

Theory and Practice

Public Speaking And Writing Seminar Paper Syndicate Report, Book Review

Syed Naquib Muslim

**Bangladesh Public Administration
Training Centre
Savar, Dhaka**

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and
Writing Seminar Paper
Syndicate Report , Book Review
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Book Review***

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Dr. Ekram Hossain

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Foreword

Syed Naquib Muslim, Director, BPATC and a member of the Bangladesh Civil Service (Administration) has written an excellent instructive book entitled "Public Speaking and Writing Seminar Paper, Syndicate Report and Book Review". It will, I believe, meet the academic and professional needs of the officials participating in the core courses of BPATC viz., Foundation Training Course, ACAD and Senior Staff Course. It may work as a guide to the participants interested to know the technical dimensions of effective public speaking, writing and presenting academic reports. The book will not only meet the needs of the participants of BPATC but also the needs of other training institutes of the country where similar training courses are conducted.

I congratulate Naquib for this useful book and wish the book wide circulation.

Dr. Ekram Hossain
Rector

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Preface

Speaking and writing are two important productive skills which every manager, administrator, trainer, teacher, and pleader needs to acquire for his or her professional survival. Mastering the art of public speaking is necessary because it enables an administrator to influence or to motivate or to persuade the target persons effectively. Again, an administrator is often requested or required to write stuffs like seminar papers, syndicate reports and book reviews as part of the professional obligation or academic requirement. An administrator who is expected to be a professional cannot afford to write a technical paper in a non-professional fashion. He or she needs to learn a set of techniques so that he or she can write as well as present a paper systematically.

I do not claim this book to be a manual; it is simply an aid to the understanding of trainees on the principles and practices of **speaking** and **writing**. This book is the result of my fourteen-year experience as a trainer, a paper reviewer and a paper writer. I have learnt these skills more by speaking and writing than simply by reading books on these subjects. The weaknesses of myself and the strengths of others coupled with study of books and journals enabled me to conceptualise the subjects and to take the venture of writing this book.

I have been greatly inspired by my colleagues at BPATC, Md. Aminur Rahman, Mahmud- ul- Hoque and Muhammad Maqsudur Rahman in writing this book. I am thankful to Md. Latifur Rahman for suggesting the title of the book. AKM Musa and Sikander Ali Mondal showed genuine interest in and utmost sincerity for the publication of the book ; I am grateful to them. I must mention the name of Shahnaz Musa who stood behind me

like a rock and did all she could so that the book sees the light of the day and reaches the hands of those for whom it is meant.

I should never forget Mohammad Shahidul Alam who always said "yes" whenever I approached him to publish what I wrote; it is for him that I have come to be known to the field of management training and English teaching as a resource person and as a writer throughout the country.

I am indebted to Dr. Ekram Hossain, Rector, BPATC, for providing the institutional support I needed to meet the cost of publication; his sympathy and generosity will encourage me to take new initiatives in future.

Syed Naquib Muslim

August, 20, 1999.

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Chapter-1

The Art of Public Speaking or Presenting a Paper

"The greatest wisdom of speech is to know when and what and where to speak; the time, matter and manner."

- Frank Vizetelly

Ability to speak effectively before the enlightened public is the most important communication skill and is a common professional requirement for an administrator, a manager, a trainer, a teacher or a seminar paper presenter. Speaking before the public is both a rewarding and an exciting experience. But to speak before the members of an enthusiastic audience and to present before them a paper written on a specific subject involves mastery of a set of techniques. Anybody having command of these techniques can achieve success equally in administration, management and instruction. A presenter has to speak effectively for conveying ideas, information, messages to the members of an audience. Some speakers or presenters are born while others develop this art through **training, imitation, observation** and **practice**.

1. Part One: A Set of Skills.

Without learning requisite skills, a person cannot master the art of public speaking. Here are some guidelines for improving this art:

1. Acquire Verbal Skills

Verbal skill is the ability to speak. Developing verbal skill is largely a matter of speaking with good sound, balanced speed, appropriate stress and proper words. Elements of verbal skills are ---

Pronunciation : This refers to the creation of appropriate sound and accent of syllables or words. Correct sounds enhance the beauty of a speech. If words are mispronounced, meanings are likely to be distorted and the entire speech will be ill-received by the audience.

Articulation : This refers to use of bodily organs like **lips, tongue, teeth, jaw, voice** in coordinated way for correct pronunciation of words. Articulating is producing clear sounds of syllables by using these organs. Laziness in using these organs is a general fault with a good number of speakers. About using lips, experts prescribe: "Speak with lively, not lazy lips." Articulation is affected when a speaker is overtaken by fear or he faces stress.

Vocabulary : A rich vocabulary is an essential prerequisite for a speaker to present his ideas, views and facts fully and precisely. The audience is moved by the words a speaker or a writer uses. English poet Rudyard Kipling puts it: "Words are the most powerful drug used by mankind." Thus a powerful vocabulary is an asset both to the speaker and the writer. According to Joseph Conrad: "Give me the right word, and I'll move the world." Thus carelessness in the choice of words will not only affect the quality of speech but also the image of the speaker.

2. Use Non-verbal Elements

These refers to the use of body postures, gestures and facial expressions to make a speech human (not wooden or robotic) and animated. Body is the most reliable source of messages and meanings. Feelings of satisfaction, happiness, affection, modesty, sympathy, empathy, reassurance, surprise can be best and naturally expressed through bodily gestures. Gestures should of course match with emphasis in sound. Again, overuse of gestures is a sign which indicates that the speaker is puzzled. It is

better not to use any gestures that do not help in making the presentation effective. In the context of presenting a paper, the speaker may use his **eyes, hands, head, chest, arms, fingers, palm,** to express feelings or emotions.

With **eyes** the speaker sets up a contact with the members of the audience. A good presenter talks eye to eye. Speaking is not simply vocal, it is also a physical action. We must use our eyes to look at the audience to establish reliability and rapport with the audience. Eyes have one language everywhere, says George Herbert. Therefore, sprinkle your eye-contact around; your eye-contact is almost a substitute for handshake with the members of the audience. You may remember Matthew saying "The light of the body is the eye."

By using **hands** and **facial expressions**, the speaker proves his appearance human, lively and natural. Hands can be used proportionately or naturally to describe, clarify, amplify and focus the ideas one wants to present through words. Gestures with hands are used to show size, direction, shape, and importance of any object. It is better to use both hands. It is also advisable to keep hands out of pockets. Terry Smith advises us saying: "Make your hands work **for** you, not work **against** you."

3. Develop Paraverbal Skills

Skills of using **voice, tone, pitch, pace** are the elements of para-verbal communication. A successful presenter both **tells** and **shows**. When he tells, he uses his voice which should be well enough to be heard. It is the speaker, not the audience who should handle the sound effects of speech. When you stand up before a group to speak or present your ideas, you are the only person who bears all the responsibility for the presentation.

If the **voice**, which is the gift of God, is not used properly the presenter will not be able to produce the desired effect on the audience. Communication experts advise: "Keep your voice vital---and it will keep you vital." Use your voice to create resonance ; resonance relies on relaxation of the vocal cord, mouth, jaws, and the nose. To test if your voice sounds monotonous, read a paper aloud beforehand privately on trial basis and listen to yourself. Also check if you vary the pitch and the pace according to the meaning you want to transmit through your presentation.

Tone is an instrument to convey various shades of emotion. We express anger, love, hate , fear, and a host of other emotions through tone. What colour is to a piece of art , tone is to a speech. According to George Bernard Shaw, the only difference between a lady and an urchin is the ability to speak in a cultured tone or voice.

Good speaker maintains a balanced **pitch** ; a pitch is the frequency of vibrations, the "up and down" of the voice. The twin functions of the pitch are—to mark the relative prominence of words and to mark the variation between different sequences. Pitch level varies because our emotional condition varies and emotion is linked to the subject we speak on. Without the variation of pitch, speech becomes dull or monotonous. The act of varying the pitch level is called **inflection**. This is necessary to make the voice lively.

Pace is the rate of speech of a speaker. Pacing contributes to the transmission of meaning or message of the speaker to the audience. If a speaker speaks too fast, the sound becomes indistinct, the meaning is likely to be lost and therefore the listener will not understand him ; if he speaks too slowly, the listener may either stop listening or fall asleep. Normal pace of English speech

varies from 120 to 175 words per minute. Speech trainers advise: "Speak at the rate that suits you and the situation. Don't be as fast as a machine gun or as slow as molasses on a cold day." Thus the presenter must speak at a pace which helps the listener absorb the message. Gladstone had the weakness of overrapid speech; Lord Baldwin was a model for practising balanced pace.

II. Part Two : A Plethora of Principles

1. Alleviate Stage Fright

Fear is a normal psychological reaction that occurs in a speaker. Even veteran speakers experience this negative emotion. John Steinbeck, the prolific American novelist and Nobel Prize winner admits: "fear is as natural as breathing". Roosevelt, the late American President says: "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself." J.L. Nehru echoes the words of Roosevelt when he says: "There is perhaps nothing so bad and so dangerous in life as fear." Sources of fear generally are---

- Inadequacy of content
- Lack of confidence for inadequate preparation
- Evaluative tendency of the audience
- Suspicion that the audience may not understand him
- Low rank and status of the speaker himself

However, fear has to be controlled or alleviated. Fear and confidence are unfriendly to each other. One of the ways to develop confidence is continual practice. Practice produces confidence and prevents fear. The Greek philosopher Ovidus says, "Practice is the best of all instructors." When Napoleon was asked what he would consider the most important factor of success, he replied unhesitatingly: "Practice, practice, and practice." Again, rehearsing the presentation not only creates confidence but also helps to identify the pre-delivery weaknesses

which one can overcome later through self-correction. According to Frank Snell, preparation is the biggest gun in the speaker's arsenal in his speech battle.

2. Prepare a Speech Outline

The speaker is always in the supply side and the listener in the demand side. The speaker must have something to give and the audience to receive ; the audience inherently has the right to demand . Content is the most essential element of a speech. As Frank Snell cautions : " Content must not be an empty word." To make the speech informative and effective, the speaker has to prepare an outline which acts as guidepost. A good outline is a valuable tool that helps the speaker determine **what to say** and **in what order**.

3. Do Not Simply Read Out Your Write-up

When you fix yourself before the rostrum, present your paper freely and naturally. Never read out your written report verbatim in a robotic fashion. If you do it , you are sure to become the cause of drowsiness for the members of the audience. You should prepare a speech outline which is the 'roadmap' of your entire presentation .This outline will help you present your subject sequentially. Thus an outline prepared beforehand pays double dividends because it aids the speaker in preparing his speech systematically and the audience also receives the information in a logical order. Remember, you need to speak to the audience , not to you text or outline.

4. Create Interest with Your Substance and Style

Create interest in those who are apparently uninterested in listening to you. As a speaker your strategy will be to capture the attention of all. In fact, creating impression in the audience is the biggest challenge for the presenter. This not only depends on the **substance** but

also on the **style** of presentation. In fact, **how to present** is as important as **what to present**. As communication expert Stephen R. Maloney says: "For better or worse, we are **what** we say and **how** we say it." R. Hasan echoes Maloney when he says: "How we say is how we mean." If the topic is boring, the presenter will try his best to make it interesting. Here the **how** aspects are more important. While speaking, you may have to assume the role of a salesperson so that you can sell your ideas convincingly. Use of audio-visuals, multi-media act like "wake-up calls" for the sleeping audience.

5. Control Your Mannerisms

According to Alfred Tack, "Mannerism ruins a good speech." It is because they distract the attention of the audience. Moreover, mannerisms are infectious; mannerisms of bad speakers infect even good speakers. The members of the audience tend to **look at** the speaker and to **look for** his or her peculiarities. The presenter should therefore try to spot his own mannerisms. One way to discover the peculiarities of your own is to use video or audio tape for the feedback or another way is to appoint your intimate reliable colleague or room-mate to do the function of a critic. The mannerisms are mainly of two varieties—**verbal** and **non-verbal**. Some examples of non-verbal mannerisms are—

frequent throat-clearing
fidgeting with pen/keys
adjusting tie or glasses
rubbing the nose
touching the mouth-piece
changing the leg-position
pulling at an ear
playing with hair

excessive shrugging
biting nails
tie-straightening
slouching
cloud gazing
excessivelip-wetting
head scratching
toe-tapping

smoothing back hair

throat-clearing

rapid eye-blinking

Saying words or expressions such as **but, rather, well, just, you know, the point is, and, if, even, actually, so therefore**, unnecessarily and too frequently takes the shape of mannerism which educated listeners do not welcome.

6. Use Visuals Proportionately

A successful speaker not only tells but also sells his ideas to the members of the audience. He can sell his ideas better if he shows visuals such as graphs, charts, diagrams convincingly. These help in illustrating or simplifying or clarifying complex issues. While speaking, the speaker has either **to tell and show** or **to show and tell**. Depending on the theme, the presenter can rotate the pattern of **tell and show** and **show and tell**. To show his inputs, the presenter needs to take the help of visuals like transparencies, slides, white board, flip chart, OHP etc. Visuals are important because for learners the eye is a much more effective channel for gathering information than the ear. The human tendency is to look for visual proof. As Shakespeare demanded: "Give me the ocular proof".

Only the core points of the speech may be printed on transparencies which may be shown to the audience sequentially. Excessive display of transparencies will create a cleavage between the speaker and the members of the audience. Moreover, the audience is likely to suspect that the speaker has less grasp of the subject and he is solely dependent on slides. Printing too many points on a transparency sheet will cause inattention and irritation in the audience. As Don Keogh, the Coca-Cola chief comments: "Some pictures may be worth a thousand words, but a picture of a thousand words isn't

worth much". Thus it is better to use phrases or fragments, not full sentences on a transparency or a slide.

Do not show through visuals too many numbers. Numbers should not submerge the words you speak. Numbers are necessary to support or reinforce words, not to overcloud them. It is better to show the striking figures/statistics to stimulate and to capture the imagination of the audience. Words and figures should be written or printed on transparencies legibly so that those can be read by the audience comfortably on the screen. As Frank Snell has cautioned: "The visual is a help; never let it take **you** from your listeners." Use a pointer, not your finger when drawing attention to a particular point. Showing one finger is a sign of imposition which the audience does not like. Speak with the **audience**, not with the **screen**.

7. Manage the Rostrum

Many speakers who are experts at table-talking show a sub-standard performance in public speaking because they do not know how to manage the rostrum or the podium. Rostrum provides the presenter a mental support; it also helps him keep or set his outline or notes.

It is better to keep the body away from the rostrum ; keeping both the hands across both the corners of the rostrum is not awkward. Never make your whole body rest on the rostrum; never lean towards any particular side. Where there is no provision for any rostrum, the presenter may keep his arms, hands loose and natural by his sides. Many speakers do not like to use podium because they want to move here and there while speaking.

8. Anticipate and Manage Questions/ Queries from the Audience

While preparing for your speech, you should not only organise your content but also prepare concurrently answers to the probable questions or queries. In handling

questions, it is necessary to remain in a welcoming mood. Control your anger in responding to the unfriendly and stormy questions. Do not lose temper if the questions are not to your expectation. Unfriendly questions should be handled in a friendly way. It is a good technique to seek the help of the questioner himself or others if the question is too tough. The speaker should take each question sportingly and as a learning experience. He may console himself by remembering the Turkish saying : "One piece of trouble is worth a thousand pieces of advice."

You may come across several classes of questioners. One category of questioners will ask you questions simply to embarrass you on prejudice or jealousy and another will do it to test your competency ; again, another will tend to prove that he or she knows better than you. You are to satisfy all of them in an intelligent way.

It is not always possible to predict all the questions the audience may be interested to ask. Effective answering depends on full grasp of the content which in turn builds confidence of the speaker. One may keep in mind Bennis' Second Law of Academic Psychodynamics : "Make whatever grand plans you will, you may be sure, the unexpected or the trivia will disturb or disrupt you." As a matter of fact, few members of the audience listen and most of them evaluate. What Carl Rogers spoke of the reader is also true of listeners : "Readers have a tendency to judge rather than listen."

The speaker should therefore show restraint and answer the questions convincingly preferably on **KISS** formula (Keep It Short and Simple). Ability to answer the questions will set majority of the audience at ease and ultimately neutralise the ill-feeling cherished by one or two members of the audience.

9. Take Care of Your Cosmetics

Cosmetics include such items as dress, cuff-links , optical frame, shoes, tie, tie-clip, pen in the pocket, that reflect the personality of the presenter. . Select and wear dress appropriate to the occasion. Remember that your dress is an integral part of the presentation. When you stand up before the audience, you hold the most important position and therefore you cannot avoid being watched as well as evaluated. Before you appear before the audience, look at your mirror to check if you yourself are presentable to the audience or not.

Select such dress that makes you lively, natural, genuine, smart, and friendly. Casual , wild, outlandish dress such as jeans or hippie costume in a formal setting will be distracting to the sophisticated members of the audience. It will inevitably mar the effectiveness of the presentation . If the presenter is neatly or appropriately dressed, he or she will feel comparatively less nervous. By looking smart, the presenter himself or herself becomes the prominent audio-visual aid for the audience. In fact, the presenter is the centre-piece of the attraction. As Claudine Wilder remarks: "Visuals are the icing ; you are still the cake."

10. Watch the Behaviour of the Audience

A speaker should be sensitive not only to his own presentation , but also to the mood or behaviour of the audience while he speaks. He has to act as a "listenometer" to assess if the members of the audience are really listening to him or not. He should not in any way cross the timeframe fixed for him. If he goes beyond the scheduled time , he is going to interfere with other's time and it will create a chain effect on other scheduled activities. It is necessary to watch the distress signals such

as **audience looking at the watch, listeners talking among themselves, posing a blank look, untimely clapping, a few listeners looking towards the ceiling** etc. When these are detected, it is better to draw a happy conclusion to the satisfaction as well as relief of the audience.

Chapter-2

Techniques of Writing a Seminar Paper

*"Your form is your meaning and your
meaning dictates the form."*

-Joyce Cary

Writing and presenting a seminar paper are two discrete elements of an individual assignment (not a group-based activity) which is often required to be accomplished by entry-, mid- and senior-level administrators attending a training course or a seminar. This assignment bears special significance because performance of a trainee or a paper writer is graded on the quality of the seminar paper.

Seminar paper preparation and presentation are one of the elements of the training strategy used for involving a participant in the identification, deliberation, analysis and exposition of the critical problems/ issues a particular institution or the government is currently confronting. In the process of accomplishing this venture, a participant can express freely his thoughts, ideas and perceptions on diverse organizational and national problems which may have remained unaddressed so long.

What is a Seminar ?

A seminar is an assembly of advanced or distinguished persons who gather to study a particular subject under the leadership of an expert or a researcher. The expert speaks on a subject or presents a paper which discusses a specific problem and lays out the research findings and probable solutions to the problem. The members of the assembly give responses in the form of questions,

opinions, and comments on the contents or/and methodology of the paper.

In training institutions, seminar is used as a method of collecting results of research and inquiry carried out by an expert. A well-conducted seminar also acts as a tool of unobtrusive learning for a group of participants who get familiarized with the results of a research and who are provoked to contribute by their individual views, ideas and experiences.

Objectives of Seminar Paper Writing

The specific objectives of seminar paper writing are -

- i) to help administrators acquire skills of writing research/seminar papers in a professional way ;
- ii) to help them sharpen their analytical and problem-solving competence;
- iii) to encourage them to develop and to use innovative ideas that may influence public policy-making;
- iv) to create scope for utilizing their individual knowledge and experience acquired on the job and for sharing ideas and experiences on the critical problems facing a particular organization or the government or the society; and
- v) to enable the participants to develop capacity for tolerance about difference or disagreement of views of others.

I. Pre-writing Phase

Because writing a seminar paper is a technical job., one has to accomplish it by acquiring a set of techniques. An administrator may conceive a unique idea or deliberate on a crucial national issue sitting in his or her drawing room but he or she may not be able to write or present it systematically before an enlightened gathering unless he

or she masters these techniques. Creative writing involves acquisition of a set of skills or techniques.

Choosing a subject: The paper-writer must have a topic to write on. Unless the writer has something to write, there is no point in holding the pen. As Matthew Arnold admonishes: "Have something to say and say it as clearly as possible." Selection of proper topic involves some amount of creativity. Nietzsche, the pessimistic German philosopher said, selection itself is an act of creation. The criteria for choosing a topic are:

a) There is difference of opinion about an issue among the enlightened or conscious sections of the community. The subject concerns critical or provo-cative questions but was not given due consideration for analysis or deliberation. It is better not to choose a topic which is very familiar or over addressed.

b) The author has interest in the topic. He needs to have adequate knowledge, experience and insight to write on it. His paper in fact shows how he has deliberated on a specific topic analytically and how he is prepared to transmit his ideas and thoughts on it systematically.

c) The author must have access to data and information on the chosen topic.

How to begin: Beginning to write is perhaps the most difficult challenge a writer faces. As Byron remarks: "Nothing is so difficult as beginning". According to Woody Allen, the toughest part of writing is "to go from nothing to the first draft". The most famous prolific writer John Steinbeck admits: "I suffer as always from the fear of putting down the first line". It is useless to go on worrying; it is rather useful to begin the beginning with anything. As the poet Langston Hughes reminds us through his practical, didactic stanza:

*Go home and write,
A page tonight,
And let that page come out of you-
Then it will be true".*

One barrier to the beginning of writing is the tendency of procrastination. The chief reason for which the writer tends to procrastinate is that he has not yet organised his thoughts or ideas. The other barriers are ---i) a feeling that he has nothing to write; ii) a belief that whatever he will write will not be of quality; and iii) lastly the fear of making mistakes.

Preparing an outline : Outlining is the key to any successful writing. An outline is a logical or schematic arrangement of ideas prepared in the light of the thesis or controlling idea to be drawn. Outlining is, in fact, **writing before writing**. Writing a seminar paper following an outline is like building a house following a blueprint. A consistent outline is a useful tool to keep the writer on the right track; it acts as a roadmap for him or her to reach the destination . It helps him or her visualize what ideas he or she is going to dwell upon later; it also helps the writer identify the gaps, irrelevancies or redundancies detected in a draft seminar. If there is no outline, one may waste one's time in excessive and continuous rewriting.

Preparing an outline is a pre-writing activity. At this phase, the writer goes on taking dictation from his brain which is the repository of all ideas, information and experiences.

Questioning and brainstorming help to prepare an outline. The traditional five "**Ws**" and one "**H**" technique is often useful to elicit details. Because drawing a precise outline at the first instance is often difficult, one can develop it gradually to make the outline relevant,

Sample of an Outline

Topic: Problems of Post-Training Utilisation in Public Office

Outline

1. Public perception about the impact of training
2. Indications of non-^{use} utilisation of training — why ^{service-recipients} ~~people~~ doubt?
3. Why training cannot be used?
Inhibiting / impeding forces — (To be drawn from interviews)
Is the problem procedural or attitudinal?
4. How to make training attractive, practical and ^{need-based?} ~~useful~~?
5. How to use training optimally — measures to be taken
6. Any ^{any} policy intervention needed?
7. Are training and placement matched? Why not matched?
8. Key Concepts / phrases

Training - friendly environment

Intuitive training and Need-based Training

Professionalism

Supportive Supervision

Institutional Policy on Training

Training - Career Linkage

Rationalisation of Training Modules

substantive and logical. It is useful to show the draft outline to the assigned consultant who may suggest inclusion or exclusion of ideas.

An outline may contain **three** essential ingredients. These are -

i) Thesis /theme statement prepared on controlling idea. This is, in fact, the focus of the paper. The thesis is based on the controlling idea which is composed of a subject and a statement about the subject. The statement expresses the writer's views, perceptions or attitude. The controlling idea must be expressed pithily in a sentence. If the controlling idea is fuzzy, the whole paper will become uncertain. If one has no controlling idea, it means one is not mentally settled to write on anything .

ii) Core ideas and support ideas logically arranged. These are linked to the statement ; in other words, they include ideas and examples in support of the controlling idea.

iii) Documentation sources: These sources may be primary or secondary or both.

Whether the outline is strong or weak may be tested by two criteria :

- **Completeness** : Have all the points been covered ? If any gap is identified, additional elements may be incorporated to fill it.
- **Cogency** : Will the discussion satisfy the reader or the audience ?

Preface: Preface precedes the introduction of the paper. It is about the paper itself but not an integral part of it. In a preface , a writer generally explains the significance of the topic to be discussed and focuses the background behind the paper. It also exposes author's personal views on the subject.

The contents of each chapter are pinpointed pithily so that the reader can obtain an initial idea about each part of the paper. A good opening as a prefatory statement arouses the interest of the reader. To many writers, preface is as important as the parts of the main paper.

The Executive Summary : The Executive Summary should present a condensed but succinct, self-explanatory and complete account of the text based on the following elements.

- Statement of the problem
- Methods of collecting information or data
- Results or findings and conclusions
- Recommendations

The Executive summary is generally placed before the **Table of Contents** of the main paper, although the sequence may be changed on the choice or convenience of the authorities requiring it. Results and conclusion should be the focus of the executive summary.

II. Writing Phase: Structuring the Main Paper

Introduction : No part of the paper is more difficult than introduction. An introduction introduces to the reader the topic or the problem. the writer writes on. An appealing introduction captures the attention of the reader through informative sentences ; it provides him a broad idea about the subject to be discussed. It shows what the writer knows about the problem or issue and lets the reader know what he knows. The introductory paragraph ends with the controlling idea as a conclusion on the premises expressed in the earlier sentences. Thus a consistent introduction is composed of premises based on the writer's controlling idea and the conclusion that logically follows from them. In a word, the introduction bridges the gap between the writer and the reader.

A good introduction enables the writer to win half of the battle. In the words of Charles F. Kettering : " A

problem well-stated is a problem half-solved". Editing work should be withheld at this stage because this may interfere with the spontaneous flow of ideas as well as writing.

Many readers tend to form judgement on the quality of the paper after reading the introduction part. There is no set principle about the length of an introduction. Its volume depends on the volume of the total paper.

Objectives : Objectives of the paper should be clarified precisely and sequentially. If objectives are vague, it implies that the writer is not sure or clear what he wishes to achieve through the exercise; moreover, the outcome of the paper will be uncertain. Therefore, it is first necessary to ascertain what one wishes to achieve or pursue and then use specific action-oriented words/ terms to express one's intent. It is necessary to remember that objectives justify the scope.

Methodology: Seminar paper is based mostly on a research work. Thus one needs to gather correct information or accurate data exploring reliable sources. Sources are **primary or secondary** or both. Secondary sources are secondhand; it is mostly based on "library work" and on what other persons have written. Primary sources involve gathering firsthand information through observation, experience, questionnaire, or interviews (structured or unstructured). Interviews carried out through face-to-face interaction or by telephoning need to be documented.

Methodology is inextricably linked to the objectives of the paper. One can use either hypotheses or research questions to proceed with the inquiry.

Subject Coverage: One may often feel tempted to highlight many problems or issues concurrently. This may spell disaster. It is necessary to bring the subject of study

to a manageable level. Point out what sub-topics, sub-themes you wish to cover and those you do not want to cover. Scope determination will pay you double dividends. It will help to fix the range of writing ; moreover, this will enlighten the reader about what he is going to listen. The entire volume of the paper generally ranges between 25 to 35 typewritten pages excluding annexures. The limit is amenable. Now-a-days short but substantive papers are preferred.

Data Analysis and Findings: This part is based on the analysis of collected data. It describes facts and information uncovered during the process of investigation. It is not a mere summary or history of something. Findings are based on evidence, not on mere assumptions or preconceptions of the writer. The writer must prove his impersonality in presenting the facts or findings. To quote A.M. Ramsay, researcher must prove his competency "by his honesty in accepting and handling evidence, and by his fairness in presenting it when contesting the opinions of those in opposition to his own views." This chapter is the heart of the paper.

Recommendations: In this part, the writer or the researcher describes what needs to be done in future to improve the existing situation. Recommendations must be based on the findings drawn from the survey. A grocery list of recommendations artificially inserted in the paper will make the paper superficial. Therefore, recommendations may be categorised under sub-headings such as administrative, financial, judicial, economic, etc. A plan of action on the implementation of recommendations makes the paper pragmatic.

Conclusion: A mature writer always builds a mental framework of concluding his paper. A fiction character Sherlock Holmes remarked : "The supreme gift of the

artist is the knowledge where to stop." Through the conclusion, the writer reminds the reader of the thesis or hypothesis he has drawn and links the controlling idea of the paper to the future.

The author may record his or her personal observations, reactions and opinions about the subject studied. In other words, the conclusion may contain value judgement of the author himself about what is happening. What the **introduction**, the **main body** and the **conclusion** should contain is best suggested by the aphoristic remarks by Sir Winston Churchill : " When you are writing an essay or giving a speech, tell them that you are going to tell them. And then tell them that you have told them". This part should not contain any new idea or argument having little relevance with the topic already discussed. In fact, a conclusion is just like the writer's farewell handshake with and parting smile to the reader.

Seminar Paper Layout

	What it may include?
Introduction / Background	a. Capture reader's attention b. Introduce the subject c. Neutral tone (objectivity)
Objectives and Rationale	a. Spell out the purpose(s) of writing
Background	b. What the reader will be able to know?
Methodology	a. Specify the sources of data b. Instruments used to collect data c. Neutral tone
Scope or Coverage, Limitation	a. Declare what the paper contains and does not contain b. Constraints of data collection
Discussion on the Problem	a. How the problem is perceived by others b. Expose the subject with arguments examples, illustrations c. Tone is descriptive
Data Analysis and Findings	a. Unfold evidence b. Uncover causes of the problem and Findings c. Analyse data to discover final truths
Recommendations	a. Record others' views on problem solution b. Categorise them under sub-titles c. Neutral tone
Conclusion	a. Sum up briefly b. The writer remarks, predicts, prescribes c. Answer the question "So what?" d. Tone may be opinionated or prescriptive e. Shake hands with the reader

III. Post-writing Phase

Titling: Title of a paper gives the first impression to the reader. An attractive title holds the attention of the reader who feels provoked or tempted to read the paper. Harry Crosby believes, there is a "high correlation between the quality of a written composition and its title". A good title is like a good name. The verse of Scripture says: "A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches. How excellent is thy name in all the earth." It is like a label on a bottle of juice.

A striking title repeats a significant phrase from within the theme that attracts the attention of the customer. In other words, an appropriate title suggests what is there in the paper. It helps to limit or narrow down the topic and set the objectives of the paper. Some writers select the title before and some after writing the paper.

A title should be short, clear, concrete and informative. It is generally built on a phrase, not a sentence. Use of verbs and adverbs should be avoided. According to Sam F. Trelease, a title "may average only about **ten words**." The important source of title is the controlling idea about the subject formed by the writer. Focus of the paper and relevance with the issue should be the basis of phrasing the title.

Here are some examples of expressive titles :

1. **Implementation of the Citizens' Charter in the Bangladesh Civil Service**
2. **In Quest of Safe Motherhood**
3. **Administrative Accountability and Transparency: Problems and Solutions**
4. **Dreadful Decay of Dhaka's Drainage System**
5. **Problems of Industrial Productivity: A Diagnosis**
6. **Continuing Literacy for the Underprivileged Children.**
7. **Fostering Quality Culture in the Civil Service**
8. **Combating Corruption through Reengineering BAC**

Revising and Editing : Even a diamond needs polishing before its true brilliance shines out. The same applies to paper writing. As Frank Snell puts it : "A few extra minutes spent on polishing your wording will pay off handsomely." Scope for continuous improvement always remains open. Famous writers spend reasonable time in revising and editing what they write. Bruce Bawer remarks: " real writers revise, revise and revise the first drafts of professionals often look like the work of the illiterate". "In my own case", says J.K. Galbraith, " there are days when the result is so bad that no fewer than five revisions are required". Revising helps the writer meet the gap between what he has written and what he has intended to write.

Revising and editing should not be done while writing because they may affect the spontaneous flow of writing; these are usually post-writing activities. The writer should try to identify the changes necessary to improve the paper. Revising takes care of the technical or substantive elements whereas editing takes care of the linguistic elements. While revising, the writer needs to imagine himself to be a **critic** and while editing to be a **stylist**. He needs "to take off the writer's cap and put on the reader's cap". Revision is the responsibility of the writer himself. This is hinted at by the famous English poet W.B. Yeats:

*" Whenever I **remake** a song,
Should know what issue is at stake:
It is myself that I **remake**".*

Yeats' words are echoed by R.L Stevenson: " When I say writing, O believe me, it is rewriting I have chiefly in mind."

Tasks involved in **revising** and **editing** are indicated in the next page.

Questions for Revising as a Critic

1. a) Does the paper fulfill the set objectives ? b) Are the information and ideas relevant to the objectives of the paper?
2. a) Does the preface or introduction explain what the paper aims at ? b) Is the introduction too long or too short ?
3. a) Are the information or data correct or accurate? b) Is there any repetition or overlap of ideas?
4. Does the discussion in the body of the paper truly describe the findings and conclusions supported by data, tables etc. ?
5. Do the recommendations match with the findings and conclusions ?
6. Do the parts or sections of the paper have interesting subtitles? Do they reflect the contents of the paper ?

Questions for Editing as a Stylist

1. a) Is the language clear, concise, concrete and readable? Is it repetitious and inflated?
- b) Are there any vague, woolly phrases, clichés, unnecessary jargons in the sentences?
- c) Do the adjectives used in the paper fit in ?
- d) Does the paper contain any linguistic mannerism?
2. a) Do the pages contain typographical errors b) Are there any spelling mistakes? c) Are the American and British spellings mixed ?
3. Are the sentences well-punctuated ?
4. Are the paragraphs coherent?
5. Are the references properly footnoted?

Pagination or Numbering of Pages: Each page of a seminar paper should be appropriately numbered.

a) The Executive Summary is not numbered; it is not included in pagination of the text.

b) Preliminary pages should be numbered with **Roman numerals (i, ii, iii, etc.)**. Preliminary pages include----

- Title page
- Preface including acknowledgement
- Table of Contents
- List of Tables
- List of Illustrations

c) Text of the paper, illustrations on the body, appendices and bibliography should be numbered with **Arabic numerals (1,2,3 etc.)**

How to Reference or Footnote : Every idea, information or concept that is borrowed from other sources needs to be referenced. Accurate referencing indicates the competence or professionalism of the paper-writer. In fact, a professional paper demands citation of the sources with complete accuracy. Sources of important facts, ideas, data, information need to be cited appropriately so that the reader may study further, if he or she is interested. Ideas which support or contradict your concepts also need citation. On the whole, footnoting is done to help the reader, to acknowledge sources and not to exhibit the writer's scholarship.

Three Spots of Citation

● **In the text of the paper** at the bottom of each page or **at the end of each chapter**. All footnotes should be numbered consecutively throughout the paper using small **Arabic numerals(1,2,3 etc.)**. For each page , there should not be separate numbering.

● **At the end of the paper.** If sources are footnoted at the end of the page, a separate sheet indicating "**Footnotes**" should be used. For one page, "**p**" and for more than one page "**pp**" is used. For example- p.36, pp 36-40. When a volume number is given, "p" or "pp" is not used. Volumes are numbered using **Roman numbers (e.g. Vol. IX)**

Difference between Bibliography and Footnoting

Preparing bibliography is listing all the authors' last name in alphabetical order; the work is cited at the end of the text. Footnotes are not alphabetized. Here the place and the date of the publication are **not** enclosed in parentheses. Parentheses are used for footnoting. The mark of parentheses is () and mark of bracket is []. Page numbers of works are not usually cited in bibliographies whereas page numbers are mentioned in footnotes.

Here are some examples of footnoting and writing bibliography :

1. For Books

Footnote

¹Kamal Siddiqui, "**Towards Good Governance in Bangladesh**"(Dhaka: University Press Limited, 1996). p.101

²Syed Naquib Muslim, "**The Art of Modern Administration**"(Dhaka: BIAM, 1997). p. 75.

Bibliography

1. Siddiqui, Kamal, "**Towards Good Governance in Bangladesh**", Dhaka, UPL, 1996.

2. Muslim, Syed Naquib, "**The Art of Modern Administration**", Dhaka: BIAM, 1997

2. For Periodicals /Articles

Footnote

Syed Naquib Muslim, "**Total Literacy Movement: The Case of Lalmonirhat**", Bangladesh Journal of Administration and Development, Vol.XX, (March, 1996). 180

Bibliography

Muslim, Syed Naquib, "**Total Literacy Movement: The Case of Lalmonirhat**" BJAD, Vol, XX, March, 1996, 179-90.

3. For Newspapers

Footnote

Shahidullah Khan, "**Corruption in Companies**", The Bangladesh Times, March 12, 1990, p.5 col.2

Bibliography

Khan, Shahidullah, "**Corruption in Companies**", The Bangladesh Times, March 12, p.5, col.2

4. For Public Documents

Footnote

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, **Book of Development Data**, 1998 (Dhaka: BANBEIS, 1997). p.3

Bibliography

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, **Book of Development Data**, 1998, Dhaka: BANBEIS, 1997.

Some Expressions Used

Ibid : When the citation of any title or author has to be repeated, write **Ibid** which is the shortened form of **ibidem** meaning "in the same place".

et al : If a work is written jointly by more than two authors, cite the first author and add the expression "**et al**" which literally means "and others".

How to use quotations: Views published by others may be cited either by direct quotation or by paraphrasing. Paraphrasing is putting other's statement into your own words. Any quotation having not more than **seven** lines should be put within quotation marks. Lengthy quotations containing more than seven lines should be inset and without quotation mark. Single quotation marks are used for a **quotation within a quotation**. For example:

Rector said, " We should pursue a policy of '**publish or perish**' at the Centre".

SAMPLE OF A SEMINAR PAPER**Problems of Post-training Utilisation in Public
Offices**

Syed Naquib Muslim

**Keynote paper presented at a seminar entitled "Problems in
the Utilization of Training in the Public Sector" held at
BPATC on June 03, 1997.**

I. Introduction

The efficiency of the public service is one of the major concerns of the government as well as the citizenry. Training is one of the important instruments to improve the effectiveness, efficiency and dynamism of the public sector officials. Any training activity is expected to produce perceptible positive results on the behaviour of the targeted clientele. In the context of public administration, the impact of training is best reflected in the performance of the public administrators trained. The impact of training is however related to the degree of use of imparted training. In other words, the positive impact of training depends on the proper use of training by the trained officials.

Today people are sceptical about the impact of public service training on the public service delivery system. Although adequate investment is being made in public service training, training is not properly used by public servants completing training courses and their efficiency is not improving as expected.

II . Objectives of the paper

The paper seeks to achieve the following objectives :

1 to identify the potential factors or forces that impede utilization or application of training by the trained public officials on the job; and

1 to suggest steps or measures so that the importance of training is truly perceived and training can be optimally used by trained officials on the job.

III. Methodology

This paper is not the result of any systematic study; it is based on the author's personal observations and

experience in working as a trainer for more than a decade and on discussions with as many as fifty experienced working trainers and officers who attended training courses at BPATC and BCS Administration Academy. The study was carried out in the style of an opinion survey. Available literature on training and training-related issues has also been consulted.

IV. Coverage

The paper is segmented into three parts -- the first part deals with the conditions indicating impact following non-utilization of transferred learning; and the second part with the measures proposed to overcome the constraints on the use of imparted training. The paper will not discuss issues related to private sector training.

V. Analysis and Discussions

Non-utilization of Training: Indicators and Impact

There are a plethora of indicators which show that training imparted by the public administration training institutions is not being used optimally and that training is creating little impact on the performance of public officials. Because of insignificant impact of training on the performance of public servants, training is now being considered a wasteful or an extravagant exercise.

The beneficiary of administrators holds that the majority of the administrators are still caught in the web of traditional mechanistic bureaucracy where informal elements are missing. The degree of administrative waste continues to increase; cases of corruption continue to multiply; the tendency of many officials to hold files for unholy intent has not subsided; the responsiveness of public servants to the core value of the public interest has improved very little. The letters and correspondences are

being written by public officials without conforming to the prescribed formats; the e-mails or fax messages received or transmitted bear enough marks of linguistic deficiencies.

The incidence of poverty has not diminished; and new technology is still viewed a problem rather than an opportunity. Newspaper reports testify that inter-cadre conflict, hostility and malice still permeate the climate of public offices. Parochial departmentalism is affecting smooth implementation of public policies. Coordination among field-level government agencies seems elusive. New recruits of the civil service are torn between conformity and creativity; they complain about the absence of positive attitude of their supervisors in nurturing the potential of juniors. Many of the senior officers feel threatened when their junior colleagues take initiative. Attitude more of buck-passing and less of risk-taking persists. Many civil servants working in the centre and in the periphery do not know how to cope with stressful situations and manage more work with less time.

Problems of Post-Training Utilisation

The problems of non-use of training can be categorised as problems in the delivery side and as problems in the receiving point. These are discussed below:

(1) **Hypothetical Training Content** : Most of the elements of the training content are not need-based and job-specific. Course-contents are based mostly on hypothesis, impression and intuition. Trainees joining a particular training course find training content hypothetical, impressionistic and intuitive. Subjects of training do not match with the training content. This is the initial shock they receive as soon as they join the training courses.

The training sessions are overly theoretical, bookish and therefore boring . There is no diversity in the application of available training methods. Eighty to ninety percent of the instructional sessions are lecture-based. Training is more input-oriented than process-oriented and therefore training sessions do not appear attractive to the officials attending a training course. It is natural that when trainee-officers do not accept or receive the messages of training they do not like to apply them on being back to their job.

(2) **Apathy towards Training:** Many government officials demonstrate apathy towards institutional training. Two dominant reasons for this apathy are ---job-skill mismatch and non-provision of reward to the trained officers. This apathy affects the growth of individual professionalism which in turn affects the quality of public service delivery ultimately leading to the diminution of the credibility of the public sector. Some officials show little interest in training because they find that a trained person and a non-trained person are often treated on an equal footing . Government officials tend to encapsulate their learning within the four walls of classrooms and do not bring it to their workplaces because they find that many are being rewarded with important placements or positions even if they have not attended the mandatory courses. A number of cases testify, some have been given the prestigious position of Deputy Commissioner, although they have not even seen the visage of BPATC, not to speak of attending any training course. Here, I recall the remark of an ex-deputy commissioner of Moulvi Bazar who subsequently attended ACAD programme at BPATC; he said, he would have performed much better as the administrative head of the district, had he been provided the opportunity of attending the course earlier. This implies that , an official who does not have any felt-need for training will not

receive training spontaneously and to have any commitment to use it either.

(3) **Absence of Training-friendly Environment:** Most of the trained officers commonly complain that they cannot use their training because the work environment is not training-friendly. The work environment is mostly rigid and change-resistant. Management support is virtually missing. Top management which nominates officials for training, does not take stock of what an employee has learnt after completing a training course. Supervisors tend to hinder rather than facilitate the use of the techniques and tools acquired by junior officers from a training course. In other words, trained officials cannot transfer their training to the workplaces as they face resistance from their supervisors, their peers and the untrained juniors. Resistance from peers is comparatively minimal.

The degree of the use of training by junior officers is linked to the degree of interest or commitment shown by supervising officers. Senior officials holding supervisory positions show little interest in training or staff development activity because there is no mechanism to hold them accountable on this matter. In fact, government officers have no systematic staff development programmes like private sector organizations. Thus training makes little appeal to the public sector employees. In most cases, junior officers who return to their desks completing training courses are treated with indifference or even with ridicule by their supervisors. The attitude of non-cooperation of senior officers creates a sense of demotivation in juniors who find it meaningless to apply on the job what they learn in training courses. In the words of Prof. Anisuzzaman again " the crucial test of post-training utilization of human resources depends upon the supervising officers who oversee the junior officers . How

many of us who happen to supervise our junior officers or midlevel officers care to study the evaluation reports of trainees immediately after their return to workplaces”?

(4) **Training-Job Mismatch:** Optimal use of training depends largely on the provision of post-training facilities to the trained officers. If an officer trained in a specific field is placed in a different or an alien field, he has no scope to transfer his knowledge and skill. He ultimately gets demotivated and grows apathy towards further training. In many cases, facilities to enable trained officers to use training are either absent or minimal. An officer who received computer training from Germany years back reported that he was given a desk not matched with the skill he acquired through foreign training and ultimately he forgot what he had learnt. This is a typical scenario in the government offices, of course, with exceptions.

(5) **Trainer-centredness rather than Trainee-centredness:** Training courses are mostly trainer-centred than trainee-centred. While designing a training course, those subjects are incorporated into training modules which they have learnt by attending a foreign training course recently. In this context, the training needs of the clientele are hardly counted. Training needs of the individual or of the group are not assessed systematically, keeping in view core administrative value of efficiency.

(6) **Training-Career Delinkage:** One of the important reasons for which public sector officials do not feel interested in or attracted to training is that there is little linkage between training and career. After completing a specific training course, officers find little prospects of professional enrichment and career development or promotion. In many cases, officers are promoted to higher

positions without considering whether they have accomplished mandatory training courses or not .

(7) **Non-Trainability of Trainees:** There are employees in the government offices who are neither trainable nor tradable. This is a problem in the receiving end. Many employees have little or no ability to receive what is delivered in a training course. The degree of trainability of the employees is widely disuniform because their intellectual level and professional competence are also disuniform . This has occurred because of the inconsistent recruitment procedures practised in the past. When employees are not trainable, they can neither receive nor use training .

(8) **Competency Gap in the Faculty:** Lack of competent trainers in the public sector training institutes is almost endemic. The competency of the faculty is important because the quality of training and credibility of training institutions depend significantly on it. Private sector training institutes enjoy a comparative advantage because these are mostly staffed by professionalised trainers having a high sense of accountability for their responsibility . Their training courses are more practice-oriented, need-based and job-specific. In the public sector training institutes, about fifty percent trainers are drawn from the Civil Service. Officials are deputed to work in the training institutes for a certain period of time. In some cases, demotivated and non-trained officers who cannot be utilised elsewhere are "dumped" into training centres to let them languish in silence. This situation certainly affects the quality of training because it is the trainers who ultimately run the show. The trainees attend a training course with the normal expectation that they will learn such materials which will enrich them professionally and they will be able to interact with the role models during

their stay in the training institutes and in the process be benefitted. This rarely happens. Thus when the quality of training is affected, the utilization and impact of training naturally become precarious.

(9) **Inappropriate Nominatinon:** In the public sector, training is used more as an administrative ritual than as an economic investment. "Rituals" normally receive low priority. Wrong persons are often nominated to attend a specific training course. As Prof. Anisuz Zaman remarks, "We generally send to training those who need it the least. Perhaps it can be reversed by sending those who need it the most". There are proofs that the same persons have been nominated repetitively to attend different training courses without taking care of the professional needs of incumbents. Nomination for both local and foreign training is often based more on personal favour and patronage than on need or merit. Training institutes are often fed with sparables. Often unwilling and demotivated persons are nominated for training. As T A A Latif observes: "training has been like a tax levied on the willing and the unwilling alike".

VI. Recommendations

Based on the above observations, the following measures are recommended to facilitate optimal use of training in the public offices:

i) **Design of Need-based and Results-oriented Training:** Training should not only be need-based and job-specific but it should also be results-oriented. The more training is made need-based, the less likely it is to lapse into a wasteful exercise. The results of training must be visible, if training is to be made credible. There should be a happy combination of theory and practice in the training modules. Subjects of training modules need to be market-

responsive, job-specific, need-based and results-oriented. While designing training courses, professional realities have to be taken into account. Thus modules of existing training courses have to be fine-tuned to make them mundane and need-based. Modules need to be rationalised by excluding the irrelevant topics and incorporating job-related subjects. The course-contents need to include only those subjects which are of professional interest, value and relevance to trainees. The modules of training courses should be designed in a careful way so that these help in updating knowledge and skill of the administrator to enable him to meet the needs or challenges of the present-day government with its complex functions. Contents should not be chosen basing on personal choice or bias and individual competence or convenience of faculty members.

ii) **Device and Use of Proper Training Methods:** In a training course methods are as important as contents. A well-designed course-contents may not produce positive results unless appropriate methods of training are employed. In fact, careful selection of appropriate methods is crucial to effective delivery of training.

Both in the junior and senior level courses, there is heavy reliance on traditional classroom lecture method. The efficacy of lecture method particularly in the senior courses is seriously questioned by the participating officers.

A trained official tends to use training if it is useful. If we want to make our training attractive and useful, we need to bring some changes in our instructional approaches. Instructional methods like case studies, simulation and role play should be widely practised. Case studies will allow the participants of training courses opportunities for systematic thinking for problem-solving. Other unobtrusive methods like "practicum",

"syndicate", "case-method" should be used in a balanced way to reduce predominance of the traditional lecture method.

III) **Top Management's Commitment:** Utilisation of training depends significantly on the intensity of interest and involvement demonstrated by the first-line supervisors of the trained officials who work under them. We have to produce a new breed of super-visors who will act as role models, mentors and who will encourage their trained juniors to use their learning. BPATC can organise or offer a regular course designed particularly for supervisors of government offices with a thrust on OJT and TOT orientation.

IV) **Integration on IT with OJT:** Institutional training (IT) and on-the- job training (OJT) need to be well-coordinated. IT provided by BPATC and departmental training institutes must be followed by OJT at the respective workplaces and be carried out in a systematic and planned fashion. The responsibility of supervising and monitoring and the use of institutional training should be formally vested with the heads of offices or supervisors. Mid and senior level officers holding supervisory positions should be imparted intensive supervisory training and OJT orientation. The training courses should include modules that will help in building a positive, healthy and supportive attitude and instructional competence in supervisors.

V) **Regular Holding of Refresher Course:** Although cost and time are involved, refresher courses need to be organised at regular intervals. This will not only create scope for the trained officials to renew or update their learning but will help the course organisers appraise the utility of imparted training and assess new training needs emerging from new contexts or problems on the job.

VI) **Culture of Learning:** Use of training should be practised as an element of institutional work culture. Any officer completing a training course must make a presentation after his return to his organization at a seminar to share with his colleagues the knowledge and skills he has acquired. This should be practised as a rule or at least as a norm and should be maintained regularly. As Zaman puts it, " the superior officers have a role to play in creating an environment conducive to training as a way of life in the organisation. Only in such an environment can the personnel actualise themselves by exposing themselves to ever-learning situations at every step".

VII) **Training Performance as a Criterion:** Use of training relies heavily on the importance attached to training. Training will gain due importance when seniority of service is to be determined by the quality of performance or training results of the participants along with other criteria. Training performance as one of the criteria of seniority should be incorporated in the evaluation system of the Foundation Training Course. In the case of ACAD and SSC, successful completion of the courses by the concerned officials should be made one of pre-conditions to their promotion to the next higher position. The grades of training performance obtained by the officers should be recorded in the dossiers not just for preservation but these should be counted when lucrative assignment or /and promotion is to be considered. The evaluation reports/pen-pictures of local training completed by BPATC and other relevant training institutes should be given due weightage by the concerned ministries/departments for posting, promotion and for foreign training nomination.

VII. Conclusion

In our quest for administrative excellence and efficiency, training is an unavoidable necessity. Training should not be treated as a luxury or as a ritual as it is often done.

Every training activity is expected to produce positive results on the performance. If no change or result is visible, training may be considered a futility and trainees and nominating agencies will not utilise the training imparted. Training must improve the level or degree of performance. Performance must be directed towards achieving results. Revising or reforming objective, content and methodology of training is an absolute requirement to make training results-oriented. In other words, we have to work for redesigning our training content and methods to deliver training appropriately. We need to work hard with all the commitment to improve the quality of our training. Let us treat training as an investment and then reap benefits out of it.

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3. Muslim, Syed Naquib **"Improving Civil Service Training : A Plea for Vision and Action,"** The Weekend Independent, February 21, 1997,p 12-14.
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Chapter-3

Techniques of Writing a Book Review

"Everyone has the right to be wrong in his opinion, but no one has the right to be wrong in his facts".

—Bernard Baruch

Reviewing a book is now one of the critical writing assignments required of learners or trainees in many training centres. What then is a book review? Book review is the dispassionate assessment of the quality/ merit, significance, style and subject-matter of a book. A book cannot be reviewed mechanically by applying any set procedures because the category and content of the book vary.

Reviewing a book may become an art in itself if the reviewer devotes himself to the cultivation of its particular excellence. It is not a vehicle or channel of demonstrating one's own talent by producing something new or unique. It is neither an independent essay on the subject of the book in hand nor a literary discourse on a piece of writing. The review is about the book itself and the reviewer's purpose is not to impress the reader but to inform him about it. Colton's admonition: "That writer does the most who gives the reader **most** information and takes from him the **least** time" is fully true of a book reviewer.

I. Here are some guidelines for reviewing a book:

1. WHAT and HOW Aspects of the Book: The reviewer must read meticulously the book to be reviewed. He should never form judgement basing simply on assumption. He should read carefully **what** the author presents and **how** he presents. Thoreau's advice "*books must be read as deliberately and reservedly as they were written*" is especially true of a book reviewer. The core components of a review are --- **WHAT** (content) and **HOW** (style).

2. Prepare an Outline or Write Notes: A book review is "half fact and half fancy". The facts are based on the contents of the book and the fancy is based on the reviewer's reactions and feelings after reading the book. While you read the book for review, always keep a piece of paper and a pencil beside you. Scribble whatever you feel and whatever opinions you form about the **content** and the **style** as you proceed reading each chapter. These will work as raw materials for your finished product -- the review itself. The best moment is the moment when you finish reading the last page and as you finish record your immediate reactions because these are fresh and genuine. This is necessary because if you defer or procrastinate it would be difficult for you to recapture your feelings or impressions later.

3. Purpose of the Book: The reviewer needs to figure out the purpose of writing the book and to measure how much success the writer has achieved in meeting the purpose. If the writer does not achieve the purpose, the reviewer needs to point out the possible inadequacies or reasons for his failure. Purpose of the book is generally declared by the author in the **preface**. The reviewer therefore should not ignore the preface.

4. Category of the Book: The reviewer must ask and answer three questions --(i) *What kind of book is it ?* Until the reviewer can figure out what kind of book he is reviewing, he does not know what to search for. (ii) *What are the characteristics of a successful book of that kind ?* (iii) *How many of those characteristics do this book possess ?*

5. Chapter-wise Discussion and Analysis: The reviewer should discuss each chapter in a synoptic way. Here his purpose is to help the reader in getting hold of the

content of the book. In book review there is little room for detailed description of facts and the ideas; each paragraph should be brief, smart and compact.

6. Importance of the Book: The reviewer must evaluate the significance of the book and suggest whether it will be of any use to the readers.

The last point to discuss in a review is **readability**. Some books are rich in content but poor in style, whereas some are poor in content but rich in style. The reviewer may explain the readability of the book by his own comment or by a select quotation.

7. Maintain Impersonality: A book reviewer must practise what T.S Eliot calls "artistic detachment." Artistic detachment is maintaining impersonality while reviewing the book. The reviewer must keep himself detached from the author as well as the content he is discussing ; he will behave like an impersonal onlooker and then comment on the strengths and weaknesses of the book under review. While analysing the content, he will be **disinterested** in the author's own views but not **uninterested** in the ideas, information i.e. the subject the book deals with. In other words, the reviewer will try to understand the author but must not involve himself in his character and philosophy. If he concentrates more on the personal elements, then he will get little time to devote to the content of the book he is reviewing.

8. Language of the Critic : Writing a critical review is difficult because the reviewer has not only to read the book meticulously but also clarify its contents in a condensed way for the benefit of the reader. In clarifying the substance and in estimating the quality of each component of the book or the chapter, the writer has to use the kind of language that the reader can quickly

understand. Artificial use of jargons, epithets, metaphors, phrases will make the review cloudy. The best reviewers are those who use the natural, plain words and who focus more on facts more than on feelings. Whitman who is famous for his simplicity remarks : "Nothing is better than simplicity . nothing can make up for lack of definiteness ".

The simple language will help the reader grasp easily the contents of the book . Thus the reviewer who genuinely seeks to communicate with his reader should resist the temptation of embellishing his sentences and paragraphs with unnecessary jargons or ornamental terminology.

II. Structure of the Write-up

A review may be based on the following points :

- a) The **opening paragraph** introduces broadly the subject on which the book under review is written.
- b) **Second paragraph** may provide the reader an idea of the type, the scope of the book and about who the book is meant for.
- c) Three or four paragraphs may be devoted to summarising the chapter-wise contents of the book.--- the purpose and the writer's attitude to the subject as reflected in the book-- may be mentioned.
- d) One or two paragraphs may be written on the strengths of the book and one or two paragraphs on the weaknesses.
- e) In the concluding paragraph, the writer can offer his recommendations.

III. Potential Weaknesses in Writing a Review

The following problems often creep in while the reviewer begins writing the review. If we can guard against these weaknesses, we can produce a balanced book review to the benefit of the author as well as the reader.

1. **Failure to sum up** : A reviewer, if he or she is not careful, may take an unusually disproportionate space to sum up the content of each chapter. Each description in the review may be imbalanced because of the carelessness.

2. **Undue interest in specific parts** : A reviewer may become unduly interested in specific parts of the book and therefore may concentrate fully on those parts only; other significant parts may be left unaddressed. Consequently the reader gets a partial picture of the book and may suspect that the reviewer is biased towards a specific subject.

3. **Overwhelming personal biases** : Reviewer may feel tempted to express his own beliefs or biases on the plea of illustrating the strengths and weaknesses of the book. Reviewer's personal views often become more important than the very content of the book.

4. **Vagueness in descriptions** : The descriptions in each paragraph are often vague and broad; and therefore , the reader finds it difficult to grasp clearly ideas, concepts, information the author intends to transmit.

In the following pages, a sample of a book review is presented for the benefit of the reader.

Sample of a Book Review

"Towards a Good Governance in Bangladesh"

-Kamal Siddiqui

University Press Limited, 1996,

Price Tk. 225/-, pp.179

Reviewed by Syed Naquib Muslim

Concepts and theories of development vary from country to country depending on the socio-cultural and politico-economic peculiarities prevailing there. The same is perhaps true of good governance. Concept of good governance is contextual; what is true about good governance in the US may not be true in Bangladesh although many of the postulates hold equally valid for all countries irrespective of culture and creed. Because the people are different, culture is different, and the problems are unique, the system of running the affairs of the state will naturally be different.

The book ***Towards a Good Governance in Bangladesh*** by Kamal Siddiqui which mostly addresses the practical dimensions of governance in Bangladesh provides a functional definition of good governance. Although it may sound a bit non-conventional, the discussion may be initiated with the very definition of good governance given by the author himself in the concluding chapter of the book. In the words of Siddiqui, good governance is "a set of strategic, political and administrative arrangements required to facilitate the realization of certain desirable economic and social goals". The author's definition foreshadows the subject he has covered in the book.

The book is an amalgam of fifty "unpleasant" essays which have sprung out of the author's "own experience

and are motivated by a sincere desire for reform". The book unveils the identity of the writer who wrote the articles in the form of serials for the leading English daily "The Daily Star" under the penname "Analyst". Numerous readers including myself used to count moments for the articles by "Analyst", which dwelt mostly on the prevailing administrative culture and social idiosyncrasies in Bangladesh. One of the strengths of the writer is that being a bureaucrat himself, he tried his best to maintain what TS Eliot calls "artistic detachment"; in other words, he gave treatment of the subject without any bureaucratic or political bias.

The book consists of five interrelated chapters, although the interconnectedness of the chapters may not be quickly perceived by the common reader. The first chapter provides a brief account of the government and politics of Bangladesh. The author tersely recounts the political and constitutional development occurring during the period from 1971 to 1991. Both the local and foreign readers will be able to get familiarised with the administrative and political practices and with the events or forces that sparked a successful democratic transition in the country.

In chapter II, the author attempts to expose diverse day-to-day problems of administration in comprehensive details. Possessed of the mindset of a reformist, Siddiqui's concern for achieving optimal administrative efficiency is truly reflected in his pragmatic suggestions he has offered on the speedy disposal of files. This part discusses interesting subjects like the senior-junior relations, factionalism in bureaucracy, meeting culture in government offices, dress code, obsolescent purchase procedures, record management and use or misuse of government transports. The critical part of the chapter is

the discussion on the colonial interpersonal behaviour of the senior with the junior. Citing a situation the author comments -- the boss "will sometimes find it inconvenient even to talk to his subordinate over the intercom or telephone. On the other hand, the same person working in an international organisation would perhaps gladly carry official files and papers to his subordinates, because there no one even the janitor would put up with his lordly behaviour". Truths of this kind are sprinkled over the pages of the book.

In chapter III, Siddiqui has dwelt upon various mundane administrative issues like downsizing the government, training, posting, transfers, performance appraisal system, introduction of civil service awards. Here the author suggests some practical measures to streamline the system of local and foreign training and revise the worn-out Government Servants' Code of Conduct and Discipline in view of the changed situation in the country. Suggestions for updating or revising the Conduct Rules seem pragmatic. In the words of the author -- "We should have as few provisions as possible in the Conduct and Discipline Rules but ensure their fullest implementation across the board".

An efficient public service is one of the requisites of good governance. Training is one of the most effective tools for promoting efficiency of public servants. The author's bias towards and commitment to training are reflected in the exclusive discussion on training in this chapter. Suggested measures to streamline training include strengthening of institutes, provisions of adequate incentives, continuous training of trainers, fixing accountability for non-utilization of training and discontinuance of the cult of "ad hocism". Because training institutes are the engines of administrative or managerial

efficiency, deviant or delinquent civil servants who deserve penalty should not be deputed to the training institutes to act as trainers. As the author remarks, "A government servant on punishment posting is like a poisonous weed which destroys all other plants in the gardens".

Chapter IV, the biggest part of the book, deals with a wide range of issues beginning from the prospects of installing the Ombudsman's office up to that of institutionalising the Thana Administration which, we all know, became the guineapig of continuous experimentations in Bangladesh. The author deserves appreciation for taking an unpretentious stand on the urgency of setting up of the office of the Ombudsman in Bangladesh. As he argues, "I am not suggesting that bloodshed is required before we can have an Ombudsman in Bangladesh but no doubt a lot of organised, shouting, lobbying and campaigning is called for".

Chapter V concludes with the personal views of the author on the solutions to the problems hindering the institutionalisation of the local government institutions and the introduction of good governance itself. The author's impersonality is best reflected in the discussion on the Upazilla system. One of the reasons for which the process of institution-building was continually thwarted is that policy-makers hardly practised the principle of continuance and "the art of the possible". The chapter hints at the subjects of the second volume of the book which could not be covered in the present volume.

The book is indigenous in letter and spirit. It is a bold exposition of the realities of the Bangladesh administration. It faithfully chronicles almost all the episodes that led to the installation of a democratic government in the country. Paragraphs on the "gate-fee"

culture of the secretariat, activities of the "Shingara Committee" and dilatoriness or unholy intent of "Mr. Delay" written with a flavour of incisive wit and juicy humour offer the reader informative and interesting reading. It exposes many unpleasant truths not articulated by any active civil servant so far; it contains the author's vision of building Bangladesh into a developed nation through devising "a set of bold and innovative political and administrative measures aimed at a lean but more effective government".

The author has not perhaps intended to bore the reader with unnecessary theoretical extravaganza which often submerge the truths or realities that are written more on the field than on the pages of a book. I presume, a few readers may expect the author to incorporate a chapter, preferably at the initial part, on the theories and concepts of good governance for them to have a primary conceptual handle on the subject.

Language of the book bears enough marks of modernity and maturity. The English-knowing readers will not only chance to reconceptualise what is good governance functionally in the context of Bangladesh, they will also derive undiluted intellectual pleasure while reading the pages. Sentences of many of the paragraphs taste like pickles for the reader reading a serious subject.

In a few sentences, use of contraction like "does n't" except for dialogues may be avoided. At page 116, the word "instruction" should be used in the plural form to mean orders or guidelines. Mix of the British and American spellings may be avoided in future editions.

Apparently the title of the book seems showy and looks like a mere collection of essays loosely juxtaposed. But if one keeps in mind the parameters of good governance,

the subjects discussed in five chapters of the book seem thematically pertinent and conceptually coherent. The author like a consummate artist has dovetailed the serials into a handy book and for this initiative, the readers who have so long preserved the loose paper-clippings will certainly feel tempted to buy a copy of the book and to dispense with the clippings which must have turned grey with the passage of time.

The book has set the stage for further intellectual exercises and enlightened debate on the subject of good governance in Bangladesh. Sensitive students of public administration or political science and others engaged in administrative research or reforms will benefit substantially from this book.

Chapter-4

How to Prepare a Syndicate Report

"People working together can do almost anything."

- James L. Hayes

Syndicate method is widely used in administrative and management development training courses conducted by both civil and military training academies. If a trainee administrator is conceptually clear about the techniques of practising this method, it will be convenient and useful for them to show better performance. Because of its intrinsic merits, syndicate exercise enriches the conceptual base, enhances the thinking power, and facilitates sharing of ideas and experiences of participants. These also help in developing skills of team work and in building a democratic attitude in officers. Moreover, in a syndicate work each member operates as a resource person and one trains the other through free exchange of knowledge and intimate interaction.

1. Conceptual Dimensions of Syndicate Work

The word "syndicate" originates from the Greek root **syn** which means **together** and the English root **indicate**, which means to **suggest**. Thus a syndicate in a learning situation is a group of qualified individuals who get together to pool ideas through discussion aimed at solving a specific problem or drawing a conclusion. Generally, individuals forming a syndicate have backgrounds of knowledge (or wisdom) and experiences that enable them to contribute to the discussion and derive benefits out of it.

The syndicate method is a kind of practical **teamwork**. Teams are composed of members of equal or almost equal intellectual status or capability. The members of a team

meet in a specific place to discuss a specific problem or an issue for a specific period of time. The objectives of a syndicate work are--

- to share ideas and experiences of the team-members for solving a specific problem; and
- to learn from one another how to function as a team-member so that the learnt skills can be transferred to real life situation.

2. Syndicate Structure: Requirements and Reponsibilities

a) The size of a syndicate generally ranges from 6 to 12 members.

b) Syndicate members nominate a **Chairperson** and a **Secretary**. The nomination is competence -based . The chairperson leads the teamwork; he presides over each discussion and is accountable for the success or failure of the assigned job.

The success of a syndicate depends on proper planning. Selection of a chairperson and secretary, goal clarification and clear allocation of responsibilities are the basic elements of the planning activity. Unless properly planned and organised , a syndicate discussion may degenerate into " a conversational boat-ride on uncharted seas to an unknown port".

Roles of Chairperson and Secretary: A syndicate survives and thrives on the leadership style of the chairperson. The chairperson can lead the group successfully if he relinquishes his "psychological bigness" and puts himself in the role of a highly interactive and communicative coordinator or a **facilitator**, not of an imposing autocrat.

The secretary assists the chairperson and records the outcome of each day's syndicate work. The important points or ideas suggested by the syndicate members are

recorded by him in such a way that these can be used to prepare a **syndicate report** which is the 'end-product' of the entire exercise.

The chairperson's leadership, the secretary's vigilance and active participation of the team members in discussions are instrumental to achieving syndicate goals.

c) A normal training session is devoted to each day's syndicate work. Report preparation begins when discussion sessions are completed.

3. **Syndicate Process**

The syndicate method is based on free communication, spontaneous participation, and intimate interaction among team members. It operates ideally in a climate of openness and freedom. Open and regular communication by sharing knowledge and ideas on the given subject or issue is the heart of syndicate work. The syndicate members brainstorm to generate ideas and to bring out facts that contribute to the solution of a problem.

Brainstorming, first conceived by Alex. F. Osborn, is a method of pooling ideas, information and facts by a team of qualified individuals through a process of free thinking. Free-thinking and open communication are requisites of effective brainstorming exercises. Avoiding negative criticism against the members is a basic norm of this activity. In a brainstorming exercise, one idea of an individual stimulates that of the other and as a result creative resources can be drawn. Brainstorming not only creates opportunity to generate original ideas but also teaches the participating members how to develop an attitude of tolerance for the ideas of others.

4. **Subject of Syndicate Work**

Participants or syndicate members need to concentrate on the topic or subject assigned for syndicate

work and to brain-storm for bringing out the related issues centring on the designated syndicate topic. Themes or sub-themes may be explored by them while writing a syndicate report. Sub-themes should be related to the focal theme.

5. Component of a Syndicate Report

Generally a panel of resource persons is designated to guide the syndicates in carrying out their tasks. If the syndicates face any conceptual ambiguity about the syndicate topic, they seek advice or guidance of the assigned resource persons. Like a seminar paper, a syndicate report generally contains four main sections which are discussed below:

a) **Introduction:** This part tells the reader what the syndicate report is all about and gives important background information and / or the significance of the syndicate topic.

b) **Objective :** This section spells out the purpose of the paper. It addresses the question. "Why is the report being written?" The purpose should be expressed in specific and concrete words as far as possible.

c) **Methodology:** Syndicate members collect ideas, information and data mainly through discussion. Books, journals, newspapers etc. are consulted to supplement information needed to enlarge the conceptual base and to write the report. Thus the sources of data may be both primary and secondary.

d) **Discussion (or Body):** This section is the main part of the paper. It presents the outcome of the discussion, facts and findings and their interrelationships. It may also discuss the arguments for and against any statements emerged during the discussion.

e) **Recommendations and Conclusion:** This part sums up the main ideas and states the implications of the findings or indicates a direction for further discussion or study. Because a syndicate report discusses a specific issue or problem, it contains a set of recommendations to solve the problem. The recommendations must match with the findings as recorded in the body of the paper. A host of recommendations with no relevance with the facts discussed in the syndicate will simply look like a loose grocery list with little prospects of implementation. Therefore, a plan of action for implementing the suggested measures will be welcome.

The syndicate method simulates real life situations. It is a tool of unobtrusive training that prepares the trainee-administrator to assume responsibilities which they are to undertake on the job once their training is complete. The syndicate exercises should, therefore, be taken by the participants with all seriousness and commitment.

SAMPLE OF A HYPOTHETICAL SYNDICATE REPORT**SYNDICATE REPORT**

Topic Title: **PROMOTION OF ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE
BANGLADESH CIVIL SERVICE**

Submitted by:

Syndicate '**APPLE**'

(Section-A)

Syndicate members:

1. Md. Mesbahul Alam (102)
2. Dulal Kanti Barua (106)
3. Fahmida Kader (109)
4. Md. Shah Alam (111)
5. Md. Jabid Hossain (113)
6. Khandoker Ahsan Hossain (117)
7. Md. Mahbub Kabir (118)
8. Khaza Abdul Hannan (123)
9. Tarun Kanti Sikder (129)
10. Md. Amin (140)

Chairperson: Gaziuddin Mohammad Munir (104)

Secretary: A.H.M Ahsan (127)

Assigned Syndicate Facilitator: Kanka Jamil,

Deputy Director, BPATC.

I. Introduction

One of the avowed policies of the government of all developing countries is to sponsor economic development tempered by social justice. This political intent requires civil servants to achieve efficiency in performing the responsibility of implementing the policies of social and economic development. To achieve this efficiency public servants or bureaucrats must be held accountable to higher political authority, to clientele group and indirectly to people. Here the question of accountability arises.

Accountability is the obligation to give answer and explanation concerning one's actions and performance to those individuals and institutions with right to require such answers and explanation. This definition has three dimensions --- legal , moral and ethical. And by public accountability we mean bureaucratic responsibility. The public service which entrusts civil servants with the public resources and the authority to utilise them to achieve the set goals; they have responsibility to be fully accountable for its activities. Hence, in a democratic society, government must be accountable to the people directly or indirectly for its activities.

II. Objectives of the Report

The report aims to achieve the following two objectives:

i) to record the perceptions, observations of syndicate members on the conceptual dimensions of administrative accountability and their views on the problems in the practice of administrative accountability; and

ii) to suggest measures that need to be taken to promote accountability in the Bangladesh Civil Service.

III. Methodology

Twelve members of the syndicate were engaged in free and open discussion on the assigned topic at two full-length consecutive sessions scheduled by the course management. Questioning and brainstorming techniques were used to generate ideas and elicit views on the barriers to the practice of accountability and on the strategies that may be adopted to promote administrative accountability in the public offices. The syndicate chairperson asked questions to each member of the syndicate by turns. The responses were analytically discussed and the ideas or views agreed upon on consensus were recorded by the secretary to produce the present report.

A few articles and books have also been consulted to get a theoretical handle on the concept of accountability.

IV. Conceptual Clarification of Administrative Accountability

There are two types of accountability -----

Internal : Public officials are accountable to those who supervise and control them.

External: Answerability for action to other relevant and concerned persons outside organisation. i.e. public officials are accountable to the people.

Three levels of accountability are---

- Fiscal Accountability: Proper use of money or resources according to government rules and regulations i.e. fiscal integrity of public servants.
- Managerial Accountability: Efficient use of workforce and others physical resources.
- Programme Accountability: Selection of the best programme and impact assessment of the programme.

Importance of Accountability

Now-a-days the question of political and administrative accountability is widely discussed in various fora. The government of Bangladesh which is facing economic, political and social problems has realised that accountability in the public administration must be restored at least for following reasons.

a) People provide its resources to carry out government plans and programmes. Again resources in our country are scarce. So, public officials (bureaucrats) must be accountable to people's representatives (politicians) who in turn must be accountable to the people for efficient use of resources. Thus to achieve the desired goals of development accountability is a must.

b) Confidence of the public in civil servants is declining; people are frustrated. So to free the people from frustration and to restore their confidence in civil servants more emphasis should be given to accountability.

c) Transformation from traditional administration to development administration is the goal of most development countries. Prevalence of accountability in the administration is the pre-condition for such transformation.

d) People of our country are more conscious than they were twenty years ago. They want to know how much of the tax paid by them is spent for their welfare.

e) There is increase in illegal activities of civil servants. Corruption, waste of government property and resources, faulty planning arise from absence of accountability. So to check these illegal activities we should give more emphasis to accountability.

f) To institutionalise democracy more emphasis should be given to accountability. If there is no accountability in the public administration the consequence would be-

- i) The quantity and quality of work will be affected.
- ii) The gap between people and administration will be widened.
- iii) Politicization of the administration
- iv) Increase in corruption, nepotism, favouratism, arbitrariness etc.
- v) People will lose their confidence towards civil servants as well as political leaders.

If immediate steps are not taken by the government to check maladministration and to restore accountability, the whole bureaucratic system may cease to be effective.

Democracy and Accountability

There is a close link between democracy and accountability. In a word, democracy is a pre-condition to installing an accountable administration. In a democratic society people are more conscious about their rights and obligations and a system prevails how the accountability can be practised. In our country Secretary of a Ministry is accountable to the Minister and Minister is accountable to the parliament and parliament is accountable to the people through the members of the Jatiya Sangshad.

To achieve total governmental efficiency administrative accountability is not enough. Along with this we have to increase political accountability. This implies that politicians (e.g, M.Ps) must be held accountable to the people. To increase political accountability, people must be more conscious through proper education.

V. Barriers to Achieving Accountability

The main roadblocks to the promotion of accountability in civil service of Bangladesh are -

- a) Traditional bureaucratic system ;
- b) People are less aware of their rights and obligations;
- c) Lack of transparency in bureaucracy;

- d) Absence of democratic values among people as well as civil servants;
- e) Absence of culture of accountability;
- f) Inefficient political and administrative leaders;
- g) Undue political pressure on administrative function/decision;
- h) Absence of unity or chain of command in bureaucracy;
- i) Poor auditing system.

VI. Steps to Promote Accountability

From our discussion it is clear that accountability in bureaucracy must be restored. So the following strategies can be taken to promote civil service accountability in Bangladesh:

i) Rules and laws by which the government officials are guided do not suit the needs of the present-day administration.

ii) Accountability is a matter of attitude or value; it is a psychic process. So due weightage should be given to developing attitude.

iii) All government servants must practise frugality in using public money and resources;

iv) Sometimes it is argued that government servants are inadequately paid; the meagre salary is not enough to lead a decent life. So they tend to be corrupt. If adequate emoluments are given to them, they are likely to be honest and accountable.

v) There is a provision to appoint an Ombudsman under article 77 of the constitution of Bangladesh. His function is to make inquiry into administrative malpractices on the basis of specific complaint and take necessary action. Hence, if a real accountable person is appointed Ombudsman, it would certainly help to promote accountability.

vi) Mass media can play the role of a watchdog in preventing malpractices and by developing conscio-usness of the masses.

vii) Appropriate policy and plan must be taken to make people educated. The method of education may be formal or non-formal.

viii) Public management is a skill oriented activity. So professionalism is needed and for professionalism training is indispensable. Training of the public managers makes them aware about two things; (a) obligations and responsibilities, (b) consequences for the lapses and failures. Future training curricula should incorporate following items :..

- a) Social sciences with special reference to Bangladesh;
- b) Behavioural science and management -techniques;
- c) Modules regarding ethical values;
- d) Case-study of some countries (e.g. the Philippines, South Korea, Sri Lanka) which are successful in promoting accountability in civil service;
- e) Training curricula should be designed in such a way that participants can get a clear idea about their rights, obligations and responsibilities;
- f) Exclusive sessions on accountability and transparency and leadership development should be earmarked.

Training programmes for civil servants may improve their accountability. Side by side accountability of the political leader may also be promoted by providing training for them. Hence , we can formulate a plan and policy to train members of the parliament. Training for political leaders at the grass-roots level (e.g. Union Parishad Chairman and Members) can be arranged. On the other hand, political party may arrange training programme for their leader at the local level. Finally, it

can be said that, to promote accountability, civil servants should have -

- a) Commitment to master the knowledge and skills required to perform his duties;
- b) Commitment to implement policies and programmes formulated by public representatives;
- c) Commitment to act impartially and to treat all citizens irrespective of caste, creed or sex is essential.

No strategy will be successful in promoting accountability unless all the civil servants develop a sense of economy and accountability and install a quality culture in respective workplaces.

List of Books and Articles Consulted:

- 1. Day, Patricia & Klen Rudlof, "**Accountabilities: Five Public Services**", London, Tavistock, 1987.
- 2. Muslim, Syed Naquib, "**Promotion of Administrative Accountability**", The Independent, September 14, 1996. p.5.

Chapter-5

When to Write Figures and When to Use Words in a Research Report

"Even the best needle is not sharp at both ends".

-F.G. French

Professionals or researchers cannot write **words** and **numbers** capriciously or indiscriminately in their administrative or research reports. Grammarians and research experts have evolved certain common rules of using **numbers** and of using **words** for beauty, convenience and compatibility. We as professionals and researchers are expected to practise and maintain those principles:

1. a) In general writing, write **in words** numbers of two words or less. This means that **one hundred** is written in words , but **101** is stated in figures.
- b) In technical writing, numbers below ten (i.e. nine and below) are written **in words** ; numbers 10 and over are stated **in figures**.
- i) *In the interview only **nine** participants responded to the questions*
- ii) *As many as **36** participants attended the Communication Course*

2. When you write a series of numbers, do not mix up figures and words. The larger figure will determine the form to be used.

*Only **five** guests and **five** officers were present*

But

*It took us **6 months** and **29 days** to complete the survey*

3. When a statement contains **several numbers** as a group, they should all be written **in figures** except at the

beginning even if they are below ten so that they are all alike and all stand out on the page.

*The seminar management ordered **20** folders, **30** ball-points and **100** sheets of paper.*

4. Use **words** to express indefinite period.

*The time of early **seventies** was quite calm.*

***One hundred years** ago the people were very cooperative..*

5. Do not begin a sentence with **figures**. Write the number as a word. If the figure is cumbersome, write the sentence in such a way that the figure exists inside the sentence, not at the beginning.

Incorrect: **60%** of the candidates did not appear at the test.

Correct: **Sixty** percent of the candidates did not appear at the test.

6. When we write two numbers together in a compound number adjective, we should use **words** for the first one to prevent confusion of the reader.

*Twenty **10-inch pieces** of cloths*

*He owns **six 64** MB computers..*

7. Use words to indicate numbers used in national, international and dignified subjects.

*The **Seventy-Eighth** birth anniversary of Nazrul.*

8. Use **figures** for exact amounts of money e. g. **Tk. 210.11**

9. Use **figures** for chapter and page number of books.

Chapter 7 ; Page 420.

10. Use small **Roman numbers** for page numbers in a preface or introduction.

p. xii

11. Use **figures** for volumes of books or journals or newspapers.

12. Ages of persons or other beings should be expressed **in words** unless the months and days are included.

*I will be **fifty** in December, 1998.*

*Rishma's age is now **1 year, 3 months and 10 days**.*

13. Use **Roman numbers** in titles of kings or N emperors.

Louis XIV

Charles II

14. Use **numbers** for dates, addresses, telephone/fax/telex numbers.

January 4, 1998; Room No. 610, BIAM Hostel; 9332513

15. **Figures** and **words** may be mixed to avoid large figures with many zeros.

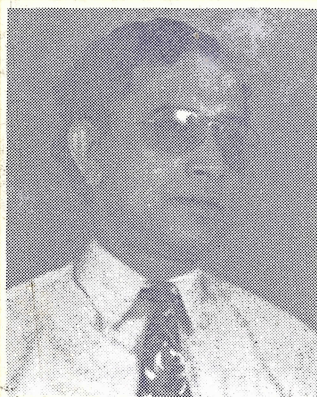
20 million 100 billion 500 trillion

16. Cardinal numbers from **twenty-one** to **ninety-nine**, inclusive, should be written with hyphens. Ordinal numbers should also be joined with hyphens.

Twenty-fourth : Two-hundred-and-eleventh

17. In research-reports, **Roman numbers** are used to indicate large divisions and **Arabic numbers** to indicate small divisions.

Roman		Arabic
I		1
II		2
III		3
IV	88741	4
V		5



ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Syed Naquib Muslim, a member of BCS (Administration), has authored : "**Public Speaking and Writing Seminar Paper, Syndicate Report, Book Review**" basing on his fourteen-year experience as a public administration trainer. Originally a student of English literature, Naquib now teaches Management and Public Administration in the leading institutes of Bangladesh. He joined the Bangladesh Civil Service in 1981 through "Superior Posts Examination" conducted by Public Service Commission in 1979.

Naquib accomplished the Master of Arts with Honours in English from the University of Dhaka in 1972. He had worked in five degree colleges in Dhaka including Notre Dame Collage and Government Jagannath College as Lecturer-in-English before he joined the administrative service. Naquib holds another Masters in Technology of Management received from the American University USA in 1985. He was Deputy Director of BPATC, Thana Nirbahi Officer of Tangail Sadar and Additional Deputy Commissioner in Rajshahi. He also worked for UNDP in the poverty alleviation project in Kishoregonj for a short period. His first book "**The Art of Modern Administration**" was published in 1997 and second book, "**Standard English : Speaking and Writing**" in 1999 by BIAM.

He works as a Director at Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre (BPATC), Savar, Dhaka. He participated in training programmes, workshops and seminars in USA, Singapore, Malaysia, India and Pakistan. His major areas of interest are public administration, management, behavioural science, training technology and communicative English.

Author of about 200 articles on administration, training and development issues, Naquib has been inspired by his friends, colleagues and seniors in writing this book.

Publisher:

Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre, Savar, Dhaka.