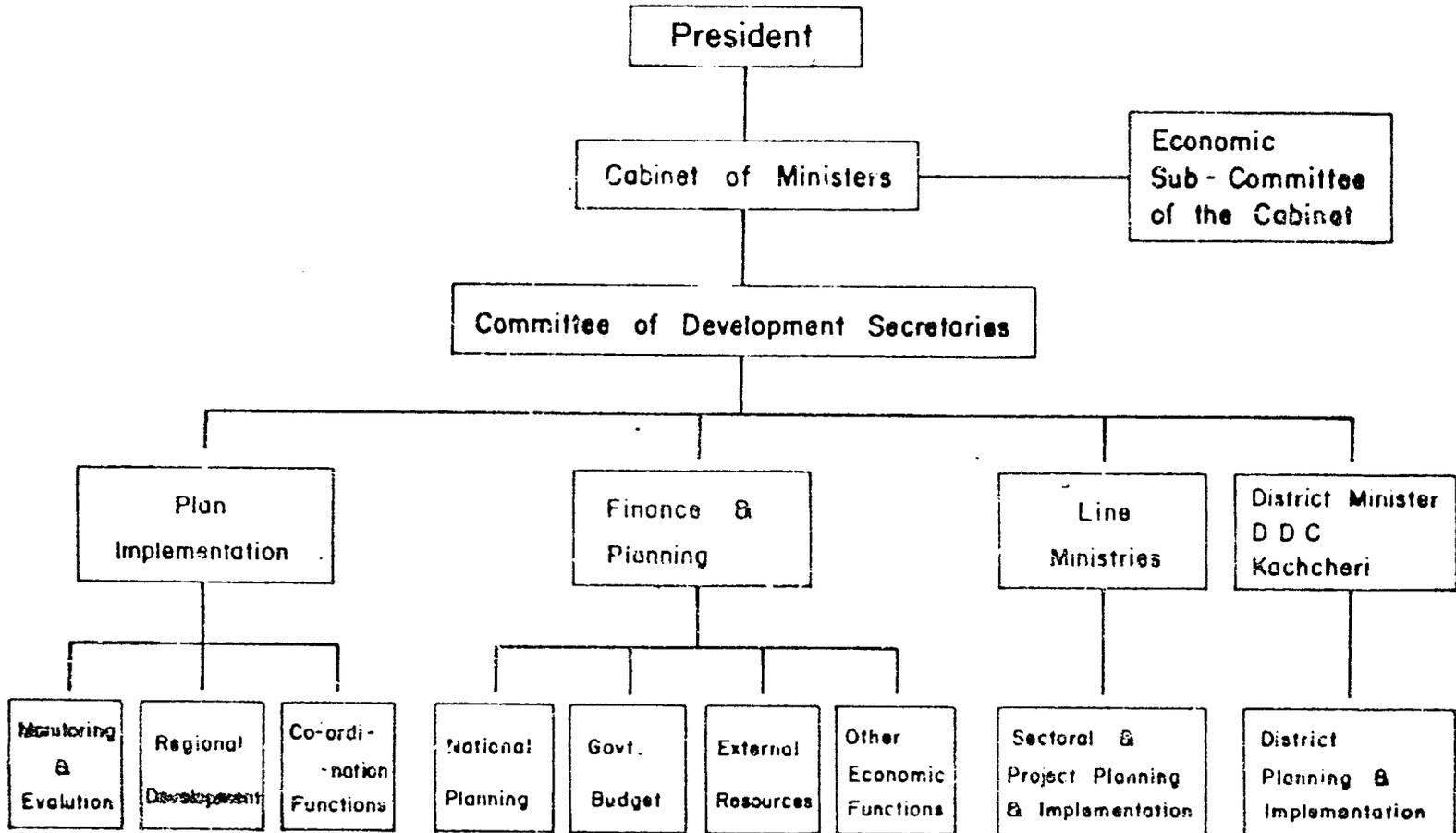
Mr Luxman Wickramasinghe
B.A.

17.0

FUNCTIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE MINISTRY OF PLAN IMPLEMENTATION



17.1 Organizational Chart - Development Planning Process



17.2 Ministry of Plan Implementation

Minister - His Excellency The President J.R. Jayawardenana.

Deputy Minister - Mr. D.B. Walagedera, M.P.

Secretary - Dr. Wickrema Weerastooria

Senior Asst. Secretary - Mr. T. Amaradasa Gunawardana.

Director (Population) - Mr. D.P. Wijegunasekera.

Director (Progress Control) - Dr. V. Ambalavanar

Director (Training) - Mr. M.M. Pillai.

Director (Population Information Center) - Mr. Albert. J. Fernando.

Director (Regional Development) - Mr. K.P.G.M. Perera.

Director (Employment and Manpower) - Mr. L. Weengama

Director (Food and Nutrition) - Dr. Raja Amerasekera.

Director (National Fertilizer Secretariat) - Mr. C.R. Kuruppu.

Executive Secretary (I.Y.C. Secretariat) - Mrs. Malsiri Dias.

17.2 Ministry Staff:

Minister Major Montegu Jayawickrama

Dy. Minister - Mr. Alick. Alusihare

Secretary - Mr. H. D. T. Bodidasa

Additional Secretary/Director Project - Mr. G. A. S. Ganepola

Director Tea/Senior Asst. Secretary - Mr. R. A. A. Ranaweera

Director Planning - At present Mr. T. Sambasivam, Dy. Director General

Sri Lanka Tea Board is acting as the
Director.

Dy. Director Planning - Mr. S. M. J. Bandara, Asst. Director Planning
is acting as deputy.

Accountant - Mr. W. N. de Silva

Asst. Secretary/Director Rubber - Mr. Sunil Sirisena

Asst. Secretary Development - Mr. D. Wijeratne

Asst. Secretary Administration - Mr. Naganawatte

Asst. Secretary Trade Unions - Mr. G. P. Danapala

17.3

Statistician - Mr.S.Haputhanthri
Accountant Project - Mr.R.K.Dayananda

3.2. Organisations coming under the Ministry

3.2.1. Sri Lanka Tea Board:-

Chairman - Mr.H.D.T.Bodidasa
Director General - Dr.R.L.de Silva
Dy.Director General - Mr.T.Sambasivam

3.2.2. Tea Small Holdings Development Authority:

Chairman - Mr.N,Piyadigama
Asst.General Manager - Mr.Riyenzi Fernando

3.2.3. Rubber Control Department:

Rubber Controller - Mr.T.P.G.N.Leeclaratne
Dy.Rubber Controller - Mr.G.A.B.de Silva

3.2.4. Rubber Research Board:

Chairman - Mr.H.G.R.de Mel
Director/Rubber
Advisory Department - Dr.C.S.Weeraratne
Director/Rubber Research
Institute - Dr.O.S.Peiris

3.2.5. Silk & Allied Product Development Authority:

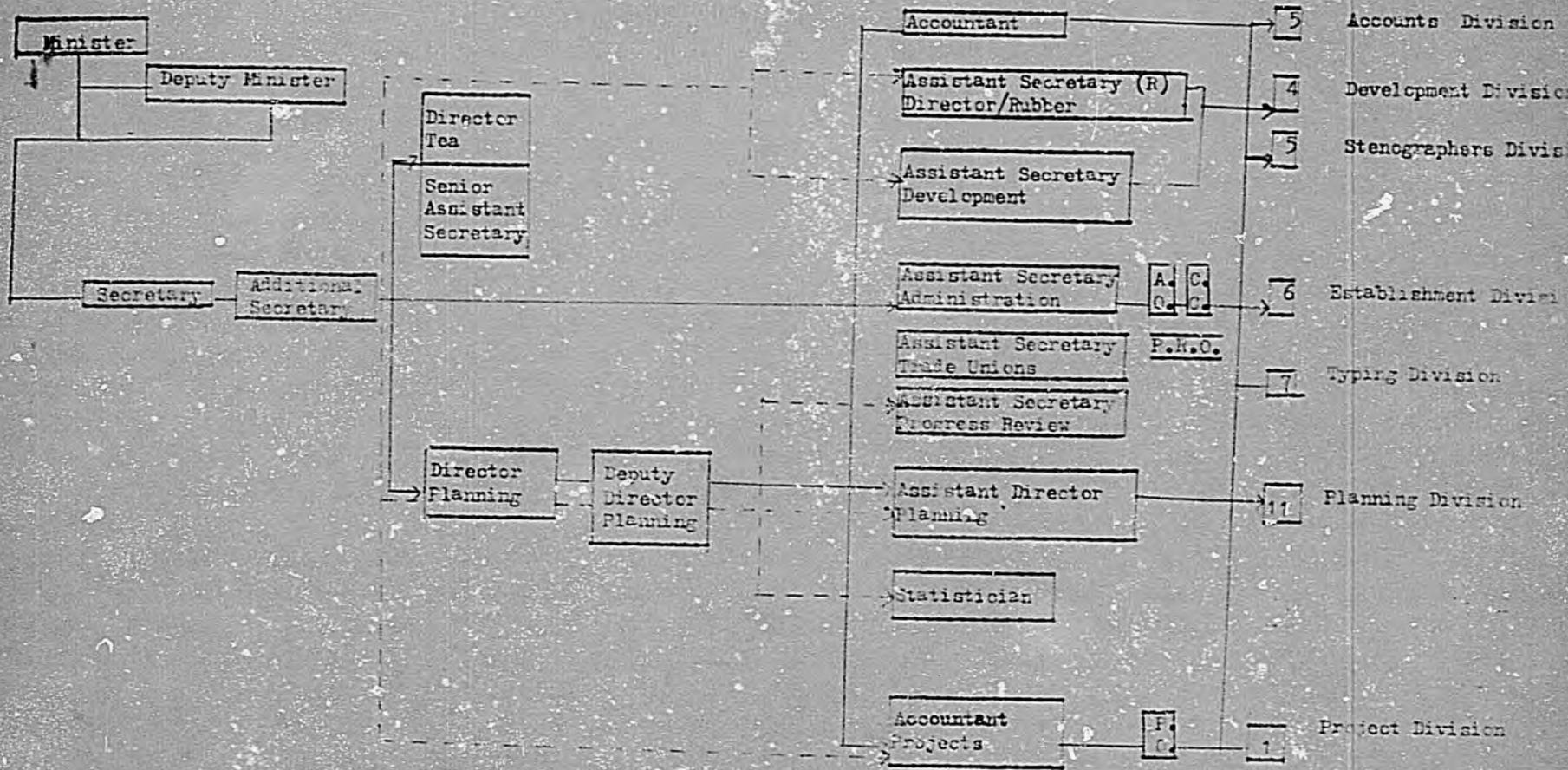
Chairman - Mr.W.R.I.Wanigasinghe

3.2.6. National Institute of Plantation Management:

Chairman - Mr.H.T.D.Bodhidasa

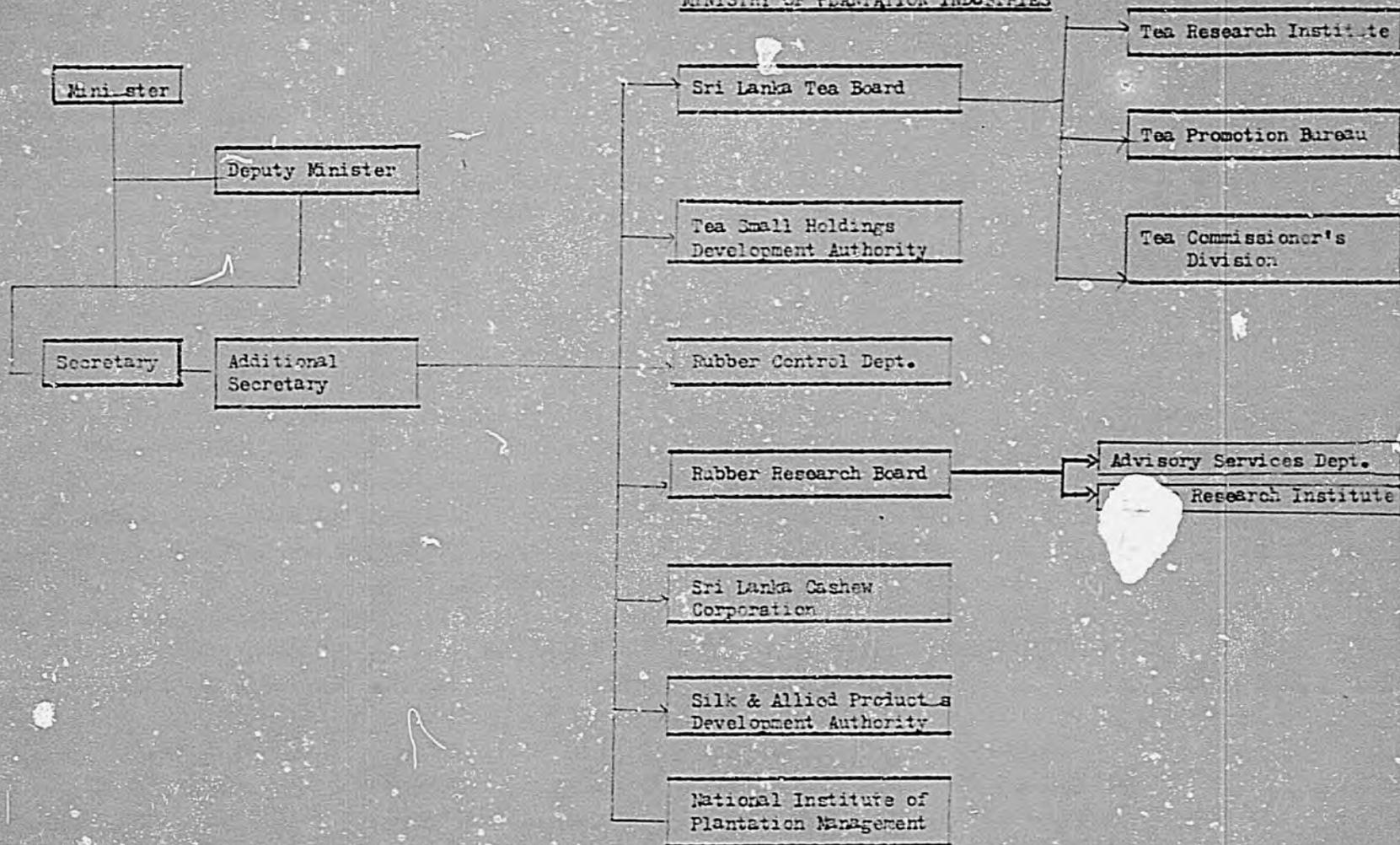
3.2.7 Sri Lanka Cashew Corporation:

Chairman - Mr.K.B.Ekanayake
General Manager - Mr.P.Udalagama
Asst.General Manager- Mr.R.Ariyaratne.

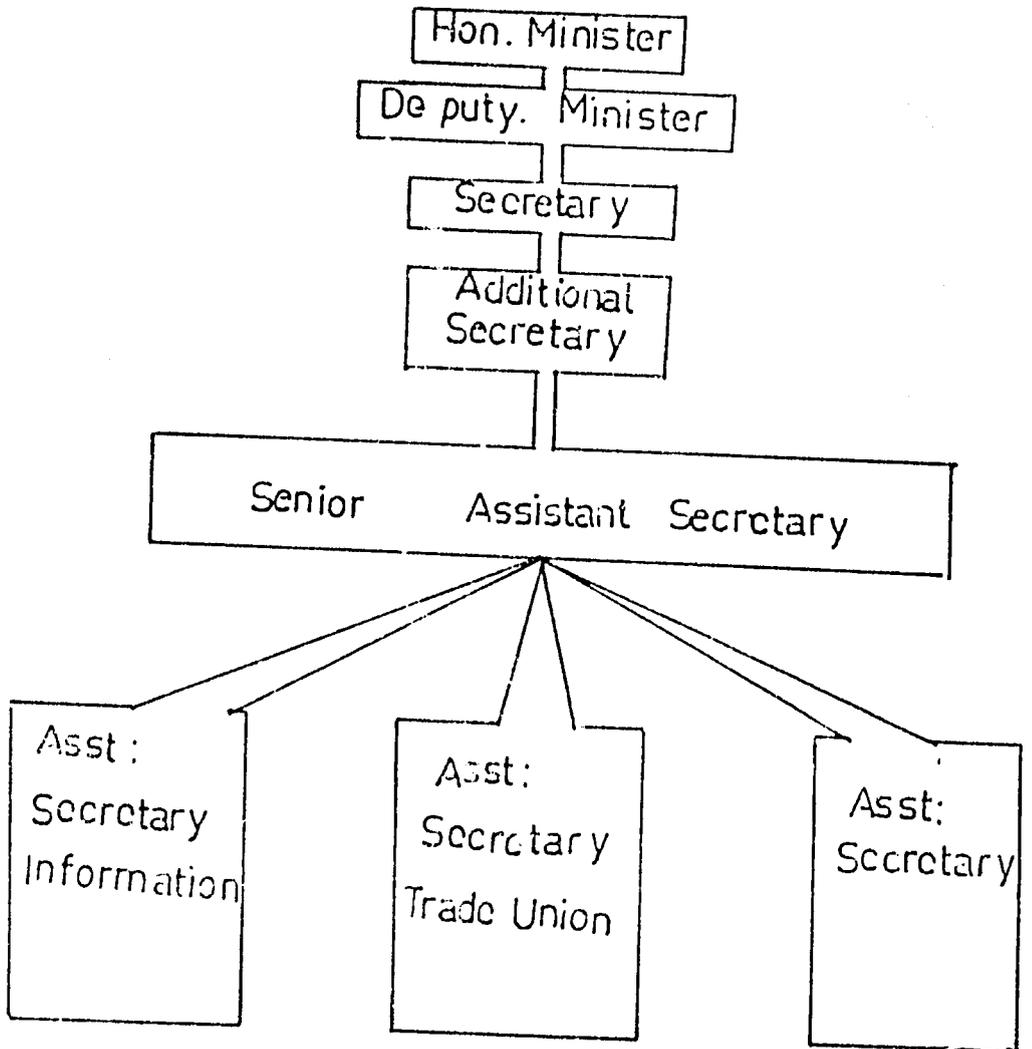


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MINISTRY OF PLANTATION INDUSTRIES

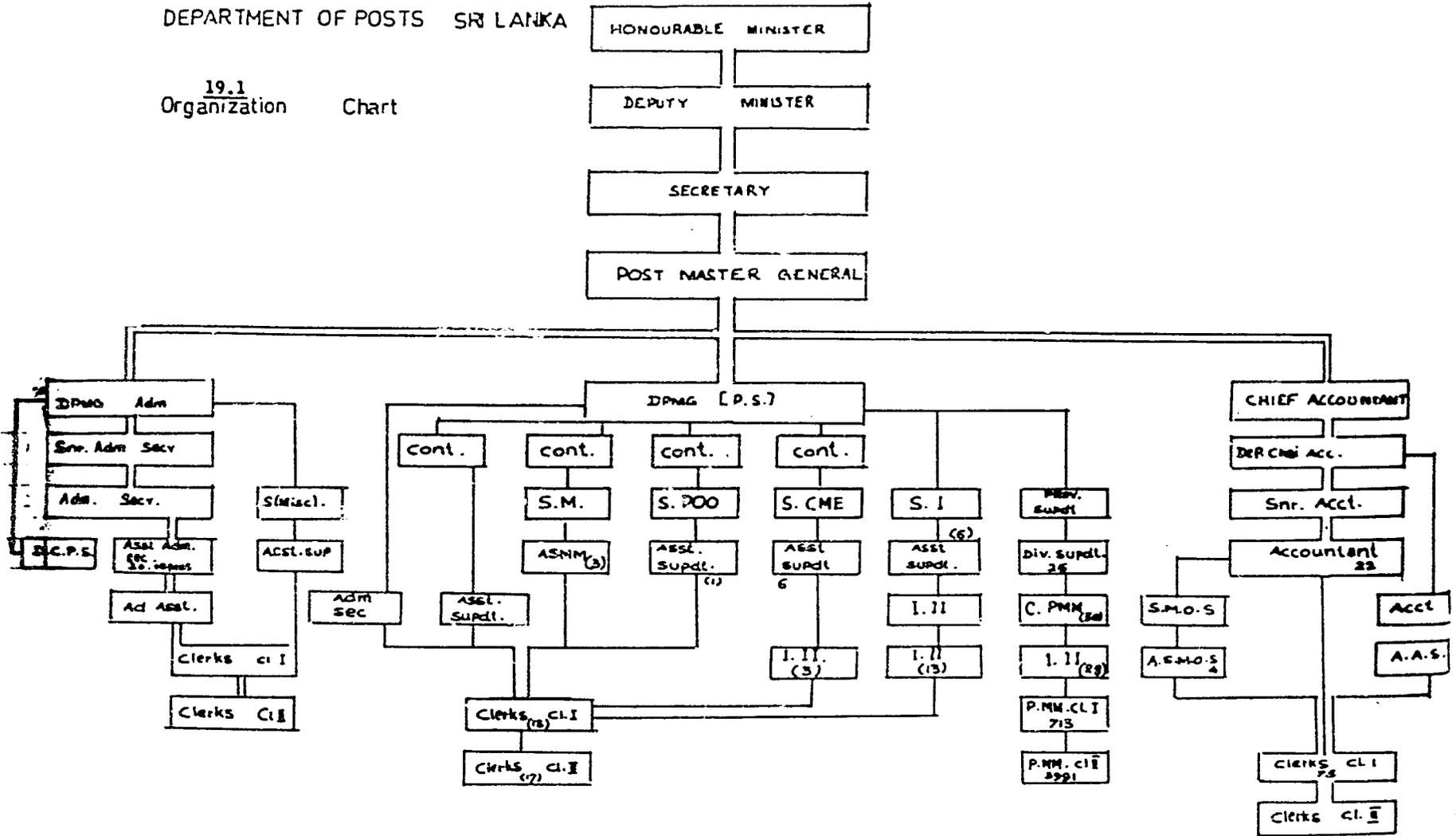


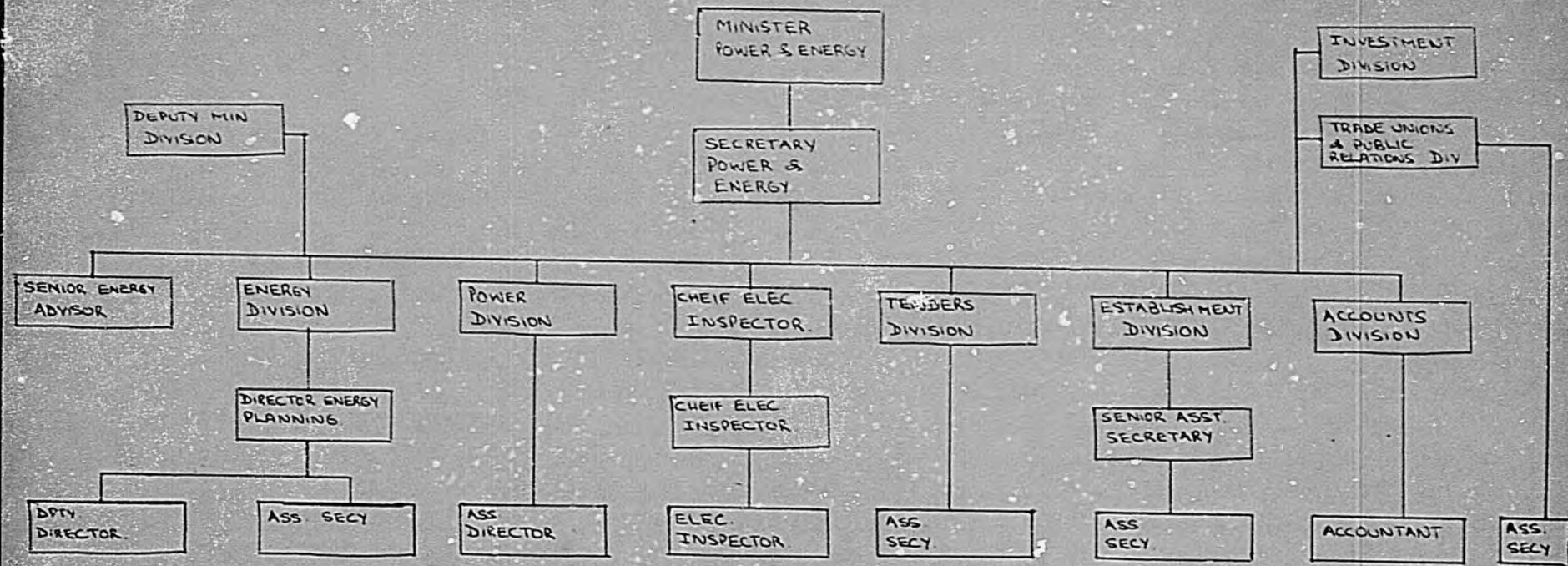
2 MINISTRY OF POST AND TELECOMMUNICATION
ORGANIZATION CHART



DEPARTMENT OF POSTS SRI LANKA

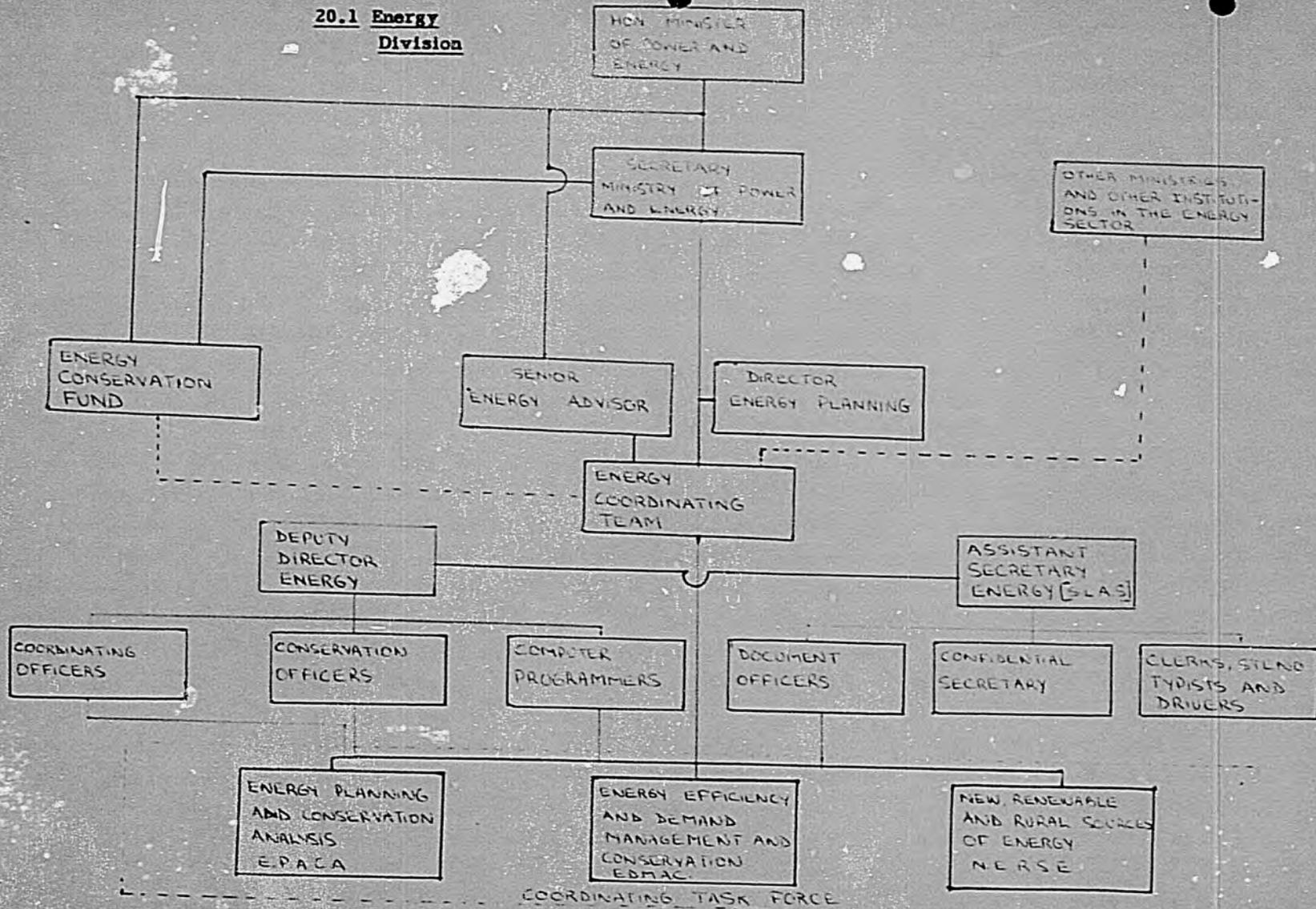
19.1
Organization Chart



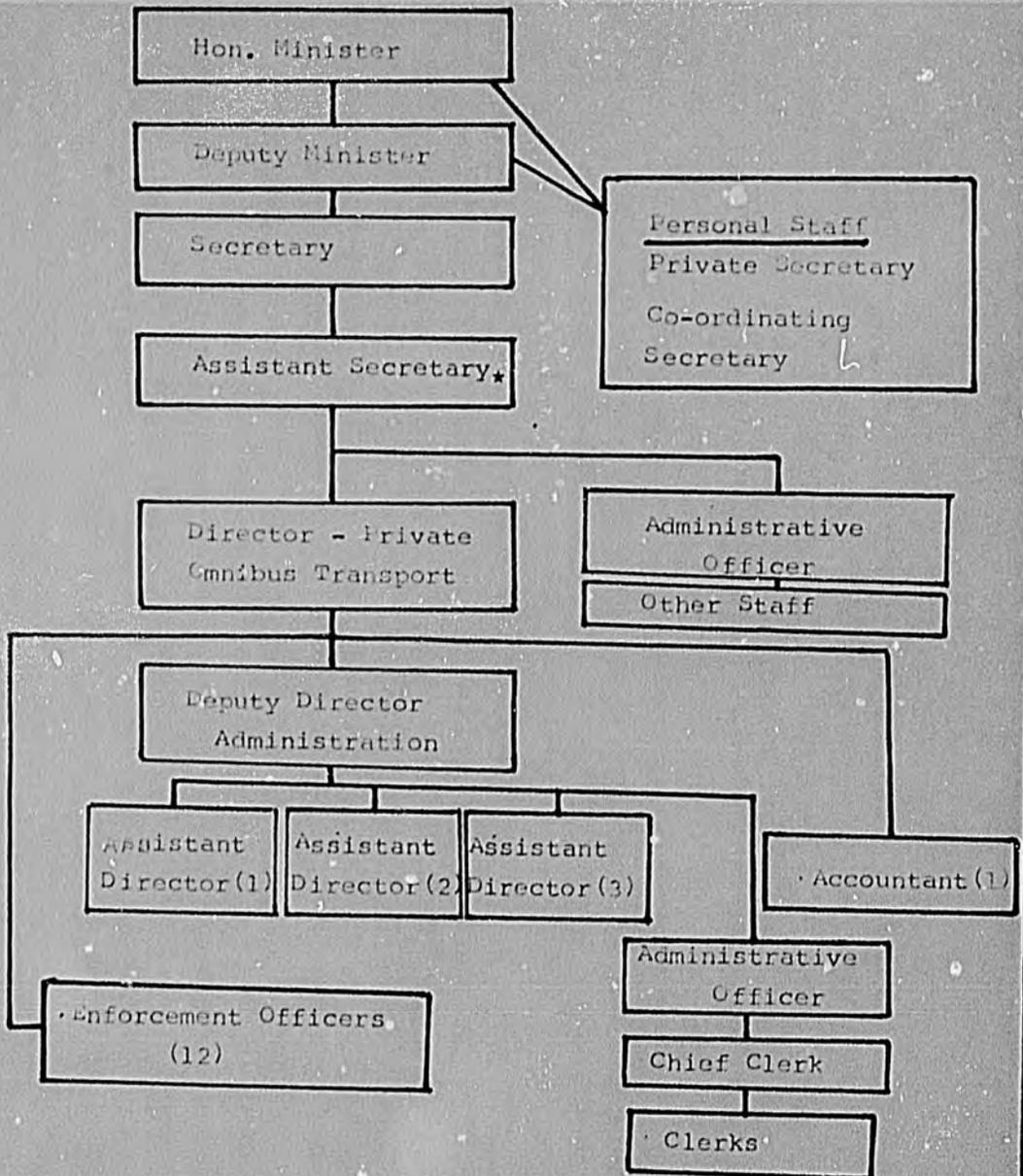


20.0 ORGANISATION STRUCTURE MINISTRY OF POWER AND ENERGY

20.1 Energy
Division



21.0 ORGANIZATION CHART OF THE MINISTRY OF
OMNIBUS TRANSPORT



* All the functions (line & staff) are performed directly by the As. t. Secretary with her staff.

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22.1 MINISTRY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

LIST OF IMPORTANT POSITIONS, NAMES OF PERSONS ETC.

Minister	:	Major Montague Jayewickreme
Deputy Minister	:	Harindra Corea
Secretary	:	D B I P S Siriwardhana
Additional Secretary	:	B I Gunatunga
Senior Assistant Secretary	:	M N Junaid
Assistant Secretary	:	P K Rodrigo
Co-ordinating Officer		
Assistant Secretary (Information)	:	Lloyd Fernando
Ast. Secretary (Trade Unions)	:	M D P Karunaratna
Public Relations Officer	:	Justin Perera
Administrative Officer	:	W Piyasena
Chief Accountant	:	A P Jayasinghe
Accountant	:	Upali Samarasinghe
Accountant	:	W A Ariyadasa
COMBINED SERVICES DIVISION		
Acting Director	:	B I Gunatunga
Deputy Directors	:	J Weerasuriya Mrs. M Gunatilaka Mrs. K Wijewardena
Assistant Directors	:	A A Dalubowila M.A.R.D. Jayatillake P W Kodippili Mrs. H D L Goonewardena D M Sirisena
Head of S L A S Branch	:	W Nugegoda
ESTABLISHMENTS DIVISION		
Director	:	W Jayamaha
Additional Director	:	R W M M T Ranaviraja
Deputy Directors	:	S C Mannapperuma W A S Perera D D A Vidanapathirana
Assistant Directors	:	M S Samarasekera A H N Jayasekara S Gunasena K E Vamadevan

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

LIST OF IMPORTANT POSITIONS, NAMES OF PERSONS ETC.

SRI LANKA SCIENTIFIC SERVICES BOARD

Secretary : W Jayamaha

ENGINEERING SERVICES BOARD

Director : S Amarasuriya

Deputy Director : T W Sathyapala

SALARIES REVIEW COMMITTEE

Secretary : L Ekanayaka

OFFICIAL LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

Commissioner : S G Samarasinghe

SRI LANKA INST. OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Director : V T Navaratne

Additional Director
(Research Consultancy & Publication) : D G P Seneviratne

Additional Director
(Administration & Finance) : S Ganesharajah

Consultant : J V Thamber

Head of Induction Training Division : C T Elangasokera

Consultants : Mrs. K I Wickremasinghe
E S Gunatilleke
O Tilakaratne

Head of Management & Organisation
Division : A S Gunawardena

Consultant : H B Sanders

Consultant : S A P Rupasinghe

Registrar : J Wahalawatte

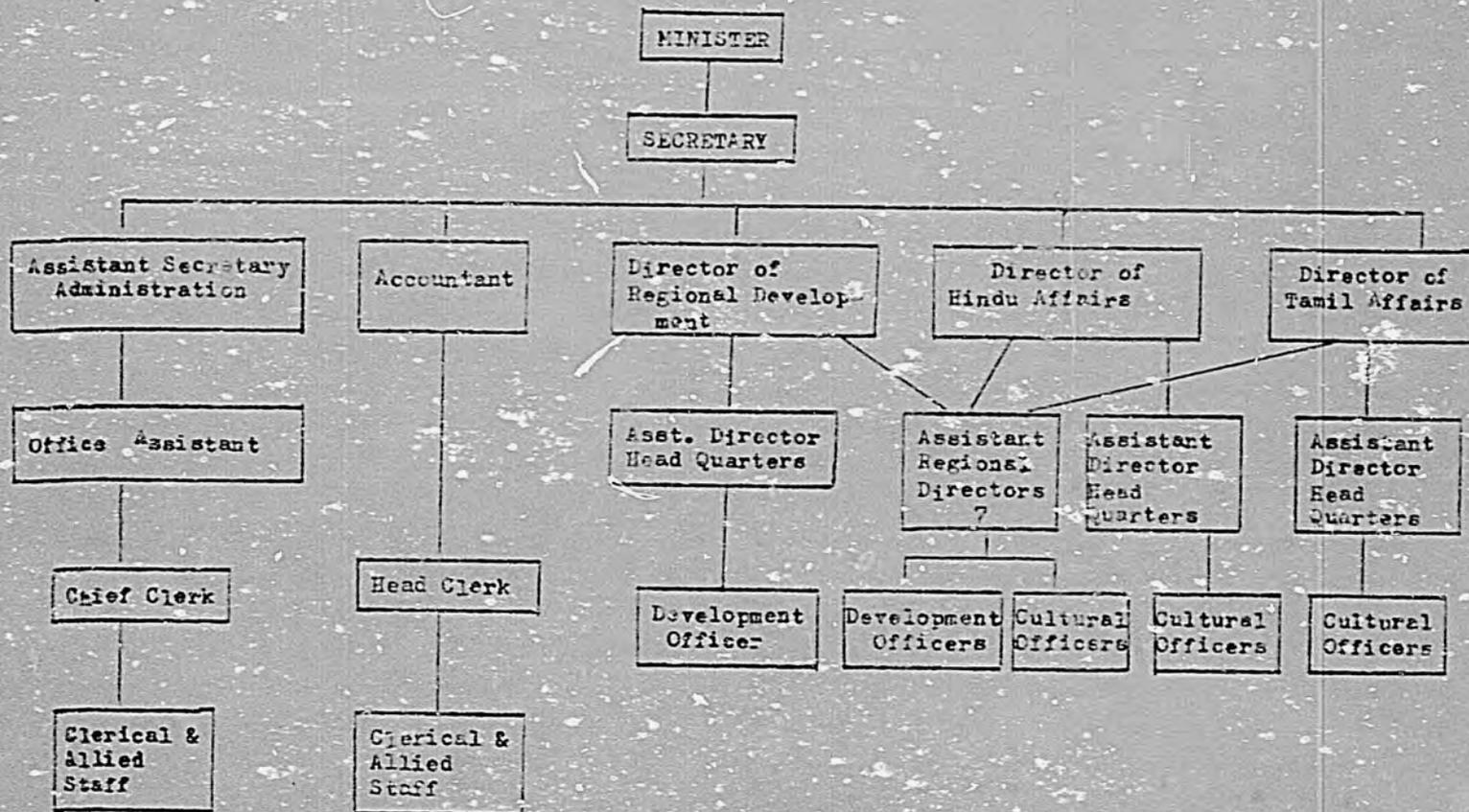
Consultant : A E Nanayakkara

Consultant : P L A F Fernando

Head of Policy & Environment
Analysis Division : V K Nanayakkara

Consultant : J Rajasooriya

Organization Chart of the Ministry



23.1

Important Positions and Names

1. Minister Mr. C. Rajadurai
2. Secretary Mr. N. Ramalingam
3. Assistant Secretary (S.L.A.S) Mr. D. Sivasambu
(Administration)
4. Accountant (S.L. Acct. S.) Mr. K. Thanihasan
5. Director, Regional
Development (S.L.A.S.) Mr. M. Shanmugarajah
6. Director, Tamil
Affairs (S.L.A.S.) Mr. M. Rasanayagam
7. Director, Hindu
Affairs (S.L.A.S.) Mrs. K. Kailasanadan.

ORGANISATION CHART 24.0

MINISTRY OF RURAL INDUSTRIAL
DEVELOPMENT (M/RID)

THE MINISTER
|
DEPUTY MINISTER
|
SECRETARY

ADDL. SECRETARY

ADMINISTRATION

1. DIRECTOR
DEPT. OF ANIMAL PRODUCTION & HEALTH
2. CHAIRMAN
NATIONAL LIVESTOCK DEVELOPMENT BOARD
3. CHAIRMAN
NATIONAL MILK BOARD
4. CHAIRMAN
CEYLON OILS & FATS CORPORATION

1. CHAIRMAN
NATIONAL CRAFTS COUNCIL
2. CHAIRMAN
NATIONAL DESIGNS CENTRES
3. CHAIRMAN
SRI LANKA HANDICRAFTS BOARD
4. DIRECTOR
DEPT. OF SMALL INDUSTRIES

DIRECTOR (DEVELOPMENT)
DIVISION

ADDITIONAL DIRECTOR
(DEVELOPMENT)

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR ASSISTANT DIRECTOR ASSISTANT DIRECTOR

DIRECTOR (PLANNING)
DIVISION

ADDITIONAL DIRECTOR
(PLANNING)

DEPUTY DIRECTOR
(PLANNING)

CHIEF ACCOUNTANT
ACCOUNTING
DIVISION

ACCOUNTANT

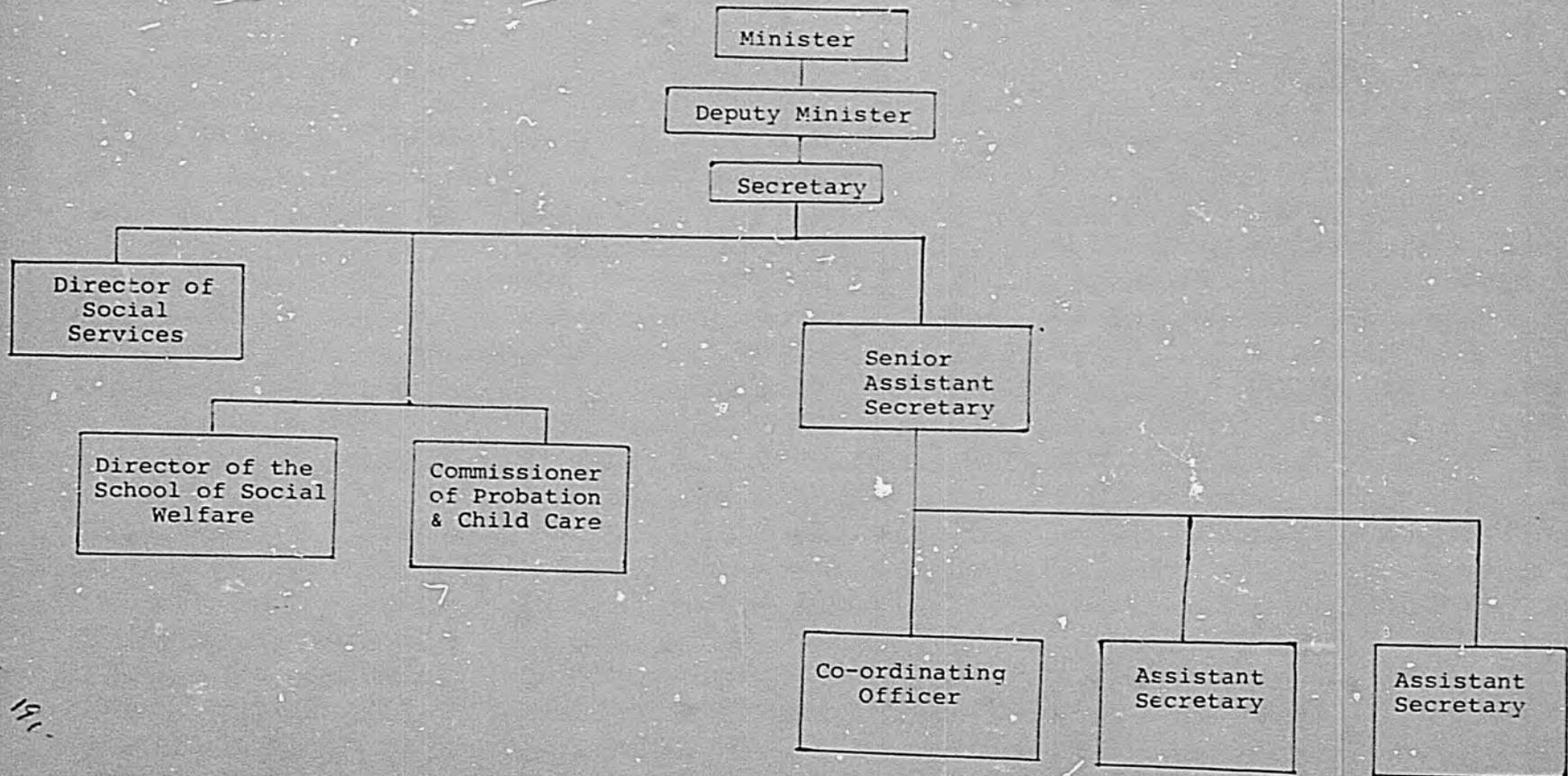
DEPUTY DIRECTOR
SMALL
INDUSTRIES

ASSISTANT
SECRETARY 1
(ADMINISTRATION)

DEPUTY DIRECTOR
(SMALL
INDUSTRIES)

25.0 MINISTRY OF SOCIAL SERVICES

THE ORGANISATION CHART



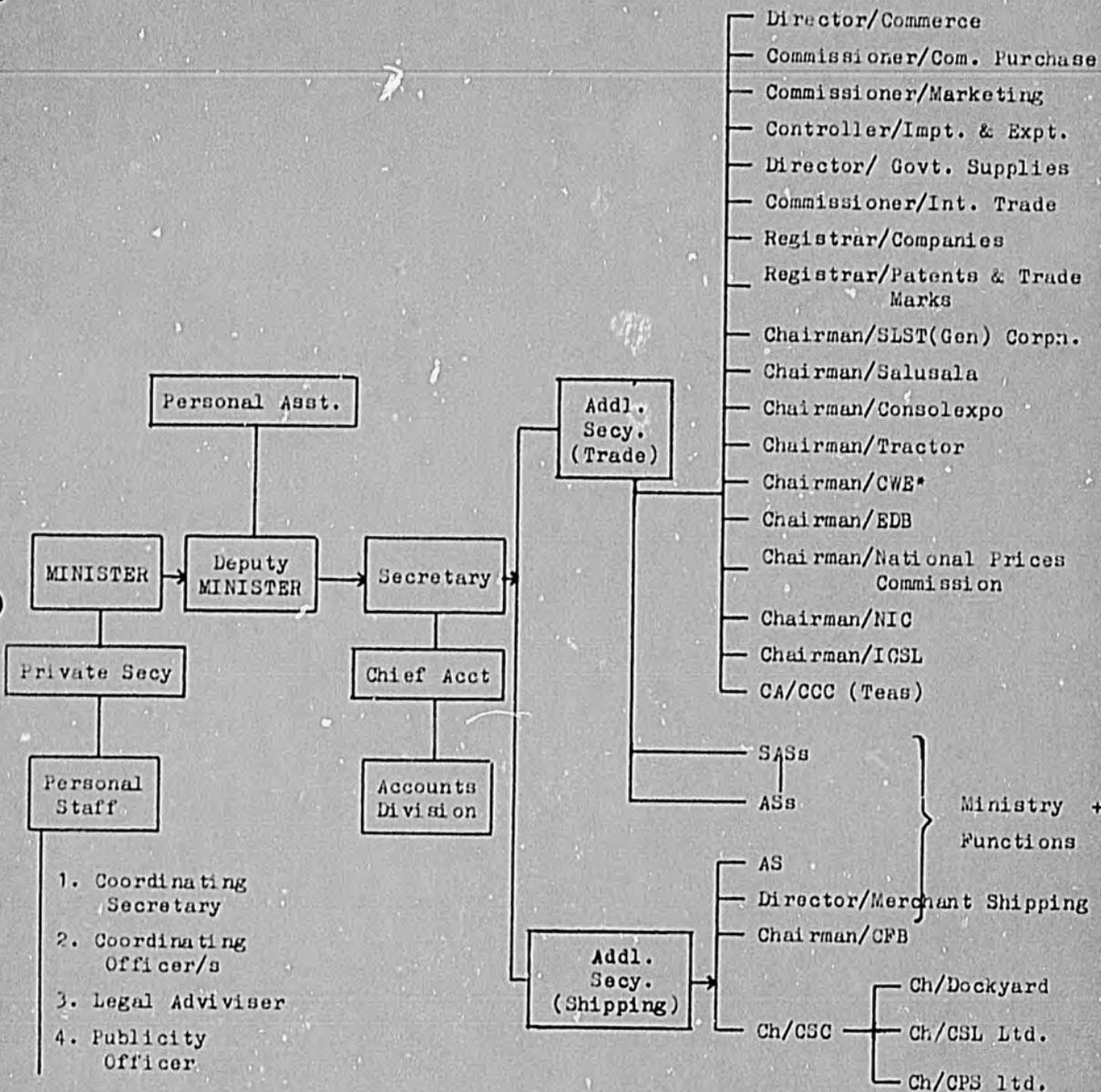
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25.1

OFFICIALS OF THE MINISTRY OF SOCIAL SERVICES

Minister : Mr. Asoka Karunaratne
Deputy Minister : Mr. J.L. Sirisena
Secretary : Mr. W.M.A. Wijeratne Banda
Director of Social Services : Mr. H.L. Gunasekera
Senior Assistant Secretary : Mr. P.B. Weragoda
Director of the School of
Social Welfare : Mr. S.R. Weerakoon
Commissioner of Probation
& Child Care : Mrs. W. Jayasinghe
Co-ordinating Officer : Mr. M.B. de Silva
Assistant Secretary : Mr. A.M.P. Bopegedera
Assistant Secretary : Mr. H.P.D. Keerthiratne

26.0 ORGANIZATION CHART
 MINISTRY OF TRADE & SHIPPING

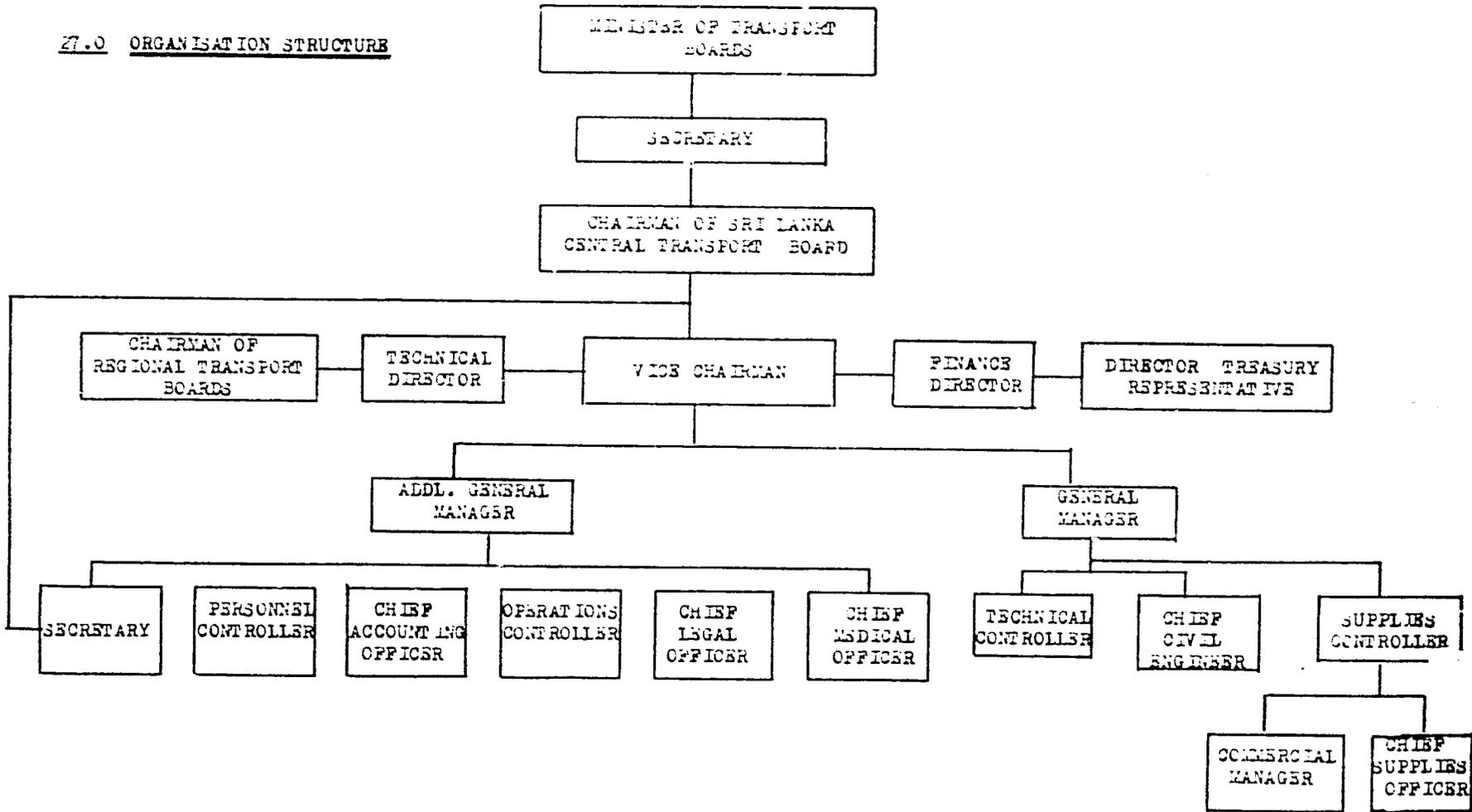


* CWE Subsidiaries include
 Sathosa (Computers) Ltd.
 Sathosa Printers Ltd.
 Lanka Milk Foods (Pvt.) Ltd.

+ Distribution of functions within the Ministry is shown in Annexe 'A'

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27.0 ORGANISATION STRUCTURE



SURVEY OF MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOUR IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Decision making

1.1 Do you feel that you enjoy autonomy/freedom necessary for the successful fulfilment of your job/role in your organization?

If YES (NO), what style characteristics in the leader/your superior might have contributed to this?

1.2 Do you feel free to discuss any business/official matter with your superior, whether or not your superior may like it?

1.3 When you approach your superior for consultation, do you think that your superior would think that you are ignorant?

1.4 Do you think that your subordinates' desire to consult you is excessive?

1.5 What do you think about the readiness to accept or bypass decision-making in your organization?

2. Meaning of Work

2.1 Why do you work?

2.2 Why do people work?

(If more than one reason, then rank order)

Appendix 28 continued.

2.3 What will make you work more?

2.4 Do you think many people prefer work individually or collectively?

3. Planning and control

3.1 At present, are you working on the basis of a plan that is accepted by the organization? (How explicit is planning and is your day-to-day work guided by such plans/programmes?)

3.2 What is the meaning of control as generally understood in your organization?

3.3 Do you/others fear control?

3.4 What are the experiences of planning in your organization?

3.5 What socio-cultural factors are responsible for the planning experiences?

3.6 Have you ever attempted to set targets of performance in an organization (a) for your self, (b) for others? What are your experiences?

4. Organization structures

4.1 Do you find that formal regulations unduly holding up your work?

4.2 Do you have discretion to depart from formal rules? If so, to what extent can you depart from the rule in practice for reasons of efficiency/effectiveness etc.?

4.3 Do you think that your loyalties to your family should receive priority over your loyalty to the organization?

4.4 How strongly do you feel that your obligations to friends must be met within the context of organization?

4.5 Do you find comfort in working with others on a rather personalized basis than on a formalized working relationship?

4.6 You must have come across many 'conflicts' in your work places. Thinking about the most important conflict you have experienced, what socio-cultural factors could you use to explain the situation?

5. Innovation and change

5.1 Are people with knowledge (e.g. who have educational attainments) feel comfortable in your organization? (Are they given roles which allow the utilization of knowledge?)

5.2 Have you ever tried to introduce change in your workplace?
If so, what are your experiences?

5.3 What are the general attitudes toward innovation and change
in your organization? Any socio-cultural explanations?

6. Issues of transfer of management across cultures

6.1 In the recruitment of locals for foreign subsidiaries, what
contextual factor would the foreigner have to consider in Sri
Lanka?

6.2 What are the difficulties that a foreign investor confront
in an attempt to start a joint venture with a local firm by
way of expanding or re-organizing an existing local enterprise?

6.3 If the locals attempt to personalize organizational relations
which are impersonal otherwise, what steps would a Western
investor likely to take? What would be the reactions of the
locals involved?

6.4 Do we need a change of culture or of management concepts?

If culture, which main cultural features need to be changed?

If management concepts, describe specific patterns of a
Sri Lankan management model.

1. My position in the Bank is at the level of:

DGM

AGM

Other _____
(Please specify)

2. When you carefully look at your work responsibilities and the work of your subordinates in general, how would you rank order the importance of following items ? Please mark 1,2,3 etc., in the order of importance, assigning 1 to the most important/relevant item, and so on.

Assign Numbers.

2.1. I think that the most important thing in the bank is to keep the subordinates employees satisfied so that the objectives of the Division can be achieved.

2.2. In a commercial bank the most important thing is to get people to work according to establishment procedures etc., and thereby ensure that everyone behaves in a responsible manner.

2.3. As a manager I would give priority to get the results first, and all other things are means to result, and therefore they are of secondary value.

2.4. The most important thing in a bank for a manager is to avoid problems and create an environment in which people can work with certainty.

MINISTRY OF FINANCE AND PLANNING

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overall Responsibilities of the Ministry

The Ministry of Finance & Planning is responsible for policy formation, analysis and review in respect of matters with financial implications. The objective of the Ministry is to direct and implement policy and practices to ensure optimal and satisfying use of financial resources of the country.

1.2 The Major Functions of the Ministry

The different functions of the Ministry of Finance and Planning are broadly be categorised under six groups as follows:

- (i) executive direction and supervision of all Departments and financial institutions under the Ministry;
- (ii) General supervision over the financial affairs of the entire Government;
- (iii) study, formulation and administration of fiscal policies and budgetary and financial plans of the Government, initiating legislation appropriate to the needs of the country;
- (iv) undertaking public borrowing on the credit of the Government, collaborating with monetary authorities in the management of the public debt;
- (v) general supervision of the public funds invested under the provision of law;
- (vi) collaboration with planning authorities in the formulation of national development plans.

Contd..

1.3 Institutional Structure of the Ministry

The above functions are carried out through several departments of the Ministry. They are as follows:

1. General Treasury

The General Treasury has ten (10) Divisions, namely Budget Division, Accounts & Payments Division, Finance Division, Economic Affairs Division, National Planning Division, Fiscal Policy Division, Public Enterprises Division, International Economic Cooperation Division, Administration Division and External Resources Division.

2. Inland Revenue Department.
3. Customs Department.
4. Excise Department.
5. Valuation Department.

In addition to the above, state sector banks and, three corporations are under the supervision of the Ministry of Finance and Planning.

1.4 Organization Chart of the Ministry

A dynamic organization cannot be properly represented by a static chart. Further, the complexities inherent in a large organization like the Ministry make its representation by a two dimensional figure somewhat unrealistic. Within these limitations the organization of the Ministry is given by the organization chart on the next page.

External Resources is shown as a division of the General Treasury, as it is defined this way for budget estimation purposes. However, for all the other purposes it functions as a separate department like, Customs, Income Tax, etc. under the Ministry.

2. FUNCTIONS OF THE DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS UNDER
THE MINISTRY

2.1 General Treasury

- (1) Determination of fiscal and budgetary policy and co-ordination with other financial entities in these matters.
- (2) Formulation, execution and control of the national budget and other appropriation measures.
- (3) Centralised control and supervision of raising and collection of revenue and other Government charges and dues.
- (4) General oversight of financial operations, supervision and control over the Consolidated Fund and other funds and accounts of Government.
- (5) Organisation and channelling of External Resources.
- (6) Preparation of the annual Capital Budget on the basis of plan priorities.

Major Functions-

- (1) Preparation of the Government Budget and Supplementary Estimates of Government.
- (2) Issue of Financial Warrants and other authorities; and control of cadre.
- (3) Control of expenditures relating to the Consolidated Fund and other Funds of Government.
- (4) Financial administration, providing for collection, receipt, custody, security, the disposal and accounting of Government funds.
- (5) Cash management and forecasting.
- (6) Supervision and control of financial activities and maintenance of centralized accounts of Government Departments.

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- (7) Examination of financial requirements of State Corporations.
- (8) Formulation of the annual Capital Budget for the Public Sector.
- (9) Administration of the Foreign Exchange Budget.
- (10) Negotiation of Foreign Aid and Technical Assistance.

The activities of the different Divisions of the Treasury can be summarised as follows :-

2.1.1 Budget Division

- (1) Resource allocations to Ministries and Departments for Recurrent Expenditure to enable preparation of annual draft estimates.
- (2) Analysis of expenditure proposals and determination of provision for Capital and Recurrent Programme of Ministries and Departments.
- (3) Assembly of estimates of Revenue and Expenditure.
- (4) Supplementary Estimates for Capital and Recurrent Expenditure.
- (5) Appropriation Act, issue of General and Special Warrants, etc.
- (6) Authorisation of transfers of funds by Virement.
- (7) Determination of Cadres and salary scales in the Public Service.
- (8) Special Law Items.
- (9) Examination of Total Cost Estimates of Capital Works.
- (10) Review of financial work performance under the Programme Budgeting System.
- (11) Release of funds on the basis of expenditure patterns.
- (12) Analysis of requests for budgetary support by Public Enterprises.

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(13) Examination of Cabinet Memoranda pertaining to the above activities.

(14) Releases from the Contingencies Fund.

2.1.2 Accounts & Payments Division

1. Recording of the revenue and expenditure of the Government in budgetary terms involving financial business with agents abroad, refunds from revenue, payments of authorized expenditure and loans, bringing to accounts transactions of all departments etc.
2. Discharging the financial reporting functions of the Ministry of Finance and Planning.

2.1.3 Finance Division

- (1) Accounts of Public Corporations and Boards and rendering of Accounts to Audit,
- (2) Recommendation of Public Accounts Committee,
- (3) Liquidation,
- (4) Public Accounts Committee paragraphs and preparation of Treasury minutes,
- (5) Transfer of assets, Financial rules of Corporations and Boards,
- (6) Auditor-General's Report, Settlement of dues to Corporations and exemption from the Finance Act,
- (7) Accounting systems and financial procedures,
- (8) Delegation of financial responsibility,
- (9) Rents,
- (10) Tender procedures and deviations,
- (11) Contracts and extra contractual payments, Local and foreign purchase of stores,

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- (12) Insurance of Government contracts, Waivers, Write-offs, and Surcharges,
- (13) Authority for lapse payment,
- (14) Internal Audit, Audit queries and covering approval,
- (15) Gifts, Statutory fees,
- (16) Compensation for damages to property,
- (17) Sales of Government Property,
- (18) Irregularities and frauds,
- (19) Security of public officers,
- (20) Government Insurance Funds.

2.1.4 Economic Affairs Division

- 1. Formulate, advise and supervise the execution of Government's economic policies in general.
- 2. Co-ordinate with the Central Bank on monetary, banking, financial and exchange control policies.
- 3. Keep under continuous study local and international economic trends and their impact on national socio-economic objectives.
- 4. Develop relationships with international and regional economic and financial institutions.
- 5. Deal with matters relating to international trade and payments, and the International Monetary System.

2.1.5 National Planning Division

- 1. Preparing the medium-term macro-economic framework and plan in close co-ordination with all other divisions in the Ministry of Finance and Planning.
- 2. Preparing the Sector Programmes in close liaison with the different Ministries and ensuring intersectoral consistencies.

Contd..

3. Preparation of the Annual Plans for the sectors and providing the macro-economic framework for the Government Budget.
4. The development and appraisal of public sector projects, and Evaluation and review of sectoral policies and programmes.
5. Working on long-term perspective projections and development alternatives.
6. Preparation of phased investment programmes and study of current national development issues and servicing the Committee of Development Secretaries.

2.1.6 Fiscal Policy Division

1. Revenue and Fiscal Matters, namely, preparation of revenue estimates, review of all revenue sources and policy matters pertaining to this, advisory measures on taxation including double taxation, income tax appeals, review of Tariff Policy (Imports and exports), publication of necessary revenue protection orders, review of Excise Levies and Turnover Taxes, and tax legislation and amendments (Inland Revenue, Customs & Excise).
2. Review of Budgetary position, i.e. Budgetary out-turn analysis, budgetary implication of Income Transfers, and preparation of Financial Statistics for IMF.
3. Monitoring the Cash-Flow.
4. Research Studies.

2.1.7 Public Enterprises Division

1. Examination of Budgets and Monitoring of performance of State Corporations, Statutory Boards, Government owned business undertakings, Advance Account activities shown in Part II of the Estimates.

Contd..

2. Salary scales and Rewards, Pricing and Marketing Policy of individual institutions referred to above.
3. Servicing the Parliamentary Select Committee on State Corporations.

2.1.8 International Economic Co-operation Division

1. Co-ordination and review of International Economic Relations.
2. Co-ordination of bilateral and multilateral negotiation which are not direct interest to Sri Lanka,
3. Co-ordination of positions at multilateral negotiations which concern the collective interest of Third World countries - e.g. North-South dialogue,
4. Preparation of briefs to delegations of the United Nations ESCAP, UNDP, The Commonwealth Secretariat, UNCTAD, World Fund Council, UN, ECOSOC and other UN and International Agencies dealing with economic issues,
5. Co-ordination and liaison work of UN Agencies, UN, EXCAP, UNDP, Commonwealth Secretariat, UNCTAD, ECOSOC and other International Agencies.
6. Co-ordination and follow-up activities of the economic work of the Non-Aligned countries,
7. Co-ordination of the work of the Joint Committees for Economic Co-operation with India, Pakistan, Iraq, Iran, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Mexico and Bangladesh,
8. Multilateral and bilateral trade and financial policies,
9. Organisation and supervision of the Ministry library, which is also a depository library for UN Documents.

2.1.9 Administration Division

1. Administration, Establishment, Financial and other supporting services,
2. Investigation and review servicing in relation to all the Departments and public institutions under the Ministry.

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2.1.10 External Resources Division

1. Negotiation and implementation of Foreign Aid and Credit Agreements, including Technical Assistance,
2. Formulation and Management of the Foreign Exchange Budget.

2.2 Inland Revenue Department

1. Assessment and collection of taxes on basis of Revenue Estimates
2. Preparation of Revenue Estimates on taxes administered by the Department for use in the annual proposals
3. Tax proposals and evaluation of tax proposals
4. Collection of statistical and other data for tax policy proposals
5. Preparation of instructions and draft legislation for the Legal Draftsman
6. Administrative interpretation of the tax laws
7. Prevention of tax evasion.
8. Negotiation of double tax agreements.

2.3 Customs Department

1. The levying and recovery of import and export duties of Customs,
2. The levying and recovery of Warehouse rent, harbour dues etc. on behalf of the Port Commission.
3. The prevention and detection of smuggling into or out of the island of goods liable to duties of Customs, or goods the importation or exportation of which is prohibited or restricted.

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4. The levying and recovery of cesses and other dues from exporters, on behalf of other Departments.

2.4 Excise Department

1. Supervision and control of licensed premises and collecting the revenue due therefrom.
2. Supervision and control of liquor manufacturing, arrack distilleries and breweries.
3. Act as a law enforcement agency in respect of the Excise Ordinance in areas other than those falling within the jurisdiction of Municipal Urban and Town Councils with a view to protecting Excise revenue.
4. Act as a law enforcement agency in respect of the Poisons, Opium and Dangerous Drugs Ordinance.
5. Supervision, enforcement and control of tobacco manufactories.

2.5 Valuation Department

The main objective of the Department is to furnish valuations, advice and evidence relating thereto when called upon to do so by Government and government-sponsored institutions, local authorities and courts.

Specially, the Valuation Department furnishes valuation for all government departments, local authorities, state corporations and statutory boards for acquisition of property both by private treaty and under the Land Acquisition Act. It also values for these authorities for estimate purposes in respect of proposed acquisition of property and for other miscellaneous purposes.

Valuation for tax purposes, including valuations for Wealth Tax, Capital Gains Tax, Estate and Stamp Duty, are furnished to the Commissioner of Inland Revenue on request.

Valuation are also done periodically for local authority tax purposes. Rents are reported both for occupation by government departments of private buildings as well as in respect of lettings and leases of Crown or local authority property.

MINISTRY OF PLAN IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction.

The planning process of Sri Lanka runs far back to the time of post independence period. At that time the General Treasury was the authority that involved in planning activities. In 1957 the National Planning Council and the Planning Secretariat was formed. The main task of these institutions were the formulation of long term plans, but due to number of reasons as lack of co-ordination with the financial authorities constraints, these plans did not achieve the expected targets. The result was the formation of a new ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs with a division on Plan Implementation. It was expected that this division should pay special attention to an area for which the necessary attention has not been made so far. In mid 1973 the division on Plan Implementation was made a separate ministry and this was expanded in 1977 giving this ministry regional planning as well together with the earlier function of monitoring and evaluation, giving special attention to areas which needed such action.

With the new set up the ministry of Plan Implementation came in line with other ministries that involved in development activities. The organization chart on Development Planning Process exhibits the share the Plan Implementation Ministries has in the process of country's development activities.

Main objectives of the Ministry of Plan Implementation:

1. Formulation and appraisal of Plan Implementation strategies.
2. Co-ordination of the Implementation Programmes of Government and non-government agencies for the achievement of national objectives.

3. Evaluation of the performance of institutions and enterprises engaged in economic activities.
4. Collection processing and publication of statistical data relevant to economic and social planning including the administration of the census.
5. Regional development and evaluation and monitoring of foreign and technical co-operation in Intergrated Development Programmes.
6. Manpower planning and administration of the employment data bank.
7. Food and nutrition policy planning.
8. Formulation and implementation of population policy.
9. Co-ordination and implementation of fertilizer distribution in Sri Lanka.
10. Administration of special service officers.
11. Plan implementation publicity.

Organizational set-up and the major functions:

For the achievement of the above stated objectives the ministry has number of Divisions and units which are entrusted with major functions.

Progress Control Division - This division covers one of the major areas of the ministry. It is responsible for monitoring and evaluating of all government development activities. Through the periodical publication of the 'Performance Report' and 'Progress' an attempt is made to highlight problem areas where by relevant ministries could take remedial appropriate measures.

Another function of this division is the maintenance of the national operation room. Progress review material of various development activities of the government is impressively displayed.

This division also, prepares reports on development constraints for consideration by the Committee of Development Secretaries.

Food and Nutrition Policy Planning Division - This division was involved in several important evaluations involving policy. This division from time to time conduct surveys on major projects as well as on nutrition status of the people specially infants, children and pregnant mothers. Apart from that district level programmes are being implemented.

National Fertilizer Secretariat - The main function of this division was the co-ordination of all fertilizer activities in the country, formulation and implementation of fertilizer policies and the promotion of the use of fertilizer for agricultural productivity. To achieve these ends the secretariat has conducted fertilizer demonstration in paddy from time to time. Besides publicity were given as to the storage and handling of fertilizer.

Childrens' Secretariat - This unit has been identified as responsible for the overall planning and co-ordination of programmes for the well being of children in Sri Lanka. It has been identified the basic need of training in sanitary practices and efforts are being made with the help of the non governmental organization for the implementation of such programmes in villages.

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Population Policy Planning - The functions of this division centered in the formulation, implementation, co-ordinating and evaluating all population activities in the country. This division is functioning in collaboration with ministries of Health, Colombo Group of Hospitals, Family Health Bureaus and voluntary organizations.

Information and Publicity Division - This division undertakes the production of publicity material on development programmes and give due publicity from time to time through mass media, on the government development programmes.

Regional Development Division - Main function of this division is the implementation of the District Intergrated Rural Development Programme.

Employment and Man-Power Planning Division - Main activities under this division are (1) Employment assesment and manpower planning, and (2) maintenance of records and data relating to the Job Bank Scheme.

Department of Census and Statistics - The Department of Census and Statistics is responsible for the compilation, analysis and dissemination of statistical data needed for economic and social planning. This includes the holding of censuses of Population and Housing, Agriculture and Industry. Apart from that department carry out adhoc surveys and in depth studies at the request of other organizations to obtain timely and detailed information.

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In reviewing the functioning of the ministry of Plan Implementation few important features can be identified. One is that the Ministry of Plan Implementation does not have any strategy as such for implementation. Instead it carried out follow-up and co-ordination efforts to special areas which needed such action, as entrusted by H.E. the President and Development Secretaries. Secondly the Plan Implementation Ministry has no superficial powers in policy making, planning, implementation, and co-ordination. These powers have been vested (in view of some past experience) with a high level forum, the 'Development Secretaries Committee'. Another factor is the approach adopted by the ministry in measuring the effectiveness and rate of implementing development projects and programmes.

Under such circumstances a question arises as to whether there is sufficient power in the ministry for the fulfilment of its first three responsibilities as listed at the beginning of this report.

MINISTRY OF MAHAWELE DEVELOPMENT

The Organisation Structure of the Ministry of
Mahaweli Development

1. Introduction

Ministry of Mahaweli Development was established in 1979, with a view to coordinate activities related to the development of the Mahaweli River Basin, its tributories, and the transbasin. The Ministry provides general administration, guidance and policy directions.

The 4 Boards given below are expected to function under the Ministry.

- i. Mahaweli Authority of Sri Lanka (MASL)
- ii. The Mahaweli Development Board (MDB)
- iii. River Valley Development Board (RVDB)
- iv. Central Engineering & Consultancy Bureau.

In practice Mahaweli Authority of Sri Lanka (MASL) functions as the Apex body "responsible for the implementation of the Mahaweli Ganga Development Scheme, to provide for the establishment of corporation to assist in such implementation, and to provide for matters connected therewith, and incidental thereto". Thus the functions of MASL extends to areas like, construction and operation of reservoirs, irrigation distribution systems, installation of power generation, management of pre and post settlement activities, agriculture, marketing, credit and water management. Gradually the other institutions have been absorbed into the MASL umbrella.

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2. Descriptions of Functions

The Mahaweli Development Board (MDB) was established under the MDB Act No. 14 of 1970. The Board has been entrusted with the responsibilities of executing the construction and development work in a special area.

However, with the establishment of MASL in 1979, the responsibilities of MDB, had been re-designed to include down-stream construction activities and the board had been virtually renamed to be Mahaweli Engineering & Construction Agency (MECA), which is directly under the control of MASL.

The Central Engineering Consultancy Bureau was established under the State Industrial Corporation Act. No. 49, 1957, is responsible for the Consultation and Manpower Planning work related to construction activities coming under the Mahaweli Ministry. These functions includes, handling, evaluation and monitoring of construction related contracts given to local and foreign firms and provision of local manpower skills to facilitate fast implementation of such contracts.

The River Valley Development Board established in 1965, also functions as a construction agency and has undertaken limited construction activities falling under the down stream development.

This brief introduction discloses the importance of the MASL, as the prime institution in carrying out the functions and priorities of the Mahaweli Ministry. The three remaining institutions provide back-up service mainly at the levels of construction and down-stream development. The Chart II provides the organization structure of the MASL.

The Mahaweli Authority of Sri Lanka (MASL) has gradually become the apex body responsible for the implementation of the Mahaweli Gana Development Scheme. The other parallel institutions such as MDB, RVDB and CECB either have been totally absorbed into the MASL, or have been made non-existent or unimportant. The original Mahaweli Development Board was converted into a branch organization, i.e. Mahaweli Engineering and Construction Agency coming under the MASL, while the Central Engineering Consultancy Bureau also had virtually been made to be responsible to the Director General of the MASL. Similarly the River Valley Development Board also has virtually been made to be an agency providing back-up service to the MASL.

As given in the Chart, the MASL, is an independent body with wide powers and a sophisticated administrative structure.

The line functions emanates from the Director General (D.G) of MASL, and flows through two executive directors heading MECA, MEA together with the Secretary General, all of whom have been placed on par in the institutional structure. The different executive functions related construction, (MECA) settlement, (MEA) operations, (WMS) and general administration, finance planning and monitoring etc. (S.G.) are handled by these three specialised agencies. In practice all these sectional heads are directly responsible to the D.G.

The four different agencies have their administrative, planning and implementation networks organized in an independent manner and this feature of independence could be seen even at the real operational levels. Although the projects are supposed to be handled by the resident project managers, at the project and water management who are quite independent and responsible to their respective divisional heads.

At the intermediary level the General Manager of Mahaweli Economic Agency is assisted by three consultants on issues related to lands, marketing and credit and animal husbandry programmes. At the next level are the managers (7) of different functions like, project services lands, administration etc., together with the Resident Project Managers who are in charge of the overall administrations of different projects.

The Resident Project Manager are assisted by a set of Deputy Resident Project Managers and an army of block and unit managers together with their field assistants.

3. Justification of the Ministry

The Ministry of Mahaweli Development was established in 1979, to cope-up with the urgency and multiplicity of activities resulted from the telescoping of the 30 year Mahaweli Programme that had been converted to an accelerated programme. If not for this change in the magnitude of work to be performed, the original Land and Land Development Ministry could have performed much of the Mahaweli River Basin development work. Yet the acceleration process demanded a setting up of a separate Ministry exclusively involved in operationalising the new programme. Yet the organizational structure of the Ministry suggests that instead of establishing a separate Ministry, an institution of the calibre of MASL set up under the Ministry of Land & Land Development could have performed the identical operations.

4. Problems of Organising

The functions and responsibilities of the Ministry of Mahaweli Development are coordinated by the MASL, which functions as the apex body responsible for the implementation of the programme. Because of the complexity of the issues involved and the organization structure itself the performance of this Ministry is said to be centred not so much on the organization but on the individuals handling those activities.

Depending on the individuals placed at different positions the organization structure and hierarchy also changed. For instance when Mr. Panitharatne was the D.G. of MASL, all the parallel organizations had been made to be responsible to him and he himself had been responsible to the President of the country (Not to the Minister). Therefore, the line authority as given in the Chart, may be considered as the ideal and not the reality.

Secondly the presence of multiplicity of different institutions fulfilling special jobs, had influenced the level of coordination within the Ministry. Thus the lack of co-ordination among institutions like MEA, MECA or WMS, at the top level or marketing, animal husbandry, extension, settlement and lands at the field operational levels had resulted in inefficiency and wastage.

APPENDIX 33

MINISTRY OF LANDS AND LAND DEVELOPMENT

A STUDY OF ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF
MINISTRY OF LANDS & LAND DEVELOPMENT

1. Introduction

This study is to identify the organisational framework of the Ministry of Lands & Land Development, to analyse its objectives and functions assigned to each major Department/Institution.

2. Formation of the Ministry and Justification

The Ministry of Lands & Land Development was established in September, 1978, with the re-allocation of functions among Ministries in the new government of 1977. The Departments and Corporations brought under this Ministry and the functions assigned to the Ministry by His Excellency the President under Clause 44 of the Constitution are shown in the copy of the Gazette Notification in Appendix I.

The Ministry was formed by bringing together certain agencies and functions from the former Ministries of Agriculture and Lands, Irrigation, Power and Highways. The main objective of which was to bring together several organisations responsible for management of natural resources such as Land, Water and Forests, under the direction of one Ministry. By placing this Ministry under the same Minister responsible for Mahaweli Development Programme it was intended that experience and resources of Land and Land Development Ministry such as those of Department of Surveyor-General's, Land Commissioner's, and Irrigation for speed implementation of Mahaweli Project.

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3. Organisation of the Ministry

3.1 Overall Institutional Structure

Overall institutional structure of the Ministry of Lands & Land Development showing the Departments and Corporations and other Institutions coming under the Umbrella of the Ministry is given in Appendix II. The thirteen (13) Departments/Institutions coming under Ministry are:-

- (a) Surveyor General's Department
- (b) Land Settlement Department
- (c) Land Commissioner's Department
- (d) Sri Lanka Lands Reclamation & Development Corporation
- (e) Irrigation Department
- (f) Water Resources Board
- (g) Forest Department
- (h) State Timber Corporation
- (i) Land Development Department
- (j) Surveyor General's Department
- (k) Government Factory
- (l) State Development & Construction Corporation
- (m) Institute of Survey and Mapping Development

3.2 Organisation Structure of the Ministry

The Organisation Structure of the Ministry of Lands & Land Development is shown in the Organisation Chart.

The Minister's management structure is headed by the Secretary to Minister, assisted by three Additional Secretaries who are responsible for key functional areas dealing with policy making and

and monitoring progress of implementation activities carried out by different Institutions coming under the Ministry. The three Additional Secretaries who are at the second level of the organizational hierarchy is responsible for the following functional divisions.

- (a) Additional Secretary
(1)
(Mr.R.S.Jayarathne - C.A.S) - Land use planning, Land Policy Settlement and Planning and Progress Control.

- (b) Additional Secretary
(2)
(Mr.Premachandra - C.A.S.) - Water Resources Development and Management Forestry Planning & Development, Major Tank irrigation development.

- (c) Additional Secretary
(3)
(Mr.K.W.P.Mapitigama-C.A.S) - Administration, Financial Management, Training and Investigations.

As shown in the Organisational Chart in Appendix III each of the above Additional Secretaries are responsible for several specialised functional units headed by a Director/Senior Assistant Secretary as the next lower level of the hierarchy.

The fourth and the lowest level of the Management Structure in the level of Assistant Secretary/Deputy Directors and Accountants who are assigned specific functional units.

4. Policy Strategy & Key Functions

4.1 Identification of Sub sectors

One of the key functions of the Ministry of Lands & Land Development since 1968, has been to identify the areas, programmes and activities which require direct intervention by government for the development and management of Lands and Water Resources while bringing the maximum benefit to the people. The Ministry had therefore identified three sub sectors for special attention in their development and management activities namely; (a) Land Policy and Land Use Planning, (b) Water Resources Development, and (c) Forestry Development and Environments.

In addition to introducing new concepts and formulating policies for the government, the agencies under the Ministry, most of whom are out to the rural areas, had to directly manage a wide range of activities from surveying to land management and from development to management of forests. This necessitated evolving management and monitoring system and development of human resources within the agencies of the Ministry for the management of natural resources which this policy has been actively pursued.

4.2 Management Strategy

The Ministry structure has been redesignated to meet the need of the new approach to natural resources planning and development at the national level. Moving away from the traditional Divisions dealing with administration and finance. The Ministry of Land & Land Development has identified and created five other specialised Divisions dealing with natural resources policy formulation

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planning and developing of resources. They are:-

- Land Policy & Settlement Planning
- Water Resources Development
- Forestry and Environment
- Land Use Policy Planning and,
- Programming and Progress Control

Each of these Divisions were placed under a Director and Sectoral activities were coordinated by an Additional Secretary. Both regulatory as well as development functions relevant to the different agencies under the Ministry or to other Ministries were handled by each Division. The Divisional Director, ranked at Head of Department level, performs the staff functions for the Secretary and the Additional Secretary concerned. The division is expected to be knowledgeable and fully briefed about all policy matters concerning the sector, to be in a position to advise other agencies and direct line departments on all matters relevant to the sub sector.

4.3 Functions of the Ministry.

Main functional responsibilities of the Ministry of Land & Land Development grouped under functional division and sub divisions are shown in the exhibit - 1 page 6.

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1.

Conclusion

In concluding this report, I wish to thank the officials of the Ministry of Lands & Land Development for the assistance extended to me in gathering necessary information and for the valuable guidance, explanations given to me by them.

APPENDIX 34

MINISTRY OF FOOD AND COOPERATIVES

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF THE
MINISTRY OF FOOD & CO-OPERATIVES

1. INTRODUCTION

The ministry handles two main functions viz: food and co-operatives. With regard to Food, the Ministry deals with policy matters in regard to the maintenance of supplies and intervening to regulate prices, particularly with regard to essential commodities. Specifically the ministry is responsible for the maintenance of the national buffer stocks of rice, flour, sugar and wheat and their distribution and issue.

With regard to co-operatives the ministry determines the policy for the functioning of the co-operative movement and is responsible for rendering assistance, encouragement and support for its development and expansion.

To discharge its responsibility the ministry has the following institutions under it :

Government Departments

- (a) Food Department
- (b) Department of Co-operative Development

Statutory Bodies

- (a) The Sri Lanka Institute of Co-operative Management.
- (b) The Co-operative Employees Commission.

2. ORGANISATION STRUCTURE

the organisation structure of the Ministry and the institutions under it are shown in Annex. 1.

3. FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONS UNDER THE MINISTRY

3.1 The Food Department

Following the abolition of the rationing scheme, the removal of subsidies and the liberalization of trade the consumer dependence on the public food distribution system was significantly reduced and the role of the food Department changed from one of a monopoly importer and distributor of rice, wheat, flour and sugar to that of a buffer stock holder of these essential food commodities, as the country's food security authority.

The food department is responsible for intervening in the market for purposes of price stabilisation whenever there are shortages in the market. The Food Department is still the major importer and distributor of rice while it is the monopoly importer of wheat grain and distributor of wheat flour.

The food stamp scheme of the government is handled by this Department. 7.2 million people are issued with food stamps and 1.5 million households are issued with kerosene stamps.

The Department has its head office in Colombo and has an Assistant food commissioner in each administrative district. Each district has a store from which issues are made.

The Department has fumigation units in Naiahenpita, Welisara, Vayaugoda and China Bay. The Department conducts courses on scientific methods of stock preservation, pest control, quality control and stores management for officers of the Paddy Marketing Board, C.A.R.E. and other private sector organisations.

The total number of employees of the Department is 2742.

3.2 The Department of Co-operative Development

The Department of Co-operative Development has two main functions; one is that of being the authority for registration of co-operative societies, and the other is that of developing co-operative societies.

To discharge its functions the commissioner of co-operative Development has wide powers. He can inquire into the affairs of the society, he can remove Boards of Directors and appoint Boards of Management of his nominees. His approval has to be obtained by societies for capital investment and even for disposing of capital assets. He is the authority for deciding on disputes that arise in a society and will decide on the dispute himself or will refer it to an arbitrator.

The Department is the authority for the auditing of accounts of all co-operative societies.

The Department has its head office in Colombo and has 27 divisional offices, each having an Assistant Commissioner (audit) and at least one Assistant Commissioner (Development) and the field and office staff.

The Department has a total employee strength of 2323.

3.3 The Sri Lanka Institute of Co-operative Management

The general objects of the Institute are :

- (a) to render management consultation to co-operative societies;
- (b) to assist and render such consultation services to other organizations in matters affecting the co-operative sector;
- (c) to render follow-up services to guide the implementation of recommendations arising from such services as have been agreed to and accepted by the co-operative societies;
- (d) to render advice and guidance on the feasibility and operation of agricultural, industrial, commercial and other ventures of co-operative societies;
- (e) to develop such training programmes as the Institute's consultancy experience may show to be necessary to develop the skills required for efficient management of co-operative societies;
- (f) to render assistance to the co-operative sector and in particular to the co-operative education and training institutions at national and district levels in order to improve their programmes of management training;
- (g) to produce and issue teaching aids, such as cases, manuals, model job descriptions and other management communication documents;
- (h) to sponsor and hold conferences and seminars, and publish books, journals and magazines, in connection with co-operative management and training;
- (i) to initiate and undertake research, surveys and studies on aspects of co-operative management and training either by itself or in association with co-operative societies and other institutions in Sri Lanka or abroad;
- (j) to collect and disseminate information on co-operative management and performances; and
- (k) to disseminate information on the functions and activities of the Institute to the public and relevant institutions.

At present the Institute functions chiefly as the consultant to the Commissioner of Co-operative Development.

The Institute has a cadre of 15 multidisciplinary consultants and has a total of 64 employees.

3.4 The Co-operative Employees Commission

The powers of the commission are as follows:

- (a) to determine all matters relating to methods of recruitment to, and conditions of employment of, employees of co-operative societies in making appointments and in making promotions from one post in a co-operative society to another post in the same society;
- (b) to conduct examinations for recruitment as employees of co-operative societies or to appoint boards of examiners for the purpose of conducting such examinations and to charge fees from candidates presenting themselves for examinations;
- (c) to determine the qualifications necessary for appointment to any such post, to fix the scales of salaries to be attached to any such post or posts in any class or grade, to revise or adjust such scales of salaries from time to time, in consultation with the Commissioner and to establish such consultative machinery as the Commission may deem necessary to assist it in determining the remuneration and conditions of service of co-operative employees;
- (d) to require co-operative societies to pay salaries accordance with the salary scale fixed by the Commission for any post or posts in any class or grade;
- (e) to determine the procedure or procedures to be followed by any co-operative society in exercising its rights of disciplinary action against its employees, to call upon any co-operative society to complete disciplinary inquiries against its employees within a time stipulated by the Commission, and to hear appeals arising out of any disciplinary orders made by any co-operative society;
- (f) to call upon any co-operative society to keep the prescribed records relating to employees of that society;
- (g) to call upon any co-operative society to furnish before a specified date such files, other documents or information as the Commission may require in respect of any employee of that society;
- (h) to nominate a panel or panels of officers to make such inquiries as are necessary on appeals that are referred by the Commission to such panel or panels and to report thereon to the Commission;

- (i) to require any co-operative society to carry out such instructions, including instructions relating to reinstatement, as may be given by the Commission in regard to any employee of such society, where the conduct of the employee has been the subject of an inquiry and the employee had appealed to the Commission against the decision of the society;
- (j) to determine the general principles in accordance with which gratuity or other benefits may be granted to employees on the termination of their services;
- (k) to advise the Minister, in consultation with the Commissioner, in regard to the exemption of any co-operative society or class of co-operative societies from the operation of this Act;
- (l) to exercise such other powers in relation to co-operative societies and their employees as may be vested in the Commission by Order made by the Minister and published in the Gazette.

The commission consists of three members and has a total employee strength of 46.

4. THE DIVISIONS OF THE MINISTRY

The ministry has six main divisions under the following officers :

- (a) The senior Assistant Secretary
- (b) The accountant
- (c) Assistant Secretary (Administration 1)
- (d) Assistant Secretary (Administration 2)
- (e) Assistant Secretary (Co-operative 1)
- (f) Assistant Secretary (Co-operative 2)

The functions of the different divisions are detailed in the succeeding sections.

4.1 Senior Assistant Secretary

- General administrative and establishment matters connected with the co-operative Development Department, The Co-operative Management.
- Co-ordinate with Ministry of Plan Implementation and Job Bank.
- Official visits of the Hon. Minister and Deputy Minister.
- Cabinet decisions
- Scholarship matters of ministry and institutions under it.

4.2 Accountant

- All accounting functions of the ministry
- Compile the estimates and budgets of institutions under it.
- Reporting to relevant authorities on use of funds and arranging disbursement of funds to institutions under the ministry.

4.3 Assistant Secretary (Administrative 1)

- General administrative ^{matters} of ministry
- Matters connected with food distribution
- Credit councils

4.4 Assistant Secretary (Administrative 2)

- Trade union matters
- Administrative matters connected with the Co-operative Department staff other than Deputy Commissioners and Assistant Commissioners.
- Matters connected with SLICM's staff.

4.5 Assistant Secretary (Co-operative 1)

- Matters connected with co-operative societies in the following divisions : Gampaha, Matara, Galle, Kuliya, Chilaw, Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Jaffna, Killinochchi, Mannar, Vavuniya, Mullaitivu, Batticaloa, Kalumna and Trincomalee.
- Matters connected with manufacturing co-operative and Dairy co-operatives in the coconut triangle.
- Matters connected with the National Co-operative Council and the Co-operative Employees Commission (other than establishment matters)
- Co-operative Societies Act Regulations and By-Laws and policy matters relating to co-operatives.

4.6 Assistant Secretary (Co-operative 2)

- Matters connected with co-operative societies in the following divisions : Kalutara, Hambantota, Amparal, Colombo, Badulla, Moneragla, Kandy, Kegalle, Matale, Nuwara Eliya, and Ratnapura.
- Matters connected with the Sri Lanka Institute of Co-operative Management other than establishment matters.
- Matters connected with Dairy co-operatives and credit societies.

MINISTRY OF HEALTH

1. INTRODUCTION :

- I.1. The State Health Services are provided through a number of curative institutions and health units. These services are administered by the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Teaching Hospitals and the Ministry of Indigenous Medicine. This report is concerned only with the Ministry of Health.
- I.2. The Ministry of Health comprises of the parent Ministry under a Cabinet Minister and Project Ministry viz. the Ministry of Indigenous Medicine. The function of the Project Ministry is to implement institutions placed under them.
- I.3. The Ministry of Health is responsible in providing comprehensive health care services to the entire population of Sri Lanka. The Government of Sri Lanka provides health care, free of charge, to the entire population of Sri Lanka, through a network of about 900 institutions and cadres of field officers of about 40,000 organised separately for preventive and curative services. Preventive services are provided by Medical Officers of Health through their field staff, in clinics and through domicilliary visits. Curative services are provided at institutions ranging from Visiting Stations and Central Dispensaries to Specialised Hospitals. In addition, health care is also provided by a few vertically organized Special Campaigns, mostly on the preventive side but with a certain amount of curative work.
- I.4. The national health policy of Sri Lanka has been governed by a main principle, namely the commitment, on the part of the Government, to provide health care to the entirety of its population. This commitment was greatly strengthened in 1980, when the Government signed the Health Charter and thereby formally endorsed the concept of "health for all by the year 2000", with primary health care as the key approach.

2. ORGANIZATION OF THE HEALTH MINISTRY :

- 2.1. The Administrative Organization of the Health Ministry is presented in
- 2.2. The Ministry is headed by a Cabinet Minister with a Deputy Minister under him, the Ministry of Indigenous Medicine reports to him. The Chief Executive Officer for the Ministry is the Secretary of Health. He is assisted by an Additional Secretary and a Director of Health Services. The Director of Health Services is responsible for delivery of curative and preventive health services throughout the country which is also called the Integrated Health Care Delivery System. The Additional Secretary is in charge of administration and establishment work. The Chairman of the State Pharmaceuticals Corporation (SPC) reports to the Secretary of Health. The SPC is the only Corporation that belongs to the Ministry of Health.
- 2.3. The SPC imports drugs for the private sector as well as for the Health Department in order to ensure the free availability of prophylactic and therapeutic agents. It has been decided by the Ministry of Health that the SPC should carry out also, the manufacture and formulation of essential drugs in Sri Lanka.
- 2.4. The Director General of Health Services has under him 6 Deputy Director Generals. The Deputy Director General Administration handles the division that pertains to administration. The Deputy Director General Finance, handles the Finance Division, which also includes the preparation of budgets, estimates etc. The Deputy Director General Development & Planning, handles the Development and Planning division. All planning activities for the Health Ministry is done by this division. The Deputy General Public Health Services, handles the Public Health Division. This section has 4 of the special disease control programs and is involved in all Public Health services. The Deputy Director General Laboratory Services is responsible for the Laboratory Services

division. The State Medical Stores, a decentralized unit under the Health Ministry is also in this division. It is in charge of procuring, storing and distribution of medical supplies to all governmental institutions, estates and armed services. In 1983 for example, it was authorized to import drugs and supplies to the value of Rs. 213,00,000/- approximately 80% of the total island requirement. This division handles research activities, technology, supplies of equipment, cancer control and blood transfusion services. The Deputy Director General Medical Services handles the division that deals with hospitals, dental services, nursing medical services, nursing education, peripheral care services, mental health and the anti T.B. campaign.

(Please see Ministry of Health
Sri Lanka - Organization Chart)

- 2.5. The central level organisation given earlier, is then broken down to a district level of organisation. This type of organization would aid in better implementation of the integrated health care delivery system which combines proactive curative and preventive health services and it would put these services in a more equitable way to the whole population. The 33 ACA divisions are used for the health districts. The authority of the Director General of Health Services is delegated to the Regional Director of Health Services, who is responsible for the health services in a health division which are as mentioned above, the 33 ACA divisions.
- 2.6. The Regional Health services is broken down into three broad sections:
1. Field services, which aids in the preventive health services and is carried out under a Medical Officer of Health who is assisted by public health staff.
 2. Technical/Administration Services and
 3. Patient Care Institutions.

Base hospitals are located in the large towns, then there are the District hospitals, and small peripheral Units with about 25 beds, in addition there are rural hospitals maternity homes, dispensaries and visiting stations. The Health Services Organization at the Regional level is given in Figure 2.6.

- 2.7. The duties and responsibilities of the Regional Director of Health Services and the Medical Officers of Health are given below.

Responsibilities of a Regional Director of Health Services:

1. He gives leadership in all activities for the implementation in his area of the program of Primary Health Care of the Ministry of Health, under the guidance of the Director of Health Services.
2. He plans and provides promotive, preventive curative and rehabilitative health care to all persons in his area through institutions and services established for such purposes and by mobilising community participation and inter-sectoral collaboration within his area.
3. He is the manager for the entire primary health care complex and also a teacher and trainer for the continuing education of his staff and the community in his area.

Duties of a Regional Director of Health Services :

1. He supervises, directs, controls and evaluate the work of all personnel attached to the Regional Health area.
2. He plans, organises, participates, directs and evaluates the programs of preventive and curative health work to provide health care in maternal and child health,- family planning, control of communicable

and non-communicable diseases, environmental sanitation, health education, school health nutrition, prevention of mine accidents, management of disasters, occupational health, care of the elderly, rehabilitation and mental health.

3. He collects, analyses and maintains all health statistics, submits reports, carries and research and scientific investigations in health and related disciplines.
4. He acts as a consultant to his staff and attends to clinical duties and emergencies in institutions and the fields. He performs any other duties assigned or approved by the Superintendent of Health Services.
5. He plans, organizes and conducts in-service and on the job training of his staff and volunteers in support of health and health related activities in the region.
6. He undertakes in addition duties and instructions issued by the Department of Health from time to time.

Responsibilities of Medical Officers of Health and
Medical Officers :

1. He co-ordinates all activities in his area to implement the program of Primary Health Care of the Ministry of Health, under the guidance and direction of the Regional Directors of Health Services.
2. He plans and provides promotive, preventive, curative and rehabilitative health care to all persons in his area.
3. He shall organise community participation and intersectoral collaboration.

4. He shall undertake the training of staff and the community in his area.

Duties of a Medical Officer of Health/Medical Officer:

1. He provides medical services for the common diseases in the area.
2. He identifies and refers persons for secondary care and follow-up action where necessary.
3. He plans, organises and prepare activities in maternal and child health, family planning, immunisation, school health nutrition, health education, control of communicable and non-communicable diseases, oral health prevention of home accidents, care of the elderly, rehabilitation, mental health, environmental and occupational health, under the supervision, direction and control of the Regional Director of Health Services.
4. He carries out duties and instructions issued by the Department of Health from time to time and any other duties assigned or approved by the Regional Director of Health Services.

3. JUSTIFICATION OF THE MINISTRY :

- 3.1. This Ministry is important, in order to provide a good network of health facilities and a health care system for the entire population of Sri Lanka. It distributes health resources to ensure access to the entire population.

4. PROBLEMS OF ORGANISING :

- 4.1. The objective of equitable, accessible and appropriate health care is yet to be achieved. Major variations exist between different districts, especially characterised by low coverage of the rural population with appropriate and readily available basic health care
- 4.2. Coordination between the curative and preventive services is inadequate. In fact these two branches work in isolation, thus reducing the possibility of reinforcing the work of each other. It is increasingly difficult to find medical officers for the preventive programs since the curative programs assure them of a financial incentive in the form of private practice. Eventually the preventive programs will be neglected and there is a serious dearth of medical officers in this area.
- 4.3. Due to the absence of a well formulated referral system, the utilisation of facilities at different levels of institutions is sub-optimal in urban areas and under utilisation of others in rural areas.
- 4.4. The services are predominantly curative oriented. If more attention was paid to prevention, these benefits would be far greater and more economical.
- 4.5. There is a lack of community participation in the health care system. Except for occasional voluntary contributions and donations government health services are taken for granted. Most of all, there is no inclination that people feel responsible for the good health of themselves and members of their families.
- 4.6. The present organisation of the health delivery system does not lend itself to effective supervision. The Medical Officer has no control over Central Dispensaries and Maternity Homes, they are too scattered for the S.H.S to supervise effectively.

- 4.7. The inpatient services of the hospitals consume the greatest part of the government's budget on health but lack of adequate facilities in these institutions is a frequent complaint. By-passing of peripheral institutions is also attributed to inadequacies of facilities and manpower in them.
- 4.8. It is difficult to attract, motivate and keep medical officers in the administration levels and in the preventive health programs. Most medical officers are interested in doing private practice or going abroad for higher salaries and better facilities. Thus there is a serious dearth of medical officers which brings about the deterioration of the health service.

APPENDIX 36

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

I. THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION:
REPORT ON THE ORGANISATION STRUCTURE, FUNCTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1. At present there are thirty eight Ministries under Cabinet Ministers to plan and implement government programmes. In addition Ministries like Higher Education, Defence, Plan Implementation and Energy, Plantations, etc. are held by the President and also Departments that do not fall under a Ministry come under the office of President for administrative control.

1.1.2. Officers manning the Ministries and Departments other than the Ministers and Deputy Ministers constitute the Public Service. The Public Service consists of approximately 6 lakhs of officers. Each Ministry and each Department has a personnel management branch usually called the Establishments Branch to handle all aspects of personnel management in respect of the officers employed therein other than those belonging to the combined services.

1.2 Functions

The Ministry of Public Administration handles all aspects of personnel management in respect of the staff of the Combined Services which number approximately 50,000. It also renders advisory service to all Ministries and Department and in certain respects performs a regulatory and controlling role on behalf of the entire public service.

1.2.1. It also is responsible for development of policy regarding recruitments, appointments, transfers, promotions, discipline and laying down conditions of service of State employees. Amongst its other responsibilities are the formulation of welfare schemes for State officers, attending to matters relating to Trade Unions in State Service, Super Annuation Schemes, Administration of Combined Services, Re-organisation of the Administrative Apparatus, Implementation of the Official Language and Management Development.

1.2.2. The organizational chart appended depicts the structure of the Ministry of Public Administration. At the level of the Directorate are those officers belonging to the highest class of Administrative Service and of the Engineering Service. To the level of Deputy Directors are selected those in the next higher class, viz, Class II Grade I while in the case of the two specialised Boards, viz The Engineering Services Board and the Scientific Services Board, each has the Secretary of the Ministry of Public Administration as its Chairman, with two more members forming the Board. These two Boards perform an advisory function in regard to appointments and disciplinary control.

1.2.3. In the Ministry of Public Administration each Division or Branch or Unit functions independently of the other operating under the relevant chapter of Establishments Code or the respective Service Minute. The co-ordinating authority that ensures uniformity of policy action is the Secretary. The Establishments Division occupies a central place within the Ministry set up by virtue of the fact that it carries out a staff function in laying down guidelines in all establishments matters for the entire public service within the framework of government policy, interpreting rules and regulations and advising on behalf of the other Divisions of the Ministry. With respect to the exercise of certain personnel functions and powers such as approval of salary scales, approval of acting allowances, the Director of Establishments derives authority from the Establishments code while in regard to others not specifically his own, he has to obtain the authority of the Secretary of Ministry of Public Administration.

1.2.4. As for the internal organizational arrangements each Assistant Director or Deputy Director makes his own decisions in regard to what is considered "routine matters" and on decisions of a higher level he would obtain the approval of the Director of his Division. There is consultation among the Assistant Directors whenever it appears that certain decisions have a bearing on the work of the other Assistant Directors of other Branches. Duties and distribution of work as reflected in the organizational chart is both subjectwise as well as Departmentwise or Servicewise.

1.3. Relationships with the Public Service Commission

1.3.1. The Public Service Commission is a creation of the Constitution and derives its powers from the Cabinet which reserves to itself the ultimate authority on all aspects of personnel management. The Cabinet obtains supportive advisory and executive services from the Ministry of Public Administration in the formulation of schemes of recruitment and promotion, transfers or in short on all aspects of public personnel management. It is thus seen that while Public Service Commission is the agent of the Cabinet on appointments, transfers and disciplinary matters, the Ministry of Public Administration is the policy advisory and regulatory arm of the Cabinet on all aspects of public personnel management.

1.4. Administrative Reforms

1.4.1. Although it had been envisaged that with its creation in 1970 the Ministry of Public Administration will perform the broad function of undertaking a systematic examination of the administrative aspects of the machinery of government and to advise the government on the administrative implications of policy proposals relating to the distribution and location of functions including matters of decentralisation, this aim has yet to be realised. The Ministry has the supporting staff of the Division of Management Services and the Academy of Administrative Studies. Yet it has shown little success in dealing with important issues. The Ministry has or in the past had a variety of unrelated subjects to look after with inadequate resources and this could have been one of the reasons for this inertia. The only function akin to administrative reforms is now performed by the Management Services Division and centres round the development of organisational structures, introduction of management techniques and systems for achieving management improvement and attaining efficiency and economy in Ministries and Departments by means of simplification of work processes and effective utilization of the available resources.

1.5. Problems, Issues and Justification of the Ministry

1.5.1. The Ministry of Public Administration plays the role of advising the Cabinet and implementing Cabinet Policy in general. Theoretically the Cabinet and the Minister of Public Administration can bring to bear whatever influence it deems necessary on the officers of the Ministry of Public Administration as well as on officers of other Ministries who handle the personnel function. However there appears to be no clear-cut policy on the staffing of the Division of the Ministry of Public Administration in that the large majority of the staff are drawn from the transferable and generalist administrative and clerical services. These officers have not been selected for any specialised skills or experience in public personnel management. Moreover at the end of a four year period they are liable for transfer out of the Ministry. This holds good for staff of personnel division in Ministries and Departments.

1.5.2. In addition to the above there are also problems such as balancing between centralization and decentralization, problems of inter-agency relationships, and problems of formulation and co-ordination and implementation of personnel policy.

1.5.3. The Ministry of Public Administration manages on behalf of the government the human resources which is the most important of the resources at hand since it is this resource that manages all other resources. In a developing country like Sri Lanka which has launched large scale irrigation and agricultural development plans, saddles as it is with the problem of unemployment and its converse, brain drain, the issue that looms large is one of matching manpower skills to employment opportunities. In basic terms it is a problem of finding the right person for the right jobs, developing the skills of such persons and motivating them to stay in the jobs by sound personnel policy.

1.5.4. One of the problems that has adversely affected the implementation of plans for economic and social development has

been the outflow of technical skills from this country. This problem has to be solved to a large extent by the creation of the right conditions as compensation policy, opportunities for training and development of skills, creation of the right administrative environment for technical personnel so that they would not be considered as playing a subordinate role to the so called elitist administrative group. No attempt has so far been made to frame a set of position classifications spelling out the main technical and administrative components of the jobs in respect of the specialists.

1.5.5. At present the two agencies that are primarily concerned with the formulation and implementation of national plans are the Ministry of Plan Implementation and the Ministry of Finance and Planning. While the latter Ministry is the portfolio of the Minister of Finance the former comes within the purview of the President. The former Ministry is also responsible for recruitment of public officers to non-staff grades through its system of Job Bank. It appears incongruous that the institutional arrangement for finding the right person for the right job is located outside the Ministry of Public Administration. In order to have an effective personnel policy, implement government programmes in the personnel sphere, direct, guide and supervise the personnel programmes and activities of Departmental personnel agencies and also interpret rules and lay down guidelines and standards it needs autonomy and independence. If then and then only it can preserve and act on axiomatic principles such as supremacy of the merit principle, consistency, non-partisanship, etc.

1.6. Conclusion

1.6.1. The need for an effective public administration system is all the more necessary because of the growing size of the public service from three lakhs in 1963 to the present strength and also because of the need for training of cadres of public officers both to man new positions as well as to replace personnel who have emigrated, together with the need to build an update on information base on personnel parameters. The existence of the Ministry is further justified because of the multiplicity of organisations and the diversity of roles of the organisations that come under its

control and guidance. The increasing influence and the authority of the politician as the representative of the people; the decentralisation of administration; the grant of political rights to a large segment of public officers, the orientation of public officers to be more responsive to the needs of the public and the employment generation in a development and social welfare economy have further justified and enhanced its existence and usefulness.

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