

COURSE GUIDE

PAD 404 COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Course Team	Dr. Musa Idris (Course Writer) - Ahmadu Bello University
	Dr. (Mrs.) Yemisi I. Ogunlela (Course Editor) - NOUN
	Mrs. Martha Oruku (Programme Coordinator) - NOUN
	Dr. (Mrs.) Yemisi Ogunlela (Head of Department) - NOUN
	Dr. Timothy O. Ishola (Dean of Faculty) - NOUN



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

© 2018 by NOUN Press
National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
University Village
Plot 91, Cadastral Zone
Nnamdi Azikiwe Expressway
Jabi, Abuja

Lagos Office
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island, Lagos

E-mail: centralinfo@nou.edu.ng

URL: www.nou.edu.ng

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, in any form or by any means, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Printed 2018

ISBN: 978-058-114-0

CONTENTS	PAGE
Course Introduction	iv
Course Description	iv
Course Textbook(s)	v
Course Aim	v
Course objectives/Outcomes	v
Working through the course	v
Course material	vi
Study Units	vi
Assignment Files	viii
Presentation Schedule	ix
Assessment	ix
Tutor-Marked Assignment	ix
Final Examination and Grading	x
Course Marking Scheme	x
How to Get the Most from this Course	xi
Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorials	xiii
Summary	xiii

COURSE INTRODUCTION

The shift of emphasis from the traditional Public Administration to Comparative Public administration is premised by the quest for scientific enquiry in the study of Public Administration. This new approach makes the study of the field more orderly, focused and systematic. It makes the study of Public Administration across national boundaries and cultures as well as making generalisations possible. Thus, this course entitled “Comparative Public Administration” (PAD 404) is designed to expose you further on the basic fundamentals of public administration in comparative basis, especially that as a student you had been introduced to the course at either undergraduate or post graduate diploma levels or programmes. The essence here is to have and in depth engagement with you on the fundamentals of comparative public administration by justifying the need of developing theories that are of universal application to both developed and developing countries administrative systems. Thus, the course is acquainting you with the evolution, meaning, scope, and significance of Comparative Public Administration; exposing you to the different models approaches to the study of Comparative Public Administration, and critically examining the systems of administration in some selected developed and developing countries of the world.

COURSE DESCRIPTION

The course entitled Comparative Public Administration is designed in a way as to discuss the historical antecedent, conceptual clarification, nature and principles of Comparative Administration study as the basis for understanding the behaviour and pattern of administrative systems of different countries of the world. This course is specifically designed in a way as to examine the following:

- the evolutionary trends, meaning, nature and scope of Comparative Public Administration as a field of study and as a system of action.
- identify and briefly discuss the significance of Comparative Public Administration studies
- outline and critically discuss the different models/approaches to the study of Comparative Public Administration
- trace and highlight the contributions of Riggs to the study of comparative public administration
- understand the systems of administration in selected developed and developing countries of the world

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

As earlier stated, this course entitled “Comparative Public Administration” (PAD 404) exposes you to the evolutionary trends of comparative public administration studies by giving more attention to the various factors that contributed to its development as a sub-field of study under the broader field of Public Administration; it will acquaint students with the conceptual clarifications, nature and scope, models/approaches etc. These are as related to public administration (Bureaucracy) as being practised elsewhere, that is, in both developed and developing systems, i.e. classic, civic and modernizing cultures and Anglophone and Francophone etc.

COURSE AIM

The aim of this course is primarily to expose you as undergraduate students, especially as student in comparative public administration class and potential or practical administrators or managers to the basic issues relating to the study of public administration on comparative basis so that you will be familiar with the different administrative systems as practiced elsewhere by taking into cognisance their strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, studying the course will widen your horizon of becoming a dynamic administrator in applying different approaches or models to solve administrative problems.

COURSE OBJECTIVES/OUTCOMES

After studying this course, students should be able to:

- i) trace the evolution of Comparative Public Administration as a field of study and as a system of action;
- ii) understand the meaning of comparative public administration, its scope and the differences in focus between Traditional and Comparative Public Administration;
- iii) identify the significance of comparative public administration studies
- iv) identify and critically discuss the different models/approaches to the study of comparative public administration;
- v) trace the contributions of Riggs to the comparative public administration studies;
- vi) understand and describe the system of administration in the developed classic (France and Germany), civic (United Kingdom and USA) and modernizing (Japan) cultures and
- vii) understand and describe the system of administration in developing countries, Asia (China and India), Anglophone and Francophone (Nigeria and Senegal) African countries and Latin

American (Brazil and Argentina) countries with a view of making comparison...

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To successfully complete your study of this course, you are required to read the entire study units; read recommended text books and read other materials provided by the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) Distance Learning. However, each unit contains self-assessment exercises, and at a point in the course, you will be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. Also at the end of the course, there is a final examination. It should be noted that, the course should take you about 16 - 17 weeks in total to complete.

Below are the components of the course, that include what you have to do, and how you should allot your time to each unit in order to successfully complete your study of the course .

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of the course material are as follows:

- (a) Course Guide
- (b) Course Modules/Study Units
- (c) References/Further Readings
- (d) Assignment
- (e) Presentation Schedule

STUDY MODULES/UNITS

Module 1 An Overview of Comparative Public Administration

- Unit 1 Evolution of Comparative Administration Studies
- Unit 2 Meaning and scope of Comparative Public Administration
- Unit 3 Significance of Comparative Public Administration Studies
- Unit 4 Models of Comparative Public Administration
- Unit 5 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Administration
- Unit 6 Riggs's contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies

Module 2 Administrative Systems of Developed Classic, Civic and Modernising Cultures

- Unit 1 System of Administration in the developed countries
- Unit 2 System of Administration in the Classic Culture:

- Unit 3 France and Germany
System of Administration in the Civic Culture: Great Britain and the USA
- Unit 4 Modernising Administrative system of Japan
- Module 3 Systems of Administration in Developing Countries, Asia, Africa and Latin America**
- Unit 1 System of Administration in Developing countries
- Unit 2 System of Administration in China and India
- Unit 3 System of Administration in selected Anglophone and Francophone African countries: Nigeria and Senegal
- Unit 4 System of Administration in selected Latin American countries: Brazil and Argentina

COURSE TEXTBOOK(S)

- Barber, Michael P. (1972). *Public Administration*. London: McDonald and Evans Limited.
- Basu, R. (2004). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Private Ltd.
- Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.
- Farazmand, A. (2001). *Handbook of Comparative and Development Public Administration*. New York: Marcel Dekker Inc.
- Harris, J.P. and Corson, J.J. (1963). *Public Administration in Modern Society*. London: McGraw Hill.
- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, 2nd edition. New York: Marjell Dekker.
- Jreisat, J. (2012). *Globalisation and Comparative Public Administration*. London: CRC Press.
- Mukhi, H. R. (1998). *Comparative Public Administration*. Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot.
- Naidu, S. P. (2011). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.
- Ngu, S. M. (2001). *Government and administration in Asia and the Middle East*. Zaria: Shareef Salam Press.

- Ngu, S. M. (2001). *Government and administration in Europe and America: A comparative and evolutionary perspective*. Zaria: Shareef Salam Press.
- Ngu, S. M. (2003). *Political and Administrative Development in some selected Anglophone African countries*. Zaria: Ahamadu Bello University Press Ltd.
- Otenyo, E. E. and Lord, N. S. (2006). Comparative Public Administration: growth, method and ecology. In E. E. Otenyo and N. S. Lord (eds). *Comparative Public Administration, the Essential Readings*. London: Elsevier.
- Rathod. P.B. (2007). *Comparative Public Administration*. Jaipur, India:Abd Publishers
- Reid, M. F. (2001). Public Administration in Germany: continuity in change. In A. Farazmand (ed). *Handbook of Comparative and Development Public Administration*. (Second Edition). New York: Marcel Dekker.
- Riggs, F. W. (2006). The Prismatic Model: Conceptualising transitional societies. In E.E. Otenye and N. S. Lord (eds). *Comparative Public Administration, the Essential Readings*, London: Elsevier.
- Rodgers, Barbara N., John Greve, and John S. Morgan. (1968). *Comparative Social Administration*. Edited by Brian Chapman. London: George Allen and Urwin Ltd.
- Sakamoto, M. (2001). Public Administration in Japan: past and present in the Higher Civil Service. In A. Frazmand (ed). *Handbook of Comparative and Development Public Administration*. (second edition). New York: Marcel Dekker.
- Wart, M. V. and Cayer, J. N. (2006). Comparative Public Administration: The search for theories in E. E. Otenye and N. S. Lord (eds). *Comparative Public Administration: The Essential Readings*. London: Elsevier.
- Wilson, Woodrow. (1941). "The Study of Administration." *Political Quarterly*.

ASSIGNMENT FILES

There are 14 assignments in this course. The fourteen-course assignment which cover all the topics in the course material are there to guide you to have proper understanding and grasp of the course.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule included in your course materials gives you the important date for the completion of tutor- marked assignments and attending tutorials. Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments latest by the due date and timely submission of assignment is pre-requisite.

ASSESSMENT

There are three aspects to the assessment of this course: first is the self-assessment test or exercise; the second is tutor-marked assignments; and third, is a written examination.

In tackling the assignments, you are advised to be sincere in attempting the exercises; you are expected to apply information, knowledge and techniques gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated therein in the Presentation Schedule and the Assignment File. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 50% of your total course mark.

At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final written examination of 'three hours' duration. This examination will also count for 50% of your total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT (TMA)

There are fourteen-marked assignments in this course. You only need to submit five of the fourteen assignments. You are encouraged, however, to submit all fourteen assignments in which case the highest five of the eight marks will be counted. Each assignment counts 10% towards your total course mark.

Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the Assignment File. You will be able to complete your assignment from the information and materials contained in your reading, references and study units. However, it is desirable to demonstrate that you have read and researched more widely than the required minimum. Using other

references will give you a broader viewpoint and may provide a deeper understanding of the subject.

When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a TMA (tutor- marked assignment) to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given in the Presentation Schedule and Assignment File. If for any reason, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless there are exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination PAD 404 will be of three hours' duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions, which reflect the types of self-testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count as the other 30% of your total course mark.

Spend the time between finishing the last unit and sitting for the examination to revise the entire course work. You might find it useful to review the self-assessment tests, tutor-marked assignments and comments on them before the examination. The final examination covers information from all parts of the course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

Total Course Marking Scheme

ASSESSMENT	MARKS
Assignments 1-14	fourteen assignments, best six marks <u>of the nine count</u> @ 5% each = 30% of course marks
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

COURSE OVERVIEW (ACTIVITY)

This table brings together the modules/ units, the number of weeks you should take to complete them and the assignments that follow them.

Unit	Title of Work	Weeks Activity	Assessment (end of unit)
	Course Guide		
	Module 3		
1	System of Administration in Developing countries	1	Assignment : Identify and explain the system of administration in developing countries
2	System of Administration in China and India	1	Assignment : Describe the administrative system of India
3	System of Administration in selected Anglophone and Francophone African countries	1	Assignment: Describe the administrative system of Nigeria
4	System of Administration in selected Latin American countries.	1 14	Assignment : Describe the administrative system of Brazil with emphasis on the civil service.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning (Open University), the study units replace the university lecturer. This is one of the greatest advantages of distance learning. You can read and work through the designed study materials at your own convenient pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture that a lecturer might set you some reading to do, the study unit will tell you when to read your other materials. Just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate points.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction of the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole.

Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the unit, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this, you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from a reading section or some other sources.

Self-tests are interspersed throughout the end of units. Working through these tests will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments and the examination. You should do each self-assessment test or exercise as you come to it in the study unit. There will also be numerous examples given in the study units, work through these when you come to them too.

The following constitute the practical strategies for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, call your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need help, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide any assistance he/she could offer.

- (1) Please read this course guide carefully and thoroughly.
- (2) Organise a study schedule. Refer to the course overview for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the semester will be made available. You need to gather all this information in one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working on each unit.
- (3) Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. One of the major reasons that students fail is that they get behind with their coursework. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for assistance.
- (4) Turn to the respective units and carefully read the introduction and the objectives for each of the units.
- (5) Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the 'Overview' at the beginning of each unit.

You will always need both the study unit you are working on and one of your references, on your desk at the same time.

- (6) Work through the unit. The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the units, you will be instructed to read sections from your other sources. Use the unit to guide your reading.

Before the relevant due date, check your Assignment File and make sure you attend to the next required assignment. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignments effectively. The assignments have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the exam. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.

- (7) Review of the objectives for each study unit confirms that you have achieved them. If you find ambiguity in any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your tutor.
- (8) When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then start perusing the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to face your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.
- (9) When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, especially on the tutor-marked assignment form. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or difficulty.
- (10) After completing the last unit (Unit 14), review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

FACILITATORS/TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are 17 hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials, together with the names and phone numbers of your tutor, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You must mail your tutor-marked assignments to your tutor well before the due date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible. Do not hesitate to contact your tutor

by telephone, e-mail, or discussion board if you need help. The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary.

CONTACT YOUR TUTOR IF:

- You do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings.
- You have difficulty with the self-test or exercise.
- You have a question or problem with an assignment with your tutor's comment on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face-to-face contact with your tutor and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating in discussions actively.

As earlier stated above, this course PAD 404 Comparative Public Administration relates public Administration in public organisations. It makes in-depth analysis of the Public Administration systems in developing and developed countries of the world.

MAIN COURSE

Module 1 An Overview of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 1 Evolution of Comparative Public Administration Studies
Unit 2 Meaning and Scope of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 3 Significance of Comparative Public Administration Studies
Unit 4 Models of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 5 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 6 Riggs's contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies
Module 2 Administrative Systems of Developed Classic, Civic And Modernising Cultures
Unit 1 System of Administration in the developed countries
Unit 2 System of Administration in the Classic Culture: France and Germany
Unit 3 System of Administration in the Civic Culture: Great Britain and the USA
Unit 4 Modernising Administrative system of Japan
Module 3 Systems of Administration in Developing Countries, Asia, Africa And Latin America
Unit 1 System of Administration in Developing countries

Unit 2 System of Administration in China and India
Unit 3 System of Administration in selected Anglophone and Francophone African countries
Unit 4 System of Administration in selected Latin American countries.

Module 1: An Overview of Comparative Public Administration

INTRODUCTION

Hello. Welcome to the Comparative Public Administration class. This module features an overview of the subject matter. First, we should have it at the back of our mind that comparative public administration is a branch or sub-field of public administration that focuses on comparative analysis of administrative processes and institutions of states. The comparative approach has been around since the inception of government. As a specialized field of interest, the significance of comparison cannot be accurately traced to a single event or country. What we know is that early scholarly works in the parent field drew upon knowledge and perspectives with cross-national origins. For example, Ferrel Heady reminds us that pioneers in the study of American public administration, including Woodrow Wilson and Frank Goodnow, made full use of lens' provided in European scholarship (Heady, 2001).

There was not much of literature on Comparative Public Administration before the Second World War. In the early writings on the subject, scholars such as L.D White and F.W. Taylor or the human relations movement adopted a "management" approach and their main concern was building a science of administration through the articulation of certain "Universal" principles of administration. However, the turn of events during and after World War II changed the state of literature on comparative public administration. A number of studies by Dwight Waldo, Ferrel Heady and Stokes made significant contributions in making public administration a universal science. Therefore, in this module, attempt will be made to cover the following units:

- Unit 1 Evolution of Comparative Public Administration Studies
- Unit 2 Meaning and scope of Comparative Administration studies
- Unit 3 Significance of Comparative Public Administration Studies
- Unit 4 Models of Comparative Public Administration
- Unit 5 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Public Administration
- Unit 6 Riggs contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies

COURSE GUIDE

CONTENTS	PAGE
Module 1	1
Unit 1 Evolution of Comparative Administration Studies	1
Unit 2 Meaning and scope of Comparative Public Administration	9
Unit 3 Significance of Comparative Public Administration Studies	22
Unit 4 Models of Comparative Public Administration	28
Unit 5 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Administration	42
Unit 6 Riggs' contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies	59
Module 2 Administrative systems of Developed Classic, Civic and Modernising Cultures	65
Unit 1 System of Administration in the developed Countries	65
Unit 2 System of Administration in the Classic Culture: France and Germany	69
Unit 3 System of Administration in the Civic Culture: Great Britain and the USA	81
Unit 4 Modernising Administrative system of Japan	92
Module 3 Systems of administration in Developing countries, Asia, Africa and Latin America	100
Unit 1 System of Administration in Developing Countries	100
Unit 2 System of Administration in China and India	104
Unit 3 System of Administration in selected Anglophone and Francophone African Countries	111
Unit 4 System of Administration in selected Latin American countries.....	121

MODULE 1

Unit 1	Evolution of Comparative Administration Studies
Unit 2	Meaning and scope of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 3	Significance of Comparative Public Administration Studies
Unit 4	Models of Comparative Public Administration
Unit 5	Approaches to the Study of Comparative Administration
Unit 6	Riggs's contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies

UNIT 1 EVOLUTION OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main content
3.1	Evolutionary trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration
3.2	Factors that influenced the development of Comparative Public Administration studies
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignments
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Hello Master's students of NOUN or rather comparative public administration class! Welcome to this first unit. Please i want you to concentrate, especially that this is the introductory or first unit that will give you an insight into the brief history or evolutionary trends of the subject matter "Comparative Public Administration". It is by knowing the origin and the factors that contributed to the development of the specialized field that you will appreciate the course in general. By the way, the origin and development of public administration (traditional) as a distinctive subject could be traced from 1887 onwards. Prior to 1887, almost no written materials existed on the management of public administration. For instance, in India, there were evidences to suggest that there existed a good literature on the aspects of administration even before 1887. Kautilya's Arthashastra described the tactics of foreign policy and defence. Kautilya called for science of public administration but most of his conceptions about the science of administration were

limited to his times. As a result, it failed to attain a universal recognition. Therefore, attempt will be made in this unit to trace the evolution of comparative administration as a discipline or as a course of study as well as the factors that influenced its growth.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- trace the evolution of Comparative Public Administration
- determine the factors that influenced the growth of Comparative Public Administration studies

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Evolutionary trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration

The present scientific status of public administration can be traced from the early writings of Woodrow Wilson, the former American President. Wilson's perspectives of public administration have strongly influenced the rest of the world during the eighteenth century. Even Wilson never failed to recognise the importance given by the French and the Germans in proper understanding of the machinery of the government. Certainly, Wilson was the first administrative thinkers who argued that politics and administrative were different functions. In his speech before the Historical and Political Science Association at Cornell University on November 3, 1866, he issued a call to political scientists to study more effective techniques 'for administration. His first speech on the techniques of administration was published as an article in Political Science Quarterly during July 1887. May be it was the first known academic publication on the 'art of administration' in a more technical sense. In the article he traced the evolution of government through three phases. They are absolute rule, constitutional government and the administration of constitutional government.

Initially, the comparative aspect was dominant in the studies but, as time passed; other elements changed the direction toward the developmental aspects of these studies. Money, ideology, and politics were among the main factors. The traditional focus on law and order, institutions and institution-building, and general functional areas of government administration gave way to the modified orientations of development, general systems model building, and middle-range theory formulations from the 1960s on (Heady 1996; Farazmand, forthcoming; Nash 1969; Waldo 1992).

While the comparative component of the studies had gained significance, especially through comparative politics and administration, the development administration component gained momentum on a variety of grounds: tremendous interest on the part of the multi-national corporations in developing and underdeveloped countries; their resources and markets; the super- power ideological, economic, military, and political competition between the United States and Western countries on the one hand and the USSR on the other in the developing nations; the collapse of colonial rule in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East, leaving behind their administrative, military, political, and economic legacies of dependency; and the consequences of postcolonial needs for a continued relationship between North and South countries, including the need for an efficient and effective administrative system for both nation-building and implementation of national development plans and goals (Huntington 1968; Heady 1996; Esman 1991; Blase 1973; Siffin 1976; Gant 1971; Riggs 1970, 1976).

Interestingly, it was again Woodrow Wilson who can be credited with introducing comparative study of public administration. He was the first comparativist, who compared American government system to the Cabinet System in the United Kingdom to demonstrate that the USA lacked unified authority in several fields of administration. His comparative study was basically concerned with the issues of maintenance of democratic polity. The Comparative Paradigm set by Wilson has the following features:

1. The science of administration for the United States should be focused from the democratic point of view.
2. A good government is synonymous with the practices of public administration.
3. Civic issues were equally significant to those who conduct the everyday affairs of the government.
4. Administration can be evaluated in its best only by removing the political aspects of administration.

The last point made by Wilson needs self-examination. Undoubtedly, politics runs all the way through administration and the study of comparative administrative in a non-political perspective is totally unrealistic. In the same tone Marshall E. Dimock criticised that Wilson was unrealistic in saying that the field of administration is a field of business and there is no scope for politics. We can presume that during Wilson's time the subject was only in a rudimentary form which he interpreted in a different way. We must understand that politics and administration being sequential parts of the same process are actually inseparable. In fact, the major concern for Wilson was to create a professionally trained, hierarchical bureaucracy that could be

responsible for a unified political system. Such division of politics from administration is neither good for public administration nor it can serve the best interests of democratic polity.

However, by early 1880s Wilson slightly changed his views on politics-administration dichotomy and to a certain extent accepted -that there is no scope for administration without the influence of politics in democratic system. Initially, comparative study on a small scale began in the nineteenth century. It started with various reform movements in the United States. The Municipal Reform Movement Civil Service reforms and other government changes of the latter part of the nineteenth century made several comparisons with the United States. Such comparative studies were aimed to increase the efficiency of public administration in the USA. Some important landmarks in these directions were made by the reports of the US Senate and various commission reports. They are follows:

1. US Senate Report-the Select Committee of the US- March 8, 1888.
2. Additional Report of the Select Committee-March 28, 1889.
3. The Cockery-Cockrell Commission--September 30, 1993.
4. Committee on Department Methods-1905-1906.
5. Commission on Economy and Efficiency-1912.
6. Report of the US Bureau of Efficiency for the period from March 25, 1913 to October 1916.
7. Joint Committee on Reorganisation-1920.
8. Commission on the Organisation of the Executive Branch Government-A Report of the Congress-1949.

The reports we mainly concerned only with a limited extent of comparison that too within the United States federal government agencies. Its lust reflected the Americanised reforms of public administration. There was a complete neglect of cross- national studies to improve the American standard of public administration. Perhaps, the Americans thought that there would not be any system available outside the United States to be compared and introduced in the USA. This has been one of the greater weaknesses of American administration at that time?

However, Comparative Public Administration was said to have emerged in 1952 when a committee was set up in the United States by the American Political Scientists. This committee was named "SHARP" Committee headed by Professor Walter Sharp. The aim of this committee was to look into the study of Comparative Public Administration in a scientific way.

In 1953, another committee was set-up by the society of American Public Administration, called “Comparative American Group” headed by Fred. W. Riggs and was affiliated to American Society for Public Administration. This committee was to look into the development of Comparative Public Administration and to develop criteria of relevance and objective. These two committees were set up in order to move the discipline forward.

Moreover, the Comparative Public Administration movement received a major boost, when it received the first professional recognition in 1953 through the appointment of an ad hoc committee on comparative administration by the American Political Science Association, which led to the establishment in 1960 of the Comparative Administration Group (CAG) and was affiliated to American society for public administration. Fred W. Riggs was appointed the chairman of CAG. The Comparative Administration Group in the United States has done commendable work in the field of Comparative Public Administration. It has prepared more than one hundred research papers on various aspects of comparative administration (Rathod, 2007). The group received generous grants from Ford foundation in 1962, through the American society for public administration and was publishing quarterly journals of Comparative Administration. It has sponsored experimental technique projects and promoted field research in comparative administration. Comparative public administration as a subject was included in the courses of study in several colleges and universities in the United States and other developed countries. Dwight Waldo started comparative public administration as a course of study in the University of California (Berkley) in 1948. Thereafter, it began to receive much greater attention which widened the scope of the study.

White and Taylor came to be criticized for their failure to undertake a comparative study of the administrative system. Robert Dahl considered the claim of public administration to be a “science” as hollow as long as study was not comparative. The World War II is often regarded as the dividing lines between the old and new literature on the subject of public administration, as a new discipline under the name of new public administration came into being. In the field of comparative public administration, emphasis shifted from general managerial approach to contextual and situational approach.

3.2 Factors that influenced the growth of Comparative Public Administration

There were a number of specific factors which attracted the attention of American scholars to the comparative study of public administrations. For instance, new scientific, theoretical and technological developments

influenced the structures of administration stimulating interest in the comparative study of administrative. However, other major factors that contributed to the emergence of comparative public administration are as follows:

- (i) The emergence of free nations after the world war and efforts by these nations to achieve rapid socio-economic development, created new problems before public administration which led to scientific investigation and empirical studies in the field of public administration. However, the emergence of newly independent Third World countries which attempted to achieve rapid socio-economic development, creating opportunities for more scientific investigation.
- (ii) The assistance programmes initiated by the United States to help the newly independent countries in the task of their national development insisted on the establishment of modern personnel, budgeting and planning agencies by the recipient states. But when these countries failed to respond, it led the academic critics to point out that the American patterns of improvements were “cultures bound” and could not be transported to the countries having different cultures soon it came to be recognized that “exogenous” technical change required a complete understanding of the culture context of the administrative institution and behaviour in foreign countries, “which developed ecological perspective among the students of public administration working developing countries etc.
- (iii) The revisionist movement in comparative politics.
- (iv) The dissatisfaction with traditional public administration which was seen as culture-bound.
- (v) Intellectually oriented catalysts, that is, to develop universally relevant theoretical models.
- (vi) Exposure of American scholars and administrators to the new features of the administrative systems of developing countries during the World War II period.
- (vii) Policy oriented catalysts, that is, to develop the practical knowledge to make policy-formulation and policy-execution more effective.

- (viii) The extension of American foreign aid programme (both political and economic) to newly emerged developing countries.
- (ix) The rise of behavioural approach in public administration as a reaction to the classical structural approach.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly discuss the evolution of comparative public administration

4.0 CONCLUSION

As discussed above, the development or evolution of Comparative Public Administration had been related to many factors especially after the Second World War II, the quest was in order to have principles of Public Administration that transcend the boundary and which consider the ecology in different administrative settings. The claim of calling public administration a science will remain hollow without studying it on comparative basis as stated by Robert Dahl.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, in this unit, we discussed about the brief evolution of comparative public administration. It should be noted that there are many factors that contributed to the evolution of comparative public administration especially after the Second World War II. These factors range from the revisionist struggle in the field of politics, the emergence of free nations, the exposure of Americans and others to the systems of administration in newly independent states, the emergence of Comparative Administration Group (CAG), the funding of the CAG by the Ford foundation etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Trace the evolutionary trends in the emergence of comparative public administration by taking into cognisance the major factors that influenced its development as a specialised field of study.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Barber, M. P. (1972). *Public Administration*. London: McDonald and Evans Limited.

Dahl, R. (1947). *The Science of Public Administration: Three Problems*, PAR, 7, p. 111.

- Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.
- Farazmand, A. (2001). *Handbook of Comparative and Development Public Administration*. New York: Marcel Dekker Inc.
- Harris, J.P. and Corson, J.J. (1963). *Public Administration in Modern Society*. London: McGraw Hill.
- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.
- Henry, N. (2007). *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 10th Edition. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Hobbes, T. (2009). "Project Gutenberg EBooks." *Project Gutenberg*. Edward White. 1651. (Accessed February 19, 2009).
- Mukhi, H. R. (1998). *Comparative Public Administration*. Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot.
- Peters. G. B. (1978). *The Politics of Bureaucracy: A Comparative Perspective*, London: Longman. p. 3
- Rathod. P.B (2007). *Comparative Public Administration*. Jaipur, India:Abd Publishers
- Rodgers, B. N., Greve, J. and Morgan, J.S. (1968). *Comparative Social Administration*. Edited by Brian Chapman. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.
- Wilson, W. (1941). "The Study of Administration." *Political Quarterly*.
- Wilson, W .(1987). "The study of administration," *Political Science Quarterly*, 2nd July 1987: pp. 197-222 as quoted by Dwight Waldo, (1948). *The Administrative State*, New York: Ronald Press

UNIT 2 MEANING AND SCOPE OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Comparative Public Administration
 - 3.2 Scope of Comparative Public Administration studies
 - 3.3 Traditional and Comparative Public Administration
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Having identified the factors that influenced the evolution of comparative public administration in unit 1 above, attempt will be made here to unravel the meaning of Comparative public administration and to look at the scope of the subject matter as well as to make a comparison between the traditional Public Administration and comparative public administration. However, as stated earlier, Public administration has become an increasingly international and comparative field of study and practice. The inclusion of international and comparative perspectives have been of inestimable value in the development of public administration theory, particularly the development and testing of hypotheses reflecting the importance of cross-national characteristics as independent or intervening variables. With the preponderance of refereed journals published in the United States and Europe, these trends have fostered fundamental changes in how we teach public administration. Although the newly updated National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) standards do not require a focus on the international, they do emphasize the importance of teaching public administration and affairs from a comparative perspective, as defined by the mission and objectives of a particular graduate degree program (NASPAA, 2009).

Therefore, as earlier stated, attempt will be made in this unit by first looking at the concept of Comparative Public Administration before proceeding into examining its scope and the relationship between Traditional and Comparative Public Administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- understand and define the concepts of comparative public administration
- describe the scope of comparative public administration
- compare the relationship between traditional public administration and comparative public administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concept of Comparative Public Administration

Comparative public administration has been defined in different ways. However, Comparative public administration is a sub-field of the broad fields of public administration. It is true that such an established sub-field exists in political science entitled, "Comparative politics" or "Comparative governments." Comparative public administration deals with administrative organisations or systems pertaining to different cultures and settings whose similar or dissimilar features or characteristics are studied and compared in order to find out "causes" or "reasons" for efficient or effective performance or behaviour of administrators, civil servants or bureaucrats.

Robert H. Jackson defined "Comparative public administration as that facet of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous cross-cultural comparisons of the structures and processes involved in the activity of administering public affairs.

In his own view, **Jong S. Jun** stated that "Comparative public administration has been predominantly cross-cultural or cross-national in orientation.

Comparative Public Administration was described by the **Comparative Administration Group (CAG)** of the American Society for Public Administration as the systematic study of political systems with the aim of developing scientific theories, which could be applied to diverse cultures and national settings and the body of factual data, by which it can be examined and tested (CAG, 1963).

Riggs (1973) noted in his definition, that the term "comparative" should be used only for empirical, nomothetic and ecological studies. He outlines three trends in the comparative study of Public Administration:

- (i) From normative approach towards more empirical approaches;

- (ii) Shifts from ideographic (individualistic) toward nomothetic (Universals);
- (iii) Shift from a predominantly non-ecological to ecological basis for the study of Public Administration.

In the third world countries, single variable dominated studies as possible. This Single variable is "development." Development itself is a sub-approach of the ecological school. Development may be economic or social but it forms part of the ecological approach. The ecological perspective is, thus, the main concern of comparative administration scholars. Although the subject is not construed as consisting of theories, but there is ample evidence of current interest in Comparative Public Administration in the form of bibliographies, conferences, new courses and a wide range of scholarly articles, and books.

Even the American Political Science Review recognised this subject by inaugurating, as on March 1963, a bibliographical section entitled Comparative Public Administration. New interest was shown by the American Society of Public Administration, when the comparative public administration group was established. It is evident and self-explanatory that the future of the discipline of public administration is hinged with the ever- expanding directions of comparative studies. Cross-cultural studies would eventually place the discipline on a firm footing and supply sufficient material for providing satisfactory explanation to administrative problems, establishing it on the solid bed-rock of scientism.

In comparative public administration, cross-cultural analysis is essential. Robert A. Dahl (1947) says, "The comparative public administration specialist is first and foremost a scholar who is in pursuit of greater knowledge and understanding." Further, R.A. Dahl once remarked that in order to establish science of public administration, it has necessarily to be comparative. Similarly, there are other social scientists such as Edwin Stene, Herbert Simon and Dwight Waldo who believed that in order to make public administration a scientific discipline, it has to make its explanations comparatively rational. Rationality and scientific investigations make any subject capable of providing satisfactory solutions to the problems of public administration in different cultures.

However, according to Professor Ferrel Heady, the comparative public administration addresses five "motivating concerns" as an intellectual enterprise. These are:

- (a) The search for theory;
- (b) The urge for practical application;

- (c) The incidental contribution of the broader field of comparative politics;
- (d) The interest of researchers trained in the tradition of administrative law; and
- (e) The comparative analysis of ongoing problems of public administration.

3.2 Scope of Comparative Public Administration

After the World War II, there was a misconception that public administrative system could be applied uniformly across the world. However, this was not the case as the western kind of Weberian bureaucracy could not apply in some areas. This then brought a need for a comparative study, considering the environment that the system is to apply, a study of which brought the advent of Comparative Public Administration. This is the study and analysis of different administrative systems from different social, geographical and cultural backgrounds, then putting them on a balance. Robert Jackson believes that there is need to come up with a science of Public Administration. To achieve this, the various patterns of administrative behaviour across different administrative systems need to be brought together then subjected to rigorous systematic analysis. This would bring about a body of knowledge in Public Administration.

The Comparative Administrative Group has expanded their definition of Comparative Public Administration to include the practice and the theory of the subject. They define it in terms of theory of applied Public Administration across cultures and national sceneries, as well as the accurate data by which it can be investigated and tested.

Also, just like the scope of Public Administration, the scope of Comparative Public Administration is in doubt. However, attempts have been made at setting the scope, with scholars arguing that it studies public administrative system of a country or a culture and of different countries and cultures. Comparative public administration studies the democratic institutions and systems of different countries, the causes of success or failure of distinct democratic institutions, how the concept is applied and the level of success of a democratic system. Political systems are also studied, as of the working of a parliamentary system in one country, as compared to another with the same system or different like the presidential in the United States or Nigeria.

The different methods of controlling administration are also studied. Different political systems have different ways of administration. The way administration in a unitary totalitarian regime works is different from the way operations of administration are run in a decentralised

liberal democracy. The workings of the three traditional arms of government also vary with the political system in place. Control and management of human resources is also within the scope of the study. It does not only consider methods of employee administration but also individual employees in their social life. Thus problems and grievances are addressed in Comparative Public Administration. In the developing world, there are often cases of industrial action on the bases of working conditions and remunerations, issues which are not pronounced in the affluent societies. Work place discipline is also relatively higher in the developed world as opposed to the least developed countries which wallow in the miasma of poverty, corruption and political impunity.

In the Hobbesian state of nature, life was brutish, short, and characterised by fratricidal bloodletting. The state came in to bring sanity and order. A welfare state therefore emerged to take care of its citizens, and so Comparative Public Administration studies the different ways of administering a welfare state with due cognisance of the social, economic and cultural environment. The workings of the traditional three arms of government are studied relative to different political systems. The role of the head of state in a parliamentary system like in the United Kingdom where real power rests with the monarch, and that of, say, the United States where real power is vested in the President. In such cases, the study considers the influence of the head of state in administration of the state. The subject also studies administrative systems in presidential systems, like in France and the United States, where power rests with the president, but applied differently. Studies on the interaction between the three arms of government are also made. Whereas the United Kingdom has a fused system, the United States has separation of powers with a strict system of checks and balances.

Comparative Public Administration studies institutions at international levels. The changing paradigms in international relations brought about by globalisation, terrorism, piracy, global warming, etc. all are within the scope. It studies the operations of local self-institutions in different countries, as well. As the study intensifies, the scope of study widens. With globalisation developing at an ever faster rate, so is the exchange of ideas on public administration reforms. International conferences and seminars have been organised around the world to have a way for public administration and has worked to widen the scope of study. An example is the introduction in Kenya and Zimbabwe of a mixed system of a president and a prime minister.

Comparative public administration is a branch of public administration. As an approach, it considers the workings of government in different socioeconomic and cultural settings. Much like public administration, comparative administration covers a wide variety of activities. Scholars

employing the comparative approach focus on a wide variety of issues including public policy making and implementation in both the developed and developing areas. Comparative administration seeks to strengthen our understanding of broader public administrative processes by trying to expand the empirical basis of the field.

By taking a keen look at administrative processes in all socio-economic and ecological settings, we have a more holistic view of the larger field. Persuasive justifications for the comparative method are well documented (Heady 2001: 6). In brief, formulating general principles of administration requires a larger pool of cases and hence the need to study diverse administrative institutions and processes. To dismiss or minimize administrative processes in areas populated with more than two-thirds of the world's population is to have a narrow frame of reference in the larger public administrative enterprise. Statistically, theory building benefits from including analyses from a wide variety of cases. Although the comparative method has obvious strengths, it has serious flaws as well. Chiefly, ecological, historical, and cultural conditions determine lens through which we view other societies (Rowatt, 1998; Rockman and Aberbach, 1998).

However, Comparative study of public administration necessarily associates itself with the other mainstream of social sciences whereby conventional systematic comparison can be made. The mainstream includes economics, political science, sociology and psychology. Interestingly, it is because of comparative approach of public administration, that the American oriented study of the discipline is checked. No longer will public administration theories be based on the exceptional American experiences.

Goodsell in his article entitled "The New Comparative Administration: A Proposal" (1981) recommended that the scope of comparative public administrative should be extended to cover comparisons at supra-national and sub-national levels of analysis. To him, it should embrace all studies of administrative phenomena where the comparative method in some guise is explicitly employed. According to Jong S. Jun, the comparative public administration did not deal with comparison of methods and strategies of organisation change and organisational development in a cross-cultural context. Hence, he suggested that the revival in comparative studies must incorporate these aspects.

Initially, the Comparative Administrative Group (CAG) has focused development administration as the Third World problem. But, today it also includes understanding of a country's public administration in its global context. In 1987, Heady demonstrated how comparative analysis imported foreign models and practices which have contributed in the

shaping of the American political and administrative institution. It was estimated between 1980 and 1990 that nearly 253 comparative public administration articles appeared in 20 different journals across the world. 16 Comparative methods have also been adopted in many articles published in some of the Indian journals. The Indian Journal of Public Administration has published a volume on comparative public administration in 1985. The area for comparative research is wide enough to accommodate the problems of developed and underdeveloped countries. The major areas of research are bureaucracy, public policies, behaviour of employees, motivation, finance, developmental aspects of administration, administrative set-up, etc.

Therefore, it can be deduced that the comparative public administration covers the following specific areas thus:

1. Comparative public administration deals with the comparison of administrative systems, structures, organization, functions and methods of all types of public authority engaged in administration, whether national, regional or local and whether executive or advisory. It also deals with the comparison of the Functions of administrative authorities including executive, legislature and judicial functions.
2. A comparative study of various forms of control over administration.
3. A comparative study of personnel administration and its problems.
4. Comparative study of functional administration such as Educational administration, Social administration.
5. Comparative foreign administration.

In short, applied administration has to be studied on comparative basis, country-wise, department or function-wise, governmental level-wise, historically and internationally.

However, the Comparative public administration studies can be conducted at three analytical levels, that is, macro, middle-range and micro levels.

- (a) **Macro studies:** These focus on the comparisons of whole administrative systems in their proper ecological contexts. For instance, a macro study would involve a comparison of the administrative systems of India and Great Britain or Nigeria and Senegal. It will comprise detailed analysis of all important aspects and parts of the administrative system of the two nations. It will be comprehensive in its scope. Though the studies of macro level are rare, they are not impossible to be taken up.

Generally, the relationship between an administrative system and its external environment is highlighted in the macro level studies.

- (b) **The Middle-range studies:** These are on certain important parts of an administrative system that are sufficiently large in size and scope of functioning. For instance, a comparison of the structure of higher bureaucracy of two or more nations, comparison of agricultural administration in two or more countries or a comparison of local government in different, countries will form part of middle range studies. For instance, the Nigerian local government system can compare to that of Britain.
- (c) **Micro studies:** These relate to comparisons of an individual organization with its counterparts in other settings. A micro study might relate to an analysis of a small part of an administrative system, such as the recruitment or training system in two or more administrative organizations: Micro studies are more feasible to be undertaken and a large number of such studies have been conducted by scholars of Public administration In the contemporary Comparative public Administration, all the three types of studies may exist.

3.3 Traditional Versus Comparative Public Administration

3.3.1 Traditional Public Administration

In the first place, Public Administration is the bureaucracy of government, being the working machinery under which the state operates. The government exists for the good of the population/the state. According to Thomas Hobbes, in the absence of state, man's life is 'solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short' (Hobbes 1651). The same may be said of the absence of government, and therefore public administration.

The government has the responsibility of providing security, safeguard the fundamental human dignity and happiness for all. It is therefore charged with serving the proletariat against bourgeoisie exploitation and vice versa (the dictatorship of the proletariat). Anticorruption and antipoverty campaigns are a part of the commitment of public administration in a political system. However, here is a global clamour for democracy, a nebulous concept connoting communalism and pluralism which may be based on irrational decisions. This sharply contrasts bureaucratic coordination on the basis of professionalism, elitism and hierarchical system of operation. The nexus between bureaucracy and democracy is thus provided by public administration (Henry, 2007:3).

Public Administration is the act of implementing public policies, as feedback is relayed to the policy makers. It is government in action, a collective effort of getting things done in accordance with the laid down procedures and within the legal framework. Various scholars have come up with various definitions, all of which have a hinge on the public. It "pre-supposes planned human activities by organising human and material resources" (Mukhi 1998, 2). L. D. White says it is that which "consists of all those operations having their purpose fulfilment or enforcement of public policy." In his words, former American President Woodrow Wilson defined it as a detailed and systematic application of law (Wilson 1941). To him, therefore, any application of law amounts to public administration.

Corson and Harris define public administration as "... decision making, planning the work to be done, formulating objectives and goals... establishing and reviewing organisations, directing and supervising employees ... exercising control and other functions performed by government executives and supervisors. It is the action part of government: the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realised" (Harris and Corson 1963). It has been argued that public administration should be considered as the fourth arm of government, in addition to the known executive, judiciary and legislature (Barber 1972). This is because administration is quite different from the executive, as it comprises of bureaucrats. This is the full time professional civil service, with technical expertise in policy.

Different scholars still have different views on coverage of public administration. Some see it first and foremost as a policy science, thus categorise it as Political Science. These hold the integral view as they also believe public administration concerns itself with all activities and policies that go with administration. As a result, they lump ministers and legislators into one category of 'administrators.' Others conceptualise it as an art. Administrators are thus people who get things done through others, as managers. On their own, they cannot do the work.

As such, public administration provides a link between the three traditional arms of government, namely the legislature, executive and judiciary. It may be said to be supportive in each case, without which the arms cannot operate. As the establishment that interacts with the general public, public administration is part of the political process, and therefore helps in policy formulation through feedback mechanism.

Elements of Public Administration

- Public administration holds the administrative machinery and this is based on the principle of organisation.

- The subject deals with the staff, that is, the public servants and individuals.
- Finances are also a part of the commitments of public administration.
- Work study includes research of administrative resources and where they are available. This brings in material management as an element of public administration.
- Managerial techniques.

3.3.2 Comparative Public Administration

Unlike the traditional or conventional public administration, **Comparative Public Administration** is *the study of two or more public administration systems, and then drawing parallels from them*. It has to do with an analysis of the operations of the system in question, for the purpose of finding the strengths and weaknesses. Generally, comparative studies present problems of a general nature (Rodgers, Greve and Morgan 1968), not necessarily concerned with one particular society. It brings out a general view of phenomena, drawing parallels for betterment of the system in question. Through the study, new ideas are generated thus according new solutions to existent problems on the basis of an analytical approach. As the society is dynamic, it becomes imperative to reinterpret and re-evaluate administrative structures to be in line with the ever changing trends in life. This is best done through Comparative Public Administration. A comparative study is usually done on an interdisciplinary format, thus encouraging more analysis on social phenomena. In discussing the subject, it is imperative that Public Administration be defined.

However, as rightly observed by Nicholas Henry, comparative public administration is different from traditional or American public administration in two respects:

- (a) Public administration is 'culture-bound' (ethnocentric) while comparative public administration is 'cross-cultural' in its orientation and thrust. In 1936, L.D. White observed that a principle of administration is as useful a guide to action in the public administration of Russia as of Great Britain, of Iraq as of United States. But later Robert Dahl (in 1947) and Dwight Waldo (in 1948) pointed out that cultural factors could make public administration on one part of the globe quite a different animal from public administration on the other part.
- (b) Public administration is "practitioner-oriented" and involves the "real world", whereas comparative public administration attempts to the „theory-building“ and “seeks knowledge for the sake of

knowledge". In brief, the comparative public administration has a purely scholarly thrust, as opposed to professional.

From the foregoing, it is apparent that Comparative administration is the only hope for the growth and development of public administration in the near future. Exposure to foreign, often non-western, governmental systems and cultures has stimulated a sense of "comparativeness" in general and in particular raised questions either about the appropriateness or the sheer possibility of transferring familiar administrative devices or applying what had been presumed to be good or scientific principles of administration.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly distinguish between traditional and comparative public administration.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Comparative public administration is a cross-cultural public administration. The area for comparative research is wide enough to accommodate the problems of developed and underdeveloped countries. The major areas of research are bureaucracy, public policies, behaviour of employees, motivation, finance, developmental aspects of administration, administrative set-up, etc.

However, in terms of comparison, Arora is of the view that traditional public administration literature is primarily descriptive rather than analytical, explanatory and problem-oriented. Essentially, it is "non-comparative" in character, for despite the study of governments of several countries, cross-temporal analysis and explanations were rare. It also lacked techniques and concepts to undertake such studies, especially of the non-western areas. It is accepted that control, communication, planning, organisation, co-ordination, and even efficiency and economy have major relevance to the study of comparative public administration. It is an established fact that the cross-cultural dimension of public administration has a promise and a future in the development of a science of public administration.

Comparative administration is the only hope for the growth and development of public administration in the near future. Exposure to foreign, often non-western, governmental systems and cultures has stimulated a sense of "comparativeness" in general and in particular raised questions either about the appropriateness or the sheer possibility of transferring familiar administrative devices or applying what had been presumed to be good or scientific principles of administration. It is

now clear that those students of comparative politics and comparative public administration who were engaged in the study of political institutional processes and socio-economic environments were actually studying public administration from the point of view of comparison. This comparativeness from the cultural point of view or ecological points of view forms part of this sub-discipline.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit discusses the brief definition of traditional and Comparative Public Administration, the scope of comparative public administration and the relationship or rather the difference between the Traditional public administration and comparative public administration. Comparative public administration deals with administrative organisations or systems pertaining to different cultures and settings whose similar or dissimilar features or characteristics are studied and compared in order to find out "causes" or "reasons" for efficient or effective performance or behaviour of administrators, civil servants or bureaucrats. The scope of comparative public administration is still widening in the quest of the states to devise an effective way of strengthening the civil service towards attainment of national goals.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the concept of comparative public administration and outline the major differences between traditional public administration and comparative public administration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Arora, Ramesh K. (1972). *Comparative Public Administration: An Ecological Perspective*. New Delhi: Associated Publishing House.
- Barber, Michael P. (1972). *Public Administration*. London: McDonald and Evans Limited.
- Basu, R. (2004). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Private Ltd.
- Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.
- Harris, J.P. and Corson, J.J. (1963). *Public Administration in Modern Society*. London: McGraw Hill.

- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.
- Henry, Nicholas. (2007). *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 10th Edition. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Hobbes, Thomas. (2009). "Project Gutenberg EBooks." *Project Gutenberg*. Edward White. 1651. (Accessed February 19, 2009).
- National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) (2013). *Comparative Public Administration (MGS 783)*.
- Mukhi, H. R. (1998). *Comparative Public Administration*. Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot.
- Rodgers, Barbara N., John Greve, and John S. Morgan. (1968). *Comparative Social Administration*. Edited by Brian Chapman. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.
- Sharma, M.P, Sadana, B.L., and H. Kaur (2011). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Kiah Mahal Publishers.
- Wilson, Woodrow. (1941). "The Study of Administration." *Political Quarterly*.

UNIT 3 SIGNIFICANCE OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Significance/Rationale of Comparative Public Administration Studies
 - 3.2 Prospects of Comparative Public Administration Studies
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments and Answers
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we have attempted a brief definition of the traditional public administration and comparative public administration, the scope of comparative public administration and the differences between traditional and comparative public administration. Here, attempt will be made in looking at the significance of Comparative Public Administration studies and the prospects of same. According to the political scientist W.A. Welsh comparison is the basis of concept formation. People assign some characters (term or concept) to things that seem similar to one another. Also, Dahl (1947) once remarked that in order to establish science of public administration, it has to be necessarily on comparative basis. Thus, the needs or benefits of engaging in comparative studies in public administration cannot be over emphasized.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify and explain the significance of CPA
- know the prospects of CPA

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Significance of Comparative Public Administration studies

Comparison is essential to our understanding of public administration. It has been claimed that one important dimension of science is to make

comparison. In the process of theory building and in the process of interchange of ideas among human beings, comparison is quite imminent. Through comparison a scientific development of knowledge is quite essential or possible. For instance, we call organisations that are under the total control of the government as departmental organisations that offer service to the public at large. We also separate 'public corporations' from departmental organisations that also lend service to the people, but which do not come under the total control of the government, obviously, in order to differentiate these two different types of organisation, we have comparative domain of control exercised by the government. Here 'control by the government' is the common framework of analysis of these two organisations or what we refer as 'concepts' that binds upon these organisations.

The second rationale for comparison is for the sake of classification. Once we have decided that we are going to talk about organisations, we need to determine what characterises an organisation. We want to use basis for classifying them. Traditionally, we have classified organisations primarily into three types-departments, public corporations and independent regulatory commissions. How we decide to classify our concepts depends largely on our theoretical interests, that is, on what we are hoping, to explain. When we want to differentiate the public organisations in terms of their sphere of autonomy from the government ('control, it means that we establish a reasonable paradigm for comparison. First, we go on to classify them into several categories. Then we have to compare them to identify similarities and differences among them.

After establishing the concepts and categories of classification, we can move on to put them in a particular theoretical framework that we can use for our research purpose. A theoretical framework is really just an explicitly stated set of explanations and hypotheses about how we think certain selected aspects of reality operate. These expectations and hypotheses must be verified, i.e., they should be compared with reality. They must be repeated several times to test accuracy. Therefore, comparison is crucial when we test accuracy in different situations or conditions. It must be remembered that we are comparing certain things only similar framework.

Thirdly, the process of deriving general statements of relationship between specific administrative phenomena with various settings is known as induction. Comparison is an important part of induction. Sometimes, research scholars by a logical process move from a more general statement to a more specific one. Obviously, comparison is crucial to deduction since the validity of using a given deduction to test a general proposition depends substantially on the degree of

comparability between concepts of the general statement and the concepts of specific statement. The above discussed matter is the process of scientific inquiries. It is undeniable that the scholars of public administration have relatively little knowledge of public administration in other countries. This is unfortunate because the increasing amount of interaction across national boundaries demands a considerable understanding of the administrative practices of others.

In addition, the CAG has made a significant contribution to the field of public administration, Arora identified the four elements of (comparative public administration) its contribution, viz:

- 1) It has widened the horizons of public administration.
- 2) It has opened the doors of the discipline to all kinds of social scientists.
- 3) It has made the scope of the field more systematic by studying different administrative systems in their ecological settings.
- 4) It has stimulated interest on the part of its members in the problems of developing administration.

According to Chaturvedi, the various contributions of comparative study in public administration are:

- (i) It has helped to eliminate the narrowness of provincialism and regionalism.
- (ii) It has broadened the field of social science research, which was earlier confined to cultural limitations.
- (iii) It has led to a greater scientific outlook in theory construction.
- (iv) It has encouraged the process of broadening the field of social analysis.
- (v) It has played an important role in making the subject of public administration broader, deeper, and useful.
- (vi) It has brought politics and public administration closer to each other.

In early 1980s, a number of scholars started a movement for revival of comparative public administration. They made efforts to arrest the downward trend of the field and to give a fresh life to it. These scholars included Ferrel Heady, Charles T. Goodsell, Jung S. Jun, Milton Esman, G.E Caiden, Naomi Caiden, and others. Ferrel Heady, who spearheaded the resurrection attempts, emphasized that: At this juncture, what comparative public administration needs is not prolonged post mortem of the past contributions but vigorous pursuit of attractive new opportunities.

Therefore, as a Master's student of NOUN and as an administrator comparative public administration is relevance in the following ways:

- Generalizations relating to administrative structures and behaviour emerging out of comparative studies in different nations and cultures can help in formulating theoretical constructs which can provide a scientific basis to the study of public administration.
- It contributes to a greater understanding of the individual characteristics of administrative systems functioning in different nations and cultures. It also helps in explaining factors responsible for cross-national and cross-cultural similarities as well as difference in the administrative systems.
- It helps administrators, policy makers, and academicians to examine causes for the success or failure of particular administrative structures and patterns in different environmental settings.
- It introduces us about the administrative practices followed in various nations so that we can adopt those practices which can fit in our own nations and system.

Importantly it has facilitated scientific and systematic study of public administration and in improving the knowledge about other administrative systems so that appropriate administrative reforms and changes can be brought about in different nations.

3.2 Prospects of Comparative Public Administration

About the future of comparative public administration, Heady said that the "comparative perspective will become more prominent, enriching general public administration by widening the horizon of interest in such a way that understanding of one's own motivational system of administration will be enhance by placing it in a cross-culture setting. In the present era of globalisation and liberalisation, the interaction between the nations of the world has increased. In this context, the new thrust areas for an analysis of comparative public administration can include the following:

- 1) Human rights enforcement.
- 2) Disinvestment of public sector enterprises.
- 3) International interdependency of bureaucracies.
- 4) Study on citizen charter.
- 5) Role of people in promoting or resisting administrative reforms.
- 6) Debureaucratisation.
- 7) Role of private sector.
- 8) Role of voluntary agencies/non-governmental organisations.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline four significance of comparative public administration according to CAG

4.0 CONCLUSION

The study of comparative public administration is very important in widening our horizon in relation to the administrative systems of other countries by emphasizing on both the weaknesses and strengths in order to determine the suitability of applying a particular system or otherwise. It also assist us in knowing why a particular system or approach is successful in one country but not in another country.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit features the significance and prospects of the study of comparative public administration. Comparative public administration paves way for making investigations capable of providing satisfactory solutions to the problems of public administration in different cultures. However, the future of comparative public administration is looked upon in relation to the new trend in applying the elements of new public management which has the features of capitalism.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and briefly discuss six (6) rationales for Comparative Public Administration study.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Arora, Ramesh K. (1972). *Comparative Public Administration: An Ecological Perspective*. New Delhi: Associated Publishing House.
- Barber, Michael P. (1972). *Public Administration*. London: McDonald and Evans Limited.
- Basu, R. (2004). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Private Ltd.
- Harris, J.P. and Corson, J.J. (1963). *Public Administration in Modern Society*. London: McGraw Hill.

- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.
- Henry, Nicholas. (2007). *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 10th Edition. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Hobbes, Thomas. (2009). "Project Gutenberg EBooks." *Project Gutenberg*. Edward White. 1651. (Accessed February 19, 2009).
- Mukhi, H. R. (1998). *Comparative Public Administration*. Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot.
- Rodgers, Barbara N., John Greve, and John S. Morgan. (1968). *Comparative Social Administration*. Edited by Brian Chapman. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.
- Sharma, M.P, Sadana, B.L., and H. Kaur (2011). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Kiah Mahal Publishers.
- Wilson, Woodrow. (1941). "The Study of Administration." *Political Quarterly. Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.

UNIT4 MODELS OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Uses of Models
 - 3.2 Max Weber Model of Bureaucracy
 - 3.3 Down's Model.
 - 3.4 Dorsey's Information-Energy Model.
 - 3.5 Marthur's Model
 - 3.6 Development Model
 - 3.7 Riggs's Prismatic Model
 - 3.8 Problems of applying models
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Good day everyone. I hope you are enjoying your study here in NOUN. I am optimistic you are. The quest for comparative administration study resulted in the interdisciplinary approach of the discipline. However, many theories, concepts and models were borrowed from related disciplines. Riggs even went to the extent of borrowing terms and terminology from biological discipline. Critics point out that Riggs over-reacted in borrowing technical terms from the most unrelated subjects. However, such a trend led to new conceptual framework and various studies of operational situations were made. Here the comparative administrative scholars sometimes speak a language strange to the ear of practising administrators. But, today the practising administrators, as well as academic specialists in public administration, have found comparative research of first importance to their work. Thus, this unit dwells into identifying and discussing the various Models of Comparative Public Administration, with emphasis on prismatic (sala) model, as well as the problems of applying the respective Models. However, the word model is treated in this unit as treated by Waldo, to mean simply the conscious effort or attempt to develop and define concepts or cluster of related concepts. It is useful in classifying data, describing reality and hypothesising about it. We must also distinguish between the term 'model' and 'theory'. In fact, both 'model' and 'theory' are used interchangeably. Generally speaking, 'theory' is more sophisticated tool than 'model'. However, Herbert Simon, Allen Newell,

Waldo and Nimrod Raphaeli used 'model' and 'theory' interchangeably in practice.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- outline the essence of using models in comparative public administration studies
- identify and examine the different Models of Comparative Public Administration.
- identify and apply the elements of prismatic (sala) model especially in relation to developing societies like Nigeria
- identify the challenges in applying the respective models.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Models

Basically, we may point out that models used in studying public administration share the following tendencies:

1. To study the social, cultural, political and economic factors that influence comparative studies (Ecological Model).
2. To use concepts that characterise public administration as a series of actions or behaviours, involved in meeting changing environmental demands.
3. To conceptualise administrative activity in a system way with particular attention to the goal of political system.
4. To deal implicitly or explicitly with the requisites for effective operation of administrative system.
5. To be presented in such a way as to imply their general relevance for the study of public administration.

Models are to organise information and facts that constitute the entire study. Certainly unorganised facts are not going to serve any purpose of research. Research findings are useful only when it fits into our established framework or into our established knowledge. In fact, models are replacing our framework of the study. To some degree models are universal framework of analysis of similar problems under study. Let us analyse each model separately and its proper use in comparative study of public administration. With the help of these models, we can discover the requirement of empirical investigation for some comparative research. We can also narrow down the collection of data, ordering data -and postulate relationship among variables.

3.2 Max Weber's Model

Weber's (1864-1920) model of bureaucracy was based on the political questions that dominated the nineteenth century scholars. He had integrated bureaucracy into the larger scheme of the three ideal types of authority. It is legal in the sense that it is based on a style of authority that is legitimated through legal processes. **Weber's Bureaucratic Model** Max Weber (1864-1920) presents an 'ideal type' of bureaucracy, which is capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and the most rational form of administration. Weber's idea about bureaucracy first published in 1921 based on legal-rational authority and was destined to dominate all other forms of bureaucracy because of its technical superiority over others.

It is rational in the sense that it controlled on the basis of knowledge. He supported strong leadership and expected the leaders to protect the mass against its own irrationality, and the individual against mob psychology. The identifying characteristics of bureaucracies were:

1. Fixed and official jurisdictions areas, controlled and ordered by written rules and regulations,
2. Clear division of labour with authority and responsibility equally clearly designated, maximising specialization and expertise,
3. The arrangements of all positions into a hierarchy of authority,
4. All officials appointed on the basis of qualifications,
5. Work viewed as a vocation, a full time occupation, and
6. Uniformity and impersonality "without regard to persons."

This kind of 'ideal bureaucracy' became the dominant form of civil service sub-system in the industrial world.

3.3 Down's Model

Anthony Downs explains the lifecycle of bureaus by first specifying the four ways in which bureaus are created. In his explanation, he refers to the routinisation of charisma as one of the type of bureau-genesis. Thus, according to Anthony Downs bureaucracy is the result of the common consequences of routinisation of charisma.

Secondly, he mentions about the creation of bureaucracy by social groups in order to perform specific functions. The third kind of bureaus is due to splitting of the existing ones and the last kind of bureau as a result of entrepreneurship of a few zealots. His central hypothesis is that bureaucrats are motivated by self-interests.

He goes on to list the various functions performed by nonmarket-oriented organisations, namely, those social functions incurring external cost of benefits, the allocation of resources to collective good which provide indivisible benefits, the implementation of polices dealing with redistribution of incomes, the regulation of monopolies and the maintenance of framework of law and order in the society. Downs emphasised the importance of career interest as determinants of administrative process. The application of economic 'market type' analysis to administrative process saw 'bureaucracy' as basically derived from the lack of exposure to an adaptive medium of the market type.

In his theory Law of Counter Control he states that the greater the efforts made by top-level official to control the behaviour of subordinate officials, the greater the efforts made by those subordinates to evade or counteract such control. The central assumption is that rational administrative agencies will tend to be 'imperialistic' competing with one another for 'space'. Downs model is much useful in comparing the origin of civil bureaucracies from the abovementioned perspectives. He differentiated five categories of bureaucrats-climbers, conservers, zealots, advocates and statesmen.

3.4 Dorsey's Information-Energy Model

Another prominent source of comprehensive model building was equilibrium theory by Dorsey postulating as system with *inputs and outputs as basis of analysis*. He believed that it might be useful in the analysis of social and political system in general as well as for a better understanding of administrative system. *It is popularly known as 'Information-Energy Model.'* Johan F. Dorsey's Information-Energy Model is based on a synthesis of concepts of general system theory of communications and cybernetics and of energy and energy conversion.

Dorsey's model conceptualises individuals, groups, organisations and societies as complete information-energy converters.

Energy is defined as the ability to affect some change of form, time of space in physical relationships, that is, to do work. Energy conversion, conversely, is the manifestation of this capacity or the process of affecting such changes. Information can be viewed as energy in certain forms or configurations. A system converts inputs such as demands and intelligence through various conversion processes of screening, selecting and channelising into outputs. Generally, high levels of information input, storage and processing permit a high energy output. An administrative system produces outputs in various forms, for example, regulation of services for sub-systems and systems forming part of its environment.

3.5 Mathur's Model

Mathur in his study analysed Block Development Officers (BOOs) of two different states in India. Before the analysis, he first clearly identified certain geographical, socio-economic and political factors which present a different background for the BOOs of the two states. Employing 'factor analysis' technique, he developed the major dimension of bureaucratic thinking and perceptions so as to establish an empirical pattern of the reactions of the bureaucrats to the changing environment.

Thereby, he developed a typology and a profile of the local administrators in a near similar cultural pattern to find out the differences in the perceptions and reactions of the bureaucrats of one state from the other and correlate such differences. In this study, the inferences drawn are as follows:

1. The same class of officials (BOOs) of different environmental settings is different.
2. Such differences are due to their different socioeconomic and political background.
3. Their behavioural patterns are different because of their different environment settings,
4. Such behavioural pattern differences are also due to their differences in education, recruitment and training methods.

Such models can be made use of similar studies in other parts of the country as well as in other aspects of administrative phenomena and at other levels of state administration.

3.6 The Development Model

Closely related to the study of comparative public administration is an indispensable tool in the attainment of the goals of the society which has attracted the mainstream of comparative administrators seeking ways and means to improve administrative performance and to strengthen the planning and execution of developmental programmes. The idea has its origins in the desire of wealthier countries to aid poorer countries and more especially is the obvious needs of the newly emerging national states to transform their colonial bureaucracies into more 'responsible instruments of social change.

It should be noted, however, the developmental administration is not the same as administrative development. Essentially, it is that aspect of public administration that focuses Models of Comparative Public Administration on government influenced change towards progressive

political, economic and social objectives, once confined to recipients of foreign aid but now universally applied. Developmental administration thus encompasses the organisations and development corporations, the reorientation of established agencies such as departments of agriculture, the delegation of administration powers to development agencies and the creation of cadre of administrators that can provide leadership in stimulating and supporting programmes of social and economic development. It has the purpose of making change as attractive as possible.

The above analysis reflects the inclination of the scholars to the revival of comparative public administration for the study of administrative system form micro-level and at a macro-level perspective. Such studies can be made by employing factor analysis technique. These techniques can reduce the original number of variables to smaller number of independent factors. Models of Comparative Public Administration in terms of which the whole set of variables can be understood to provide a simpler and more compact explanation of the regularities apparent in the attitudinal space of interest. Thus, the factor analysis is useful on the following grounds:

1. It takes thousands and potentially millions of measurements and qualitative observations,
2. It resolves them into distinct pattern of occurrence,
3. It makes explicit and more precise the building of facts linkages going on continuously in the human mind, and
4. There is a shift from purely descriptive, normative explanation to empirical, cross-cultural experimentation and interpretation.

3.7 Riggs ecological and Prismatic Model

Contemporary studies in comparative public administration made use of the ecological model developed by Riggs. This model can be used in cross-cultural analysis. He has been concerned primarily with conceptualising on the interaction between administrative system and their environment. His main focus was on 'developing' institutional societies where Riggs further developed prismatic-sala model.

The most prominent model builder in the comparative administrative movement is Fred W. Riggs. Riggs set forth his first major model in a lengthy way entitled *agraria* and *industria* towards a typology of comparative administration. He suggested illustrative typology of comparative administration systems in 'agraria' and 'industria' and claimed that similar types could be constructed at various transitional stages between the two with similar categories illustrating the

interdependence of administrative systems and societies. ***These are going to be discussed in details in our subsequent discussions.***

Thus, Riggs is considered the pioneer in the field of Ecological Approach to Public Administration. He stated that if studies of Public Administration had to become really comparative then it has to shift from being Normative (Establishing, relating to, or deriving from a standard or norm, esp. of behavior) to empirical (Based on, concerned with, or verifiable by observation or experience rather than theory or pure logic), from Ideographic (case by case study and not related to one another) to nomothetic (relating to the study or discovery of general scientific laws) and from non-ecological (closed and confined to one area) to ecological (Open and Cross-cultural).

He blamed the import of developed countries' administrative practices as it is by the developing countries for their progress without any study as the reason for its failure and the reason for developing countries still lagging behind.

In his ecological studies he gave the concept of structural functional approach as a means to study the environment and administration relation. According to this approach every society has various structures that perform specific functions like political, economic, social, symbolic and communicational functions in the society.

On the basis of this approach he proceeded to study and listed two theoretical models to explain the administrative systems in the comparative context. Those models are:

- i) **Agraria Model:** It is the Agricultural society and the characteristics are functional diffusion, particularistic norms, self-sufficiency, ascriptive (The attribution of something to a cause) values, stable local groups and limited or no mobility, differentiated stratification. Agraria is agriculture dominated society and Riggs takes China at the time for instance Imperial China. Occupational pattern is fixed that is Agriculture and carries on for many generations. Very few administrative structures and their functions/duties were not at all specified.
- ii) **Transitia Model:** It is the in between society. It is in between or let's use the term in transition between the Agraria and Industrial society and bears features resembling to both. It is on the path to become a developed society from an agricultural society. Examples are India, Thailand, etc.
- iii) **Industrial Model:** It refers to a developed or Industry dominated society. Its characteristics are Universalistic norms, Achievement values, specific patterns, high degree of social and spatial mobility, well-developed occupational system, egalitarian class

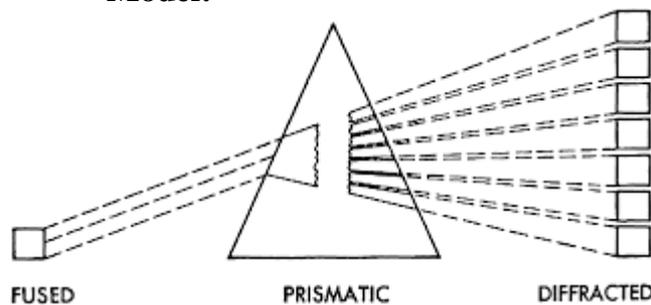
system, prevalence of associations which are functionally specific and non ascriptive. USA is an example of this society.

iv) Limitations and Critique of Riggs' Agraria-Transitia-Industria Model:

- 1) It does not help in examining the transitional societies and is too rigid focusing only on the underdeveloped and developed countries.
- 2) It does not provide sufficient mechanism to study mixed-type societies. Critics argue that the industrial societies will always retain or have some agrarian features.
- 3) It assumes a unidirectional movement from an agraria stage to an industrial stage.
- 4) Its major stress is on the environment of the administrative system but not on the administrative system per se.
- 5) It is too general and abstract with little resemblance to concrete reality.

Consequently Riggs abandoned this typology and proceeded to better it and that resulted in a new typology/model he designed which was the Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model.

v) Riggs Improved typology: Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model:



It is the more improvised and specified version of his previous typology where the fused society can be compared to the agrarian model, the prismatic society can be compared to the Transition model and the Diffracted society can be compared to the Industrial model. This Model was designed to silence those critics who stated that Riggs had not effectively and in detail specified the 'Transitia' society which was very important as most of the world in that phase.

This model effectively detailed all of the typologies. The new model is based on the principle of a prism and how it diffracts fused colours of white light back into the seven colours of the spectrum when passed through it. White light represents a society with very less degree of specialisation and development and the diffracted spectrum reflects the highly specialised and developed society. The in between prismatic society is the transition society. He stated that neither of the extreme

sides exist in totality or as it is but yes, it is certain that they do but in varying degrees as suitable to the environment/ecology. First we will discuss the Fused and Diffracted model and then proceed to explain the Prismatic model. A good understanding of the Fused and Diffracted Model will only be the tool to understand the Prismatic Model features.

vii) Fused Model (ex- imperial China and Thailand):

- 1) Heavily dependent on agriculture.
- 2) Economic system based on barter system.
- 3) King and officials nominated by the king carry out all administrative, economic and other activities.
- 4) Royal family and special sects dominate.
- 5) Ascriptive values dominate.
- 6) Having many administrative structures that are part diffracted (perform special functions they are given charge of) and part fused (many structures performing many functions which are not prescribed to them thus overlapping with the diffracted ones and confusing the system).

viii) Diffracted Model:

- 1) It is the polar opposite of the fused society. Each structure carries out its own functions.
- 2) Attainment value in society.
- 3) Economic system based on market mechanism (demand and supply)
- 4) Responsive government
- 5) General consensus among all the people on all basic aspects of social life.

Criticism of Riggs' Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model:

- 1) Usage of scientific words does not make administration science.
- 2) It has highly technical description
- 3) Prismatic and sala models are equilibrium models and does not lead to social change.
- 4) Lack of measurement of level of diffraction in prismatic or diffracted society.
- 5) Diffracted society is also not desirable because it is static and in equilibrium.
- 6) Difficult to identify the level of differentiation and integration for development.
- 7) Lack of international perspective.
- 8) Wrong analytical tool.
- 9) Fails to explain the role of administration in society.
- 10) Overlapping is not specific phenomena of prismatic society but exists in diffracted society also.
- 11) Prismatic model has a negative character.

Irrespective of the criticism Riggs attracted there is no denying that he set the table and standards for Comparative Public Administration and got to the root of the failure of Americanised and Europised Public Administration practices failing in developing countries, through his important paradigm called "The Ecological approach to Public Administration", and also suggested the issues that plague the developing countries and how to rectify them.

3.7.1 Prismatic Sala Model

Riggs also come out with the prismatic sala model. This is an Administrative subsystem which is called the SALA MODEL (The Spanish word, 'Sala', has a variety of meanings like a government office, religious conference, a room, a pavilion, etc. The word, 'Sala', is also generally used in East Asian countries more or less with the same meaning.):-

Prismatic Sala model can be described to have:

Heterogeneity - Simultaneous existence of different kinds of system and viewpoints. Example includes rural-urban, Indian gurukuls - western education, homoeopathic-allopathic. Various factors pulling the system apart, political and administrative officers enjoy enormous influence.

Formalism: (Excessive adherence to prescribed forms) - Discrepancy between formally prescribed and effectively practiced norms. Rules and regulations are prescribed but wide deviations are observed. Lack of pressure on govt. for programme objectives, weakness of social powers to influence bureaucratic performance, hypocrisy in social life, constitution formalism which means that there is a gap between stated principles and actual implementation are the major manifestations of formalism. Thus, Universalization of law is there but is not followed. Objective is social welfare but priority is personal aggrandizement.

Overlapping: Differentiated structures coexist with undifferentiated structures of fused type. New or modern social structures are created, but traditional social structures continue to dominate. Example - Parliament, Government, Offices exist but behaviour is still largely governed by family, religion, caste, etc. Thus, highly concentrated authority structure overlaps with localized and dispersed control system.

Nepotism: Non-cooperation among rival communities also reflects in administration. So favouritism and nepotism is widespread. Therefore, in real, no society is completely fused or completely diffracted. A prismatic society has achieved a certain degree of differentiation or specialisation.

3.7.2 Bazaar Canteen Model:

This is the economic sub-system of the prismatic model with the following characteristics:

- a) Market factors (demand and supply) as well as area factors (religious, social, and family) dominate the economy.
- b) There is price indeterminacy which further deteriorating economic conditions encouraging black marketing, hoarding, adulteration etc.
- c) Foreign domination and a small section of people dominate economic institution.
- d) Price of services varies from place to place, time to time and person to person.
- e) Economic subsystem acts like subsidized canteen to privileged & tributary canteen to members of less privileged, politically non influential or members of outside group.
- f) Wage relation: Wide gap exists for same work. Persons with less wage may feel motivated to earn more by illegitimate means.

According to critics, the Riggsian prismatic-sala model suffers from over-generalization and has lost its specificity. According to Prof. C.P. Bhambhri, the prismatic model of Riggs is inadequate for the study of even the transitional societies. The developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America are not a homogeneous category. The French, Dutch, and British tried to mould their colonies in different regions of Asia and Africa according to their own cultures and political heritage. The result is that there are different types of developing countries. Hence, one single model seems to be inadequate for the study of even the so called prismatic society.

Despite its limitations the Riggsian ecological approach is regarded as the single most important intellectual break-through in the modern study of Public administration. The Riggsian approach touches wider horizons than classical and behavioural theories. Classical organizational theories emphasize mainly organizational principles and behavioural theories concentrate on human behaviour in organizations. But ecological theories emphasize the interaction of administration with its environment. The ecological approach has destroyed the classical writer's belief in the existence of universal principles of administration and their applicability to all countries with diverse ecological settings; it has led to the development of a contingency approach that views each administrative strategy in the context in which it is used.

The practical importance of Riggsian approach lies in the insights it provides in the policy-formulation process in the areas of technical assistance and administrative development. It has shown to the

professional administrators that they should develop solutions to administrative problems in developing countries in accordance with the local Conditions. His sala-model has revealed the gravitational pull of the local conditions on the administrative system of a developing nation. It provides an opportunity to analyse and understand the administrative systems in developing countries. It helps us in determining the relationships and mutual influences between ecological and administrative factors. It is therefore useful to understand the administrative realities in transitional societies. It has taken the cross-cultural studies on the administrative systems of developing nations; Riggs attempt to provide a theoretical framework for making a study of administration in developing countries is certainly an important contribution la the development of Public administration as a science. His comparative models are designed to contribute to a better undertaking of actual societies, particularly those undergoing rapid social, economic and administrative changes.

3.8 Challenges in the Applications of Models

The foregoing brief review of some of the models for the study of public administration on a comparative basis raises a number of questions about their applications in understanding the administrative systems in the developing world. Which particular model is most appropriate and for what purpose and where should it be applied? The central problem in the study of comparative public administration is that it is large enough to embrace all the phenomena that it should be studies.

The second problem is of relating the universal model and the unique in one system. The idea of universal model runs through administrative study for example in the assertions of the founding fathers to the most sophisticated of our contemporaries in the field. But to make comparisons implies not only the identification of the universals but also discovering criterion of differentiation.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify five models of comparative public administration and briefly explain any two

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are different models of comparative public administration but these models are not perfect in their application. The choice of models thus is intimately related to the choice of a research strategy and to the most effective employment of limited resources. None of these models listed previously may present a perfect analysis of contemporary

administrative scenes in diverse cultural settings. But if carefully used, models (they) do serve as a framework for analysing different aspects of administrative phenomena in a comparative perspective. These models may be useful in revealing more clearly the social, economic and political basis on which administrative institutions depend. In public administration they are impressionistic and non-quantitative. It is only when we understand their limitations that we can use these models intelligently and safely to help towards an understanding of administrative behaviour. However, Riggs prismatic sala model was used specifically to explain the nature or system of administration in developing countries of Asia, Afriaca and Latin America. The salient features include heterogeneity, overlapping and formalism, this is the case if one looks at the Nigeria's context.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit discusses the uses or essence and the various models of comparative public administration ranging from Weber's bureaucracy, prismatic model by Riggs, etc. Whatever is the case, models are used to deal implicitly or explicitly with the requisites for effective operation of administrative system, to be presented in such a way as to imply their general relevance for the study of public administration etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Outline five uses of models in comparative public administration studies
Critically discuss the prismatic sala model of Comparative Public Administration and apply it to explain the Nigeria's administrative system

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Campbell, S.J.C and Peters, G.B. (1988). *Organising Governance, Governing Organisations*: Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Press.

Charlesworth, J.C. (1968). *Theory and practice of Public Administration: scope, objectives and methods*: Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Sciences.

Gladden, E. N. (1972). *A History of Public Administration*: London: Frank Cass and Company.

- Heady, F. (1962). "Comparative Public Administration: Concerns and Priorities," a Paper in *Comparative Public Administration*, (eds.), Ferrel Heady and Sybil Stokes: Ann Arbor: MI: Institute of Public Administration.
- Heady, F. (1984). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*: 3rd edition: Englewood Cliffs: New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- James L. Perry (ed) (1989). *Handbook of Public Administration*: San Francisco: Jossey-Bosso, Inc.
- James G. M. and Simon, H. (1958). *Organisation*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Mayer, J.P. and Weber, M. (1974). *Theory of Modern Politics*. London: Allen and Unwin ,pp. 30-32.
- Rathod. P.B (2007). *Comparative Public Administration*. Jaipur, India:Abd Publishers
- Simon, H.A. et al. (1971). *Public Administration* 7th edition: New York: Knopf.
- Waldo, D. (1955). *The study of Public Administration*. New York: Random House.
- White, L.D. (1936). The Meaning of Principles of Public Administration, in *The Frontiers of Public Administration*, (eds), John M. Gaus, Leonard D White, and Marshall E. Dimock. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- White, L.D. (1955). *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*: New York: Macmillan.

UNITS 5 APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Behavioural approach
 - 3.2 Systems Approach
 - 3.3 Structural-Functional Approach
 - 3.4 Development Administration Approach
 - 3.5 Bureaucratic Approach
 - 3.6 Institutional Approach
 - 3.7 Cross-cultural Approach
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments and Answers
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Welcome to this unit, here we are going to extend our discussion from the previous unit where we discussed the various models of comparative public administration to the discussion of the various approaches to the study of comparative public administration. These approaches include the Behavioural approach, Systems Approach, Structural-Functional Approach, Development Administration Approach, Bureaucratic Approach, institutional approach, cross-cultural approach etc.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

identify and describe the various approaches to the study of CPA

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Behavioural Approach

The modern behavioural science movement was an outgrowth of the earlier human relations movement after the Second World War and evolved out of the Hawthorne Experiments. It was found during these studies that if supervisors developed effective human relations skills in counseling employees and established their authority on a basis of social skills and securing cooperation among employees, rather depending on

technical and coercive authority, employee's productivity would increase. Among the prominent behaviouralists are Abraham Maslow, Chris Argyris, Douglas McGregor, Rensis Likert, Hugo Munsterberg, Mary Parker Follett, Chester Barnard and others.

The behavioural scientists *stressed the importance of emotional element such as feelings and sentiments to explain human behaviour and performance in organisations*. The approach argues that beyond economic or material needs, man has some socio-psychological needs which must be satisfied for him to achieve optimal performance. As Nwizu (1998) rightly noted, human beings who work in organizations have aspirations and desires. Their behaviour is conditioned by their psychology, motives and social environment. The administrative sciences should study these "facts" of behaviour without getting involved in the question of "values". They used the knowledge of psychology, socio-psychology, anthropology and management.

- This approach has made some useful contributions which include its emphasis on the use of participation and ways to handle conflict arising from strong differences of opinion within an organisation;
- It recognizes the important influence of the environment and constraints on behaviour. The approach recognizes the importance of informal leadership for setting and enforcing group standards of performance;
- It made us to understand the importance of individual motivation, group behaviour, interpersonal relationships at work and the importance of work to human beings;
- It was this school which produced the concepts of job enrichment, management by objectives and rewarding good performance; and
- It was this approach which virtually laid the foundation of the discipline of Human Resources Management.

In this approach, three basic levels of analysis are involved. The first level is that of the *individual*, with his personality, motives, drives, attitudes, values, learning and adaptation abilities.

The second level is the *group* level with its norms, values, sentiments, interaction patterns, problem solving and decision-making processes, adaptation and change mechanisms, conflicts, formal and informal behaviour.

The third level is the *total organization* which is generally viewed as a complex human system.

However, behavioural approach suffers from certain criticisms. Scholars observed that its assumption that all employees will seek self-actualization at work is not based on facts. People have diverse needs. It is wrong to assume that everyone is motivated by the same need in the same manner. Their assumption of great deal of compatibility between individual and organizational goals is not based on reality. The fact is that every individual has the desire to be autonomous and creative which is in conflict with the need of an organization to be efficient, orderly and predictable. This theory does not attach any importance to non-human aspects of organization like technology. Finally, it has the same weakness as that of the classical approach and that is its assumption that the one best way of managing as humanizing organizations.

The behavioural approach debunked the tradition approach to administration, as well as earlier theories of formal organization. It brought into the forefront the role of the individuals and small groups in achievement of organizational objectives. The approach argues that beyond economic or material needs, man has some socio-psychological needs which must be satisfied for him to achieve optimal performance. The behavioural approach borrowed most of its methods and techniques from sociology and social anthropology. The approach aims at developing knowledge that is verifiable, systematic and general. It is, therefore, theory-oriented and concerned with pure rather than applied research.

3.2 Systems Approach

Having looked at the behavioural approach next is the systems approach. Public Administration (comparative) as a field of human activity is the product of environmental factors, such as: social, cultural, economic and political of which it is a part. These environmental factors impinge on the public administration. Political system refers to the whole collection of related, interacting institutions and agencies. It is concerned with formulating and implementing the collective goals of a society or of groups within it. In this unit, we shall examine how the system approach can be used to analyze and compare the political systems of two or more countries.

The concept of administrative system originates from the theoretical work that is most frequently cited in Political Science - System Analysis by Easton (1965). According to Easton (1965), political system comprises of those identifiable and interrelated institutions and activities (government institutions and processes) in a society that make authoritative allocations of values (decisions) that are binding on the society.

A system is made up of a combination of elements: inputs, outputs, environment, conversion process and feedback. A system framework shows how these elements relate to and interact with one another. An entire set of these elements and their interactions in an environment is called a system.

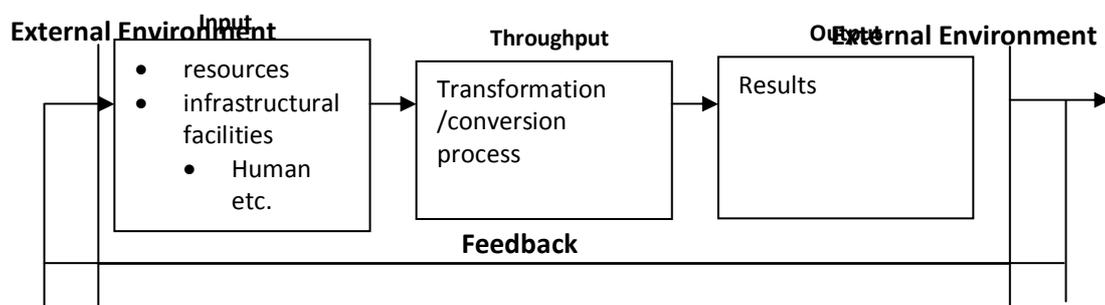
A system is a useful framework for treating administrative activities in all governments in certain settings. The system is a conceptual framework, whose purpose is to help to explain Public Administration activities. With the system as a guide, information about items that seem to function as conversion components, inputs, outputs, and feedback mechanisms are collected.

The interaction of these elements with one another may appear in a closed system in which decision-makers respond continuously to the impact that their previous decisions have had upon their environment. However, in the real world, there are numerous features that can influence the decisions of the participants. Environments change in response to national and international politics, economic events and natural disasters. New inputs continuously come from the demands of citizens and citizen organizations. Officials have many options in reviewing the feedback from their previous decisions: officials differ in the weight they assign to precedent, to the demands that come from citizens or from other officials and to their own assessment about the success of current activities.

To examine the systems that link administrative units with their environments, it is necessary to recognize the borders that surround the conversion process and that separate it from inputs and outputs. The conversion process includes units that provide services, collect taxes and impose regulations. Administrative units are variously termed: “departments, bureaus, agencies, Commissions, offices, services, etc.

Fig 1: Systems Model

Open System (The Organization)



The system views an administrative system as a sub-system of the society. It looks at various parts of an administrative system (formal

organisation, informal organisation, roles, and individuals) and examines the inter-linkages among various parts. Besides, the approach analyses the dynamic interactions between the administrative system and its external environment.

In conversion process, these administrative units are found within the Executive branch of national, state and local government in Unit.

The political system is a set of institutions and agencies concerned with formulating and implementing the collective goals of a society or of groups within it. Governments are the policy making parts of political systems. A political system consists of inputs, conversion process, outputs, environment and feedback. These component parts are interdependent and interact with one another. They influence their environment and also are influenced by their environment. An important element in the system approach is the emphasis on input- output analysis.

However, the usefulness of political system approach in studying public policy or decisions is limited because it does not say much about the procedures and processes by which decisions are made and policy is developed. Nonetheless, it is helpful in organizing enquiry into policy formation and decisions of a particular government, which can be compared with another country. A system is essentially an assemblage of things interconnected or independent so as to form a complex unity (Koontz et al, 1983:70). It refers to the whole collection of related, interacting institutions and agencies. Political system is a particular type of social system that is involved in the making of authoritative public decisions. Central elements of a political system are the institutions of government such as bureaucracy, parliaments, courts, political parties, interest groups, etc. These institutions are involved in formulating government policies and decisions. The study of administrative system helps us to know which institution would best flourish in a particular environment in comparison with that in another country or countries.

3.3 Structural-Functional Approach

Structural-functionalism (approach) was developed from the work of the anthropologists, like Malinowski and Red Cliffe Brown in the early years of the present century. The important followers of this approach includes: Gabriel Almond, David Apter, Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton and Fred Riggs. Almond (1965) adopted input-output model of David Easton's system approach into the political system vis-a-vis demands and support. The main thrust of Almond's structural-functionalism centres on his assertion that all political systems must perform specific set of functions or they are to remain in existence as a system in equilibrium or working order. These functions may be performed by

different kinds of structure within different types of political systems. In this unit, we shall examine the concept of structural-functionalism and its relevance in comparative public administration.

Almond and Powell (1965) defined structural-functionalism as “a form of system analysis which looks at political systems as a coherent whole, which influences and is in turn influenced by the environment”. To Almond and Powell (1965), the premise of structural-functionalism is to provide a consistent and integrated theory from which can be derived explanatory hypotheses relevant to all aspects of a political system.

The Structural-functional framework provides an important mechanism for the analysis of different social processes. In Structural-functionalism, social structure is viewed as any pattern of behaviour which has become a standard feature of a social system.

The two concepts basic to the approach are structure and function. While functions concern the consequences of patterns of action, structures refer to the patterns of actions and the resultant institutions of the systems themselves.

Almond and Powell (1966), the proponents of structural-functionalism pointed out that political system can be compared in terms of how functions are performed. Premising their analysis on modern Western political systems, they assert that political systems perform two sets of functions, namely: input and output functions.

The input-output model of Almond (1965) was taken from David Easton’s distinction between two classes of inputs into the political system, viz demands and supports. Demands are classified under four headings:

- 1) *Demands for goods and services*, such as wage and hour laws, educational opportunities, recreational facilities, roads and transportation;
- 2) *Demands for participation in the political system* for the right to vote, hold office, petition governmental bodies and officials, organize political associations and the like; and
- 3) *Demands for the regulation of behaviour*, such as provision of public safety, control over markets and labour relations, rules pertaining to marriage and the family
- 4) *Symbolic inputs*, such as demands for the display of the majesty and power of the political system in periods of threat or ceremonial occasions, or demands for the affirmation of norms or the communication of the policy intent from political elites (Almond, 1965:193).

Support inputs also may be classified under four headings:

- a) ***Material supports***, such as the payment of taxes or other levies and the provision of services; such as labour contributions or military services;
- b) ***Obedience to laws*** and regulations
- c) ***Participation***, such as voting, joining organizations, and communicating about politics; and
- d) ***Manifestation of deference to public authority***, symbols and ceremonials (Almond, 1965:194).

The inputs consisting of demands and supports are converted by the political system into Policy outputs (extractive, regulative, distributive and symbolic outputs). In other words, the political system processes inputs and convert them into outputs. The demands entering the political system are articulated, aggregated or combined, converted into policies, rule-making, rule-application, rule adjudication, regulations, applied and enforced. The conversion functions of the political system, thus, may be divided into:

- 1) The articulation of interests or demands
- 2) The integration of interests or combination of interests into policy proposal;
- 3) The conversion of policy proposals into authoritative rules;
- 4) The application of general rules to particular cases
- 5) The adjudication of rules in individual cases and
- 6) The transmission of information about these events within the political system from structure to structure and between the political system and its social and international environments (Almond, 1965:194-5).

Thus, the authoritative output usually affect the environment as outcomes and in turn excite some form of feedback, that is, changes in the intensity and volume of demands and support from the environment. Almond added that political communication must be undertaken to inform all within the political system and outside of these diverse activities. Additionally, every system performs system maintenance and adaptation function through political socialization and recruitment of people.

Structural-functional approach has shown that there is no clear and direct relationship between structures and functions. All similar structures do not necessarily perform similar functions. A social structure may perform multiple functions and similarly one function may be performed by more than one structure. In other words, this approach focuses on description of structures of governmental

administration as a basis both for comparison and prescription. When applied to the study of public administration, it will be possible for example, to describe the formal structure of local government and the civil service in different African countries. When this is done, it becomes possible to do a cross-country comparison of structures.

Structural-functionalism as an analytical tool was borrowed from anthropologists and adopted into political system by Almond (1965). However, the input-output model of Almond was taken from David Easton's system model (1965). The main thrust of Almond's structural-functionalism centres on his assertion that all political systems must perform specific set of functions or they are to remain in existence as a system in equilibrium or working order. These functions may be performed by different kinds of structure within different types of political systems. At times, these functions may even be performed by structures that are not overtly recognized as political. The premise of structural-functionalism is to provide a consistent and integrated theory from which can be derived explanatory hypotheses relevant to all aspects of a political system. However, the formal structural-descriptive approach has been criticized for not paying attention "to the process of administration notably the critical factor of human relations" (Ademolekun, 1983:20).

Structural-functional approach has shown that there is no clear and direct relationship between structures and functions. All similar structures may perform multiple functions and similarly one function may be performed by more than one structure. Thus, structural functionalism has helped to clarify the general misconception that similar structures in diverse environments perform similar functions or that absence of certain structures implies that particular functions are not being performed in particular social systems.

3.4 Development Administration Approach

The development Administration approach of focused on two major approaches. The first development administration felt that policy implementation in the developing countries could be improved through the transfer of administrative procedures and techniques from industrialized countries. These theorists followed the Weberian model. They emphasized the role of bureaucracy as instrument of development.

The approach further views government bureaucracy for sustaining development programmes as ideal for Third World countries to import into their system. However, the focus of development Administration has changed over the years. As it was once confined to deployment of foreign aid and technical assistance, development administration now

focuses on planned change to meet the nation's broad political, economic, social and cultural objectives (Bjurand and Guiden 1978: 357-365). Many organizations, such as non-government, community, cultural are now involved in development projects. Now participative, decentralized and localized administrative approaches to development are encouraged. In this unit, we shall examine the meaning of contemporary development administration and its relevance to comparative public administration.

In terms of definition, Weidner (1962) defined development administration as an "action-oriented, goal-oriented administrative system". He further viewed development administration in government as "the process of guiding an organisation toward the achievement of progressive political, economic, and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or another". Fainsod (1963) viewed development administration as "a carrier of innovating values. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernization and industrialization. Riggs (1979) viewed development administration both to administrative problems and governmental reform.

Development and Non-Development Administration

Sometimes a distinction is made between development administration and non-development administration or "traditional" administration. It is said that both are similar so far as these are concerned with how rules, policies and norms are implemented by government organisations but they differ in their objectives, scope, complexity and degree of innovation in the developmental administration. It may, however, be said that the differing mixes of administrative departments will be seen as developmental for non-developmental processes start only when a country has achieved political freedom. The apparent developmental non-developmental dichotomy is due to the impression that development administration is concerned solely with the administration of developing countries. The difference between the two concepts may really be in the degree of emphasis or the ecological setting in which an administration functions.

Characteristics of Development Administration

The following characteristics of development administration can be identified:

Change Orientation

The distinctive feature of development administration is its central concern with socio-economic change. It is this special orientation which distinguishes it from regulatory or traditional administration which is basically concerned with maintenance of status quo.

Result Orientation

Development administration has to be result oriented since changes have to be brought rapidly and within a definite time schedule. Its performance is directly related to productivity, for example, increase in per capita income, etc.

Commitment

In development administration, the organisational role expectation is commitment to socio-economic change and concern for completing time bound programmes. Bureaucracy is expected to be “involved” and emotionally attached to the jobs they are called to perform.

Client Orientation

Another characteristic of development administration is that it is client oriented. It has to be positively oriented towards satisfying the needs of the people in specific target groups. The satisfaction of these needs is the criterion for evaluating performance of the development administration. The people are not the passive beneficiaries; they are the active participants in the development or public programmes. It is thus close relation between the “public” and “administration” that is an essential attribute of development administration.

Temporal Dimension

Since socio-economic changes have to be brought as quickly as possible, time assumes considerable importance in development administration. All development programmes are prepared for a certain time frame and must be completed within that.

It is a very common practice now a day to classify the modern states into two broad categories on the basis of their development - “developed” and “developing”. As earlier discussed, the nature of administration of a country is influenced by its environment. This implies that the “developed” and “developing” countries will have administrative sub-systems peculiar to them. This also explains the fact that there are differences within the administrative sub-system of both developed and developing countries that can be compared.

In contemporary world, development administration approach is viewed in economic terms, using Human Development Index (HDI) as framework of analysis. Both developed and developing countries can

now assess their human development based on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) now Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the MDGs goals include:

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Achieve universal primary education
- Promote gender equality and empower women
- Reduce child mortality
- Improve maternal health
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Ensure environmental sustainability and
- Develop a global partnership for development

All these indicators are used by UNDP indices for assessing and comparing the performances of developed and developing countries on human development.

Development approach has passed various stages. The first development administration felt that policy implementation in the developing countries could be improved through the transfer of administrative procedure and techniques from industrialized countries. Another view was that political processes and administrative structures had to be thoroughly transformed and modernized before the developing nations could achieve economic and social progress.

However, development administration has changed over the years. There is now a shift from the blue print approach to people-centred approach. The central themes of people-centred development are empowerment of people, development of administrative processes which responds to the needs of the people and human development. Many organisations, such as: non-government organisations, community, cultural organisations are now involved in development projects. Now, participative, decentralized and localized administrative approaches to development are encouraged

3.5 Bureaucratic Approach

Remember that we have attempted discussion of Bureaucracy under the model of comparative public administration. The origin of the term “bureaucracy” is not entirely very clear, with some insisting that it originated from the French word “Burokrate”. However, as a subject for scholars, the term as earlier stated is primarily associated with the German social scientist Max Weber (1947).

The concept of bureaucracy has been used in so many different ways that it is difficult to provide acceptable meaning of the term. In the field

of Sociology, bureaucracy has been understood as particular type of organization- as a system of administration rather than a system of government. In Social Sciences, bureaucracy is usually understood as a mode of organization. Modern political analysis, however, use the term bureaucracy to mean the administrative machinery of the state, bureaucrats, being non-elected state officials or civil servants, who may or may not be subject to political control. Bureaucracy can also be used as a general invective to refer to any inefficient organization encumbered by red-tapism.

The most systematic study of bureaucratic phenomena is traced back to German Sociologist, Max Weber (1864-1920). To Weber, a person could be said to have “power” if within a social relationship his own could be enforced despite resistance. If this power is exercised for the structuring of human groups, it becomes a special instance of power called “authority”. Thus, Weber distinguished between power and authority. Authority is instrumental in the emergence of organisation. The rules of an organisation are termed “administration”. The most important aspect of the administration is that it determines who was to give commands to whom. Thus, every form of authority expresses itself and functions as administration.

According to Weber, all authority is “legitimate” because it is always founded on a popular belief structure. People may believe that obedience was justified because the person giving the order had some sacred or altogether outstanding characteristics. This authority of that person is “charismatic”. That authority would be “traditional” if the command is obeyed out of reverence for old established patterns of order. The third type of authority is legal authority to which Weber attaches “rational” character”. In this case, men might believe that a person giving an order was acting in accordance with his duties as stipulated in a code of legal rules and regulations. Weber thought that an ideal bureaucratic organisation can most effectively achieve a prescribed goal while eliminating arbitrariness and discord in interpersonal and inter-group relationships.

Max Weber, who used an “ideal type” approach to extrapolate from the real world the central core of features that would characterize the most fully developed bureaucratic form of organization. This ideal type is neither a description of reality nor a statement of normative preference. It is merely an identification of the major variables or features that characterize bureaucracy. The fact that such features might not be fully present in a given organization does not necessarily imply that the organization is not bureaucratic. It may be an immature rather than a fully developed bureaucracy.

Characteristics of Bureaucracy

Weber's ideal type of bureaucracy possesses the following characteristics:

A Hierarchy: The bureaucratic organization is structured as a pyramid with an absolute Boss on top, who divides up the overall task of the organization and gives responsibility for each sub-task to sub-bosses who divided responsibility yet more finely and so on through an unbroken chain of sub-bosses that stretches down to every employee. The Boss provides coordination between units that is, coordination from above. In other words, all coordination must rise up and pass through the next higher boss.

Specialization: Bureaucracy achieves efficiency through specialization of labour. In fact, the organizational structure of a bureaucracy is created by dividing the overall task into a series of well-defined specialties or functions. Each function is given responsibility for a defined set of tasks and given the tools needed to accomplish that task. The Boss gives orders and assigns tasks in such a way that all the parts add up to a coherent whole.

Uniform Written Rules and Policies: A bureaucracy is governed by uniform written rules and policies that in a corporation, profit or not for profits are set by the board and the management. These rules define the rights and duties of employees and manage. In bureaucracy, the Boss is responsible for the actions of all the people under him or her and has the right to give them orders that they must dutifully obey.

A Standard Procedures Defining Each Job: In a bureaucracy, fixed procedures govern how employees are to perform their tasks, sometimes to an astonishing degree. Standardized procedures serve to make lessons learned in one part of the organization more broadly effective and to overcome irrational resistance to more effective ways of doing things.

A career based on promotion for technical competence:

Success in the bureaucratic organization is defined as a lifetime career of advancing to higher levels in the chain of command. Rising in the ranks provides both power and symbols of status. Promotion is achieved through technical competence in one's specialty and efficiency in carrying out orders. The professional career provides a "contract" between employee and organization. In its simplest form, a person devotes himself or herself to the organization in exchange for structured work and wages.

Impersonal Relations

In bureaucracy, relationships are from role rather than from person to person. The organizational structure and job description defined what is expected of an individual in each role and the holder of a particular role is expected to carry out its responsibilities in a rational and unemotional manner. Impersonal relations helped move bureaucracy beyond nepotism and favouritism by preventing family feeling or friendship from getting in the way of enforcing rules and making tough decisions. It kept managers sentiments from getting in the way of their duties.

Despite all these criticism, scholars are yet to find real substitute for bureaucratic approach. Bureaucracy in a political system offers the large-scale complex administrative capacities for performing government duties. Inherent in bureaucracy is the existence of certain organizational features and behavioural traits of the participants - known as bureaucrats. Administrative roles are highly specialized or differentiated and hierarchal relationship thoroughly understood; the service in the bureaucracy for professionals, who are salaried and have tenured status, whose service will only be terminated subject to laid down procedures.

To the critics, bureaucracy was efficient for certain kind of repetitive tasks that characterized the early industrial revolution. It no longer works so well because its rules and procedures are often dramatically opposed to the principle needed for workers to take the next step toward greater organizational intelligence (Gifford and Pinchot, 1994: 37).

3.6 Institutional Approach

This approach is mainly concerned with the study of the institutions of government, that is, executive, legislative and judiciary as well as their constitutions, compositions, structures and functions of same especially the executive branch where the core civil service falls under. Thus, it can be used for comparative study because administrative (and political) institutions transplanted from one country may differ in constitution, composition and functions with that of another.

In other words, institutional approach is concerned with the compositions and organisations of the structure, functioning and rules and regulations of the said institutions. One of the proponents of the approach is Riggs. Also, one can compare the systems of government like presidential, parliamentary as well as the political parties' formation, though that is not the emphasis of comparative public administration. The institutions that can be compared may include the ministries, departments, agencies as well as the different components that make up a particular institution.

3.7 Cross-Cultural Approach

This approach lies in the fact that public administration is culture-bound or shaped by its setting or environment. It develops its own peculiar characteristics in different cultural settings. Thus, we have developed and developing cultures, the Agraria-Transia-Industria and Fused-Prismatic and Diffracted as developed by Riggs. Also, based on the cross-cultural approach, Heady identified the classic (France and Germany), civic (United Kingdom and USA) and modernizing (Japan) administrative cultures.

Also, a cross-national analysis of administrative system involves countries forming part or different "cultures" this would be called a cross-cultural analysis. For instance, comparing the administrative system of the USSR (a socialist state) with the U.S. (a capitalist system) could be termed a cross-cultural analysis. Even a comparison between developed countries (e.g. France) with a developing country (e.g. Nigeria) or between developing democratic countries (e.g. Philippines) and a developing Communist regime (e.g. Vietnam) will be covered in a cross-cultural comparison.

Thus-the word "cultural" in the category "cross-cultural" has a broad connotation and involves an aggregation of distinctive political, economic and socio-cultural traits of a particular system and its environment. Such a comparison involves different time-frames for analysis. For instance, a comparison between the administrative system prevailing during ancient Rome and modern Italy or between the administrative practices prevailing during the period of Jawaharlal Nehru and Indira Gandhi would fall under the rubric of cross-temporal analysis.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify five approaches to the study of comparative public administration and briefly discuss any three

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having looked at the various approaches to the study of CPA, it should be noted that none of the approach is perfect; rather each has its own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, scholars are of the view that it is better to use a combination of two or more approaches when conducting or engaging in comparative studies of administrative systems of two or more countries or systems than restricting in using one.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, there are various approaches to the study of public administration on comparative basis; hence, the unit features the discussion of various approaches to the comparative public administration study ranging from behavioural approach, systems approach, structural-functional approach, institutional approach, cross-cultural approach etc. None of the approaches is perfect and the use of any or combination of two or more approaches depend on the study one is conducting and the unit of analysis.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify five approaches to the study of comparative public administration and critically discuss three of the approaches

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Campbell, S.J.C and Peters, G.B. (1988). *Organising Governance, Governing Organisations*: Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Press.

Charlesworth, J.C. (1968). *Theory and practice of Public Administration: scope, objectives and methods*: Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Sciences.

Gladden, E. N. (1972). *A History of Public Administration*: London: Frank Cass and Company.

Heady, F. (1962). "Comparative Public Administration: Concerns and Priorities," a Paper in Comparative Public Administration, (eds.), Ferrel Heady and Sybil Stokes: Ann Arber: MI: Institute of Public Administration.

Heady, F. (1984). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*: 3rd edition: Englewood Cliffs: New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

James L. Perry (ed) (1989). *Handbook of Public Administration*: San Francisco: Jossey-Bosso, Inc.

James G. M. and Simon, H. (1958). *Organisation*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Mayer, J.P. and Weber, M. (1974). *Theory of Modern Politics*. London: Allen and Unwin ,pp. 30-32.

National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) (2013) *Comparative Public Administration* (MGS 783).

Simon, H.A. et al. (1971). *Public Administration* 7th edition: New York: Knopf.

Waldo, D. (1955). *The study of Public Administration*. New York: Random House.

White, L.D. (1936). The Meaning of Principles of Public Administration, in *The Frontiers of Public Administration*, (eds), John M. Gaus, Leonard D White, and Marshall E. Dimock. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

White, L.D. (1955). *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*: New York: Macmillan.

UNIT 6 RIGGS CONTRIBUTION TO COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main content
 - 3.1 Trends in Comparative Public Administration studies by Riggs
 - 3.2 Riggs Ecology in Comparative Public Administration studies
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Riggs remained one of the major contributors in the field of comparative public administration. Riggs has been identified with the trends in the study of comparative public administration, which justified the need for a shift from the traditional public administration to comparative public administration that is geared towards making generalisations. Also, he was known with his contribution on the ecological approach (ecological perspectives); structural-functional approach; and ideal models (model-building). Therefore, in this unit we are to look at the trends in the study of comparative public administration and ecology and comparative public administration as explained by Riggs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration by Riggs
- examine ecology in Comparative Public Administration by Riggs

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Trends in the study of Comparative Public administration by Riggs

Professor F. W. Riggs noticed three trends in the comparative study of public administration. These include:

- (a) A shift from normative studies (which deals with what ought to be) to empirical studies (which deals with what is).
- (b) A shift from ideographic studies (one nation studies/individualistic) to nomothetic studies (universal studies).
- (c) A shift from non-ecological studies (which examines administrative phenomena as an isolated activity) to ecological studies (which examines administrative phenomena in relation to its external environment).

Thus, comparative public administration, according to Fred Riggs, is:

- i. Empirical, that is, factual and scientific.
- ii. Nomothetic, that is, abstracted and generalizable.
- iii. Ecological, that is, systematic and non-parochial

Therefore, **Fred Riggs** has laid three trends he believes are taking place in the study of Comparative Public Administration. The first one is the shift from normative to empirical orientation. According to him, traditionally the study was centred on norms rather than factual basis. Thanks to Behaviouralist Revolution, current studies are based on hard facts.

The second shift is one from ideographic to nomothetic orientation. Ideographic concentrates on particularities or unique cases, as opposed to nomothetic which focuses on generalities and regularities.

The final (third) one is the shift from non-ecological to ecological orientation. Initially, administration did not consider environment in its study. There is always interaction between the people and the environment, and so a society cannot be understood without regard to environments, thus the need for the shift.

3.2 Riggs' Ecology in Comparative Public Administration studies

Another contribution of Riggs was in determining the link between ecology and administration especially the emphasis of same in the study of administration, and development of universal principles. F.W Riggs in his book entitled *The Ecology of Public Administration* (1961) explored the dynamics of interaction between public administration and its external environment. He adopted the structural -functional approach in explaining the administrative systems from ecological perspective. The adoption of this approach in the field of public administration was first suggested in 1955 by Dwight Waldo.

Ecological approach studies the dynamics of interaction between administrative system and its environment consisting of political, social, cultural and economic dimensions. It assumes that administrative system

is one of the various sub-systems of society and is influenced and in turn, also influences them. The ecological approach in the study of public administration though initiated by J.M. Gaus (1947), Robert A. Dahl (1947), Roscoe Martin (1952) Riggs remains the foremost exponent of the ecological approach in public administration.

In terms of definition, ecology in simple words relates to 'Environment'. And this environment includes physical, social and cultural aspects. So, basically we are going to talk about the relationship between administration and the environment it is set in (internal as well as external) and how they affect each other. Environment is the largest system, the rest and others like political systems, administrative systems, etc. are all sub systems who work under it. It influences its sub systems and vice versa. They both have to adjust to each other and also reform and change each other from time to time to stay up to date where the people's wishes drive the policies and the policies bring in development that uplifts the socio-economic status and level of the environment for progress. So they are interdependent and not mutually exclusive of each other.

Administration is seen as one of the most significant aspect of any societal arrangement as it makes possible the achievement of governmental function fulfillment. It has been observed that administration of any state happens to be an expression of various unique factors existing in society and is inter dependent over other arrangements in the society that provides the stability of all structure in a society. Various scholars like George Orwell in their writings like 'Shooting an Elephant' books have given case studies of how they have seen practically that the administrative systems in different parts of the world perform differently in order to suit the environment or ecology they are set in.

The ecological approach to Public Administration as propagated popularly by Fred W. Riggs who studied administrative systems in different countries (emphasis on developing countries) and why there was a vast amount of disconnect among them while applying the Americanised theories of Public Administration and how they coped up. He found that the main reason for this uniqueness of administrative systems in the world is the environment that they are set in. *Each country had a different environment setting and that played a major role in the shaping of the administrative system because without the help and approval of its people an administrative system cannot survive and thus it acts according to its environment and in turn it also influences the society with its work and procedures.*

In *The Ecology of Public Administration* (1961), Riggs relied on his field experiences in Southeast Asia and the United States in formulating his perspective on public administration in developing countries. The newly independent countries, he recognized, have been faced with the problem of reorganizing and adapting their administrative systems to face the challenges of development. The problem is that administrative concepts and techniques evolved in the context of social, economic, and political conditions of Western countries are not fully valid or applicable in the new contexts.

Thus, Riggs concluded that differences in social, cultural, historical, or architectural environments affect the way in which administration is conducted. He refers to all these issues of the contexts as “the ecology of administration.” Governmental setting “is one of the fundamental determinants of administrative behavior,” Riggs pointed out (1961: 4). In his analysis, Riggs consistently emphasized that the comparative approach is indispensable. By comparing societies, “we begin to discover whether any particular environmental feature is regularly accompanied by some administrative trait” (1961: 3).

Through comparisons, he contended, we can sort out from numerous Administration of Developing Countries environmental factors those few that have important consequences for the administrative system. Thus, to explain differences between two administrative systems, “we must look for ecological differences.” Overall, the impact of Riggs’s work is greater in generating debate, even excitement, in the literature and among students of public administration interested in cross-cultural studies. Riggs has been an involved scholar who provided organizational leadership and direction to the early comparative and development administration movement. But, his work largely remained at the macro level and too concerned with comprehensive and grand models, a task proved to be elusive or less relevant to the immediate needs of societies and practitioners of management.

Despite criticisms of his work such as being too abstract, less relevant to the practitioner, and lacks convincing empirical evidence, Riggs publications are among the most upheld scholarship in comparative and development administration so far. Nevertheless, the focus on administration of developing countries was a departure from the ethnocentric traditional public administration and comparative politics of the post-World War II era. Although the end of colonialism magnified interest in developing countries in general, comparative and development administration had a singular focus that sought to explore the emerging world with far greater enthusiasm than any time before.

Stimulated by generous grants from U.S. foundations and government agencies and motivated by financial and other advantages that were available as a result of the feverish competition of the Cold War, scholarship in comparative public administration flourished. Cross-cultural studies were significantly expanded, often in association with other field research activities covering most newly independent countries. The few references listed above are illustration of the intellectual productivity of this period. A particularly significant aspect of this trend is the integration and the institutionalization of comparative and development administration in the educational systems of the United States and the rest of the world. Courses on comparative and development administration became central parts in many graduate programs in public administration and in training activities.

Apart from Riggs, the Structural-Functional Approach which was used in respect of explaining the link between ecology and administration was however adopted by Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, Marion Levy, Gabriel Almond, David Apter, and others.

According to the Structural-Functional Approach, every society has various structures which perform specific functions. Riggs identified five functions which are performed in each society. They are political, economic, social, symbolic and communicational functions. He stated that, same set of functional requisite apply to an administrative sub-system.

Based on the structural-functional approach, F.W. Riggs has constructed two 'ideal models' (theoretical models) to explain the administrative system in a comparative context. These are (i) agraria-industria model; and (ii) fused-prismatic-diffracted model. They are explained in module 2 of this guide.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly discuss the contribution of Riggs to the comparative public administration studies

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the extent of Riggs contribution in comparative public administration cannot be over-emphasised. He has contributed immensely in Comparative Public Administration studies by consistently emphasizing that the comparative approach is indispensable. He stated that, by comparing societies, one begins to discover whether any particular environmental feature is regularly accompanied by some administrative trait Riggs (1961). However, in his trends in comparative public administration, Riggs stated that:

comparative public administration has to be empirically and nomothetically oriented and based on consideration of the varied environmental factors or rather the ecology.

5.0 SUMMARY

This last unit of module 1 highlighted the contribution of Riggs to the comparative public administration studies in relation to the trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration and his (Riggs) contribution in developing and emphasising the need to consider the ecology in the study of public administration. As earlier stated, the ecological approach to the study of Public Administration was popularly propagated by Fred W. Riggs (see models of comparative public administration) who studied administrative systems in different countries (with emphasis on developing countries) and by emphasizing on why there was a vast amount of disconnect among them.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Briefly describe the trends in the study of comparative public administration

Briefly describe the link between ecology and comparative public administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Naidu, S. P. (2011). *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.

Riggs, F. W. (1961). *The Ecology of Public Administration, Administration in developing countries. The theory of Prismatic Societies*.

MODULE 2 ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEMS OF DEVELOPED CLASSIC, CIVIC AND MODERNISING CULTURES

Unit 1	System of Administration in the developed countries
Unit 2	System of Administration in the Classic Culture: France and Germany
Unit 3	System of Administration in the Civic Culture: Great Britain and the USA
Unit 4	Modernising Administrative system of Japan

INTRODUCTION

Hello! I will like to extend my Congratulatory message to you in NOUN Comparative Public Administration Master's class for completing our discussion in respect of module one. However, this module is a continuation of the previous one but it will tilt toward the practical aspect that will expose you to the administrative systems of developed countries and especially the nature or system of administration in classic (France and Germany), civic (United Kingdom and USA) and modernizing (Japan) cultures. Therefore, the module will cover the following four (4) study units:

UNIT 1 SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION IN THE DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 System of Administration in developed countries
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment and answer
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Distinguished learners you should note that the nature of administration of a country is influenced by the environment, culture and historical experiences. Therefore, in this unit we shall discuss about the major characteristics of administration in the developed countries of the world especially, the classic, civic and modernizing cultures in general.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Outline the features of administration in developed countries

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Administrative System of developed countries

Developed countries of the world are on the general basis demonstrate peculiar characteristics in public administration that reflect their historical experience. In the category of developed countries are included countries of Western Europe, North America, Scandinavia, Australia, New Zealand, Russia, Japan, Israel and now South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, etc. The main features of the administrative sub-systems are:

- (1) There is high degree of task specialization. There are a large number of specific administrative structures each specialized for particular purpose-agricultural, transport, regulatory, defense, budgetary, personnel, public relations, planning etc. Moreover, a set of political structure - parties, elections, parliaments, chief executives and cabinets are designed to formulate the rules and lay down the targets which the administrative structures then implement. In Rigg's view this is highly differentiated political system.
- (2) The roles are assigned according to the personal achievements of individuals rather than according to family status or social class. This system ranks high in terms of universalism and achievement orientation.
- (3) Developed political system consists of formal political structures in which control is exercised in conformity with a formula or a pattern which is laid down. The making of political decision becomes the duty of politicians, administrative decisions of administrators. Political decisions and legal judgements are made according to secular standards of rationality. Traditional elites (tribal or religious) have lost any real power to affect major governmental decisions.
- (4) Government activity extends over a wide range of public and personal affairs.
- (5) Popular interest and involvement in public affairs is widespread.

A high degree of politicization has taken place, so the population is mobilized for intensive participation in decision making and executing processes.

- (6) The occupants of political or governmental leadership positions are widely viewed as legitimate holders of those positions, and change of leadership occurs according to prescribed and orderly procedures.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

State five features of the administrative system of developed countries

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have looked at the administrative systems of developed countries. We have discovered that the developed countries have a system where roles are assigned according to the personal achievements of individuals rather than according to family status or social class. The systems exhibit features that of high standard compare to what is obtained in developing countries where issues of formalism in administrative decisions making and overlapping are the order of the day.

5.0 SUMMARY

There are more differences in administrative sub-systems of developing countries than among the developed ones; this is due to their large number and diverse cultures among others which reflect a global range of political cultures and their historical experiences. However, most of the developed countries have exhibit some common traits which include emphasis on merit, adherence to the laid down rules and regulations etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the features of the administrative systems of the developed countries

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.

(Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspectives*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.

National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) (2013). *Comparative Public Administration (MGS 783)*

Peter, B.G. (2007). *The Politics of Bureaucracy: An introduction to Comparative Public Administration*. London: Routledge.

Riggs, F.W. (1964). *Administration in Developing Countries*. Boston: Mifflin.

Seidman, H.B. (2000). *Politics, Power and Position: the Dynamics of Federal organization*. New York: OxfordUniversity Press.

Sharma, M.P, Sadana, B.L., and Harpreet, K. (2011). *Public Administration in Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Kitab Mahal Publishers.

UNIT 2 SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION IN THE CLASSIC CULTURE: FRANCE AND GERMANY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 System of Administration in France
 - 3.2 System of Administration in Germany
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment and Answers
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we are trying to explain about the classic systems of administration of France and Germany. France claimed to be the oldest form of public personnel system even though there are historical accounts which subscribe that well-established personnel system existed in China (353 BC) and Kautilya has accounted the existence of a well-established administrative system in his most celebrated book The Arthashastra. But these earlier personnel, institutions and practices of administration has been considered by western scholars for various reasons shall we refer, it was never western scholars' academic hegemony or they were ignorant of such historical truths. In Germany, Public administration developed earlier than in many neighboring countries. The political realities, and the absence of a nation-state until late into the 19th century, gave rise to peculiarly German traits that continue to exercise their influences until today. Therefore, in this study unit, we will look at the administrative system of France and Germany.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- understand and describe the nature of Administration in Classic culture with reference to France and Germany
- attempt a comparison between the system of administration in France and Germany

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 System of Administration in France

Arrangement of Droit Administration could be seen associated with the approach and functioning of Napoleon Bonaparte who set the table for a centralised administration as an efficient administration. The storming of Bastille incident which was fuelled by economic crisis led to the overthrow of monarchy there to republican system and led to the establishment of Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen that led to the first step of France's constitution framing. It is a mixture of Republican as well as Parliamentary form of govt. President is the Chief executive and enjoys tremendous powers in the legislature as well as Parliament. Here the President is directly elected by the people. The Prime Minister is then chosen and appointed as per the President's wish from the Parliament. The Prime Minister has to enjoy the confidence of both the President and the Parliament in order to sustain his position.

Executive is separated from legislature and thus the President is not able to influence the executive much but still indirectly the PM has to go by him to enjoy his confidence because most of the times, the parliament and the president are from the same party. Civil services are of two types' External recruitment and internal recruitment where external recruitment is done through open competitive exams for graduates under 27 years of age and the internal recruitment is for people from the lower echelons of service having at least five years of service and not more than 36 years old. They are then chosen and trained at the Ecole Nationale Administration for two years.

Moreover, France has had a long tradition of centralized and strong government going back at least to the reign of Louis XIV. Many of the administrative institutions developed by Napoleon 1 as Emperor to govern France are still being used and the principal direction for government activities in France continues to emanate from France. French government has been dominated by bureaucracy, at least highly bureaucratic. This bureaucracy has been effective in many ways in governing even in the face of the instability of governments during the Third and Fourth Republics, and in the face of large scale economic and social change. Bureaucracy has continued to play a very significant role in French government and politics.

Although, it is centralized, the French bureaucracy has a number of internal divisions. First, there are the vertical divisions between classes of administration (now A through G), which roughly represents educational qualifications needed for positions with F and G categories, being the top administrative positions requiring at least a university-

level education. The lower categories may require secondary education with the lowest requiring no particular education. Within each of these classes, there are divisions based upon the nature of the position, specialty of the individual occupying the position and so on. Perhaps, the most important of all the divisions is the separation of class A into the “grands corps”, as well as, some civil servants who do not belong to any of the corps. The “grands corps” constitutes a vestige of Napoleonic administration. It represents organizations within the civil service and has some of the attributes of fraternal organizations, when an individual becomes a member for the duration of his or her career. There are two principal technical corps - *Mines and Ponts et Chaussées* - and five major administrative corps - *Inspection des Finances, Conseil d'etat, Cour des Comptes*, the diplomatic corps and the prefectural corps as well as several minor corps (Peter, 2010:133). The names attached to these corps reflect their functional tasks for government. An individual remains a member of the corps even if he is working in the private sector; and indeed the contacts between public and private sectors are increased by the number of civil servants, who have “parachuted” into the private sector - a practice called *pantouflage* (Rouban, 2003, quoted in Peters, 2010).

Furthermore, an individual becomes a member of one of the corps on the basis of performance at one of the two major schools channelling people into the civil service. One of the schools which provides personnel for the technical corps is the *Ecole Polytechnique*, established by Napoleon to provide the engineers he required to modernize France and to modernize its army. The other school, the *Ecole Nationale d'Administration* (ENA), supplies recruits for the administrative corps. ENA was established in 1946 as the training ground for future public servants. Its curriculum stresses law, administration and to a lesser extent finance, emphasizing the legalistic conception of administration in France.

Yet another division in French administration, one common to most administrations, but perhaps rather more intense in France is among the departments and agencies. French administration has a traditional bureaucratic structure, with departments divided into a number of sections and subsections. This structure and the competitive nature of policy formation in the system makes the units in the administrative system extremely protective of their budgets and their access to cabinet and to presidency. There has been a limited increase in the number of autonomous organizations in French government, but not to the extent found in many other countries.

The civil service in France does not work under the same assumptions of impartiality as in Britain. Many senior civil servants are openly political

and even participate in politics and hold public office. In-fact, a large proportion of government ministers are civil servants or former civil servants. Of-course, when a civil servant becomes involved politically, he or she may become “*persona non grata*” for subsequent governments. In that case, there are always opportunities outside government for members of the grand corps. A large percentage of French public employees are not civil servants but, rather, work for nationalized industries or parastatal organizations.

Conditions of service

In France civil servants could not be sued in any civil court of law unless the government permitted such an action. This particular privilege was repealed in the year 1870 and now suits can be filed against the civil servants when the damage in question was caused by the decision of the civil servant acting in his official capacity.

Recruitment

Another important feature is that in France it is common for civil servants to interpolate periods of elective office or even to hold local office whilst still acting as an administrator. Historically also, the recruiting methods in this country has been ordained for particular class of administrators. For instance, Britain and India prefer only generalists, USA for specialists, and France for technocrats. Though the functions and powers are the same they differ on the matters of their recruitments. The description of the administrative personnel must be confined to the personnel show that falls into the category of 'holders of office' Political neutrality' has been the watchword of the administration for civil servants in the USA, the UK, and India. As far as political affiliation is concerned France and the USSR come closer and in other aspects they are different.

Training

Another important aspect of personnel administration is training. According to William G. Torpey, Training is the process of developing skills, habits, knowledge and attitudes in employees for the purpose of increasing their effectiveness in their present government positions as well as in preparing them for future government positions. Generally, there are two types of training called formal and informal. The following are formal training type:

1. Pre-entry training.
2. Orientation training.
3. In-service training.
4. Post-entry training.
5. Departmental training.
6. Skill and background training.

The informal training can be classed as:

1. Training by experience,
2. Training by communication,
3. Conference method,
4. Syndicate method.

The best method of training is imparted to the civil servants only in France. Both India and the UK offer training to their civil servants from a more generalist service requirement in contrast to France where they impart training for 'specialist' cadre of civil servants.

In contrast to Indian and British practice, the higher civil servants in France who have job relevant degrees undergo a thirty month course at Ecole National administration (ENA). Half of the courses at ENA which is academic oriented and the rest is of practical experience. French civil servants are also allowed to receive training experience even from private sectors. Training in France, unlike in the UK, the USA and India, starts before recruitment.

Non-technical civil service training by Ecole Nationatrouale'd Administration provides the best training for the administrators than its counterparts elsewhere. The total training period is about 3 years and consists of the following packages:

1. One-year practical learning about public administration in prefectural provinces.
2. Specialised training by attending lectures and seminars which are necessarily spent at ENA, Paris.
3. At the end of the second year, the student joins a department of his own option and remains there on probation for 2 or 3 years.

France and the USA come closer as far as training is concerned. For instance, there are different schools imparting training for different administrative and non-administrative class in France.

Promotion

Promotion is a change of position that involves the assumption of greater responsibilities, a movement up the ladder of authority. It refers to the status structure of organisation and to prestige accorded to various positions. In our ultimate analysis, promotions are changes in rank with some enhanced authority and responsibility. According to Dale Doder, a mere increase in pay or adjustment of compensation is not essential to promotion. He also describes about 'dry' promotion wherein there will be an advance in prestige, authority and responsibility without any accompanying increase in compensation.

In France, promotion is affected only within the same corps and there is less scope for promotion. The restricted scope for promotion in France is due to the fact that each category and corps are classified on a three-fold basis such as grades, classes and echelons. Each of these grades differs in their authority and responsibility. Promotion of echelon is automatic and mainly based on seniority and to some extent annual rating. A list is prepared every year by ENA and is submitted to an advisory committee composed of an equal number of staff representatives and the representatives of the official side. The committee is empowered to approve the list for promotion and can also solve any conflict of interests in the promotional list.

There is also an existence of promotion outside the government organisation to provide bodies which is legally allowed in France. A civil servant can retain his authority of corps and is also empowered to get back his post after serving sometime in the private organisation. But such civil servants may lose their pension rights.

Compensation

France has a rigid formula for salary fixation for its servants and in a flexible approach and relative pay outside the civil service is compared the USA thereby the Bureau of Labour Statistics. A noteworthy feature of the French system of pay fixation is the introduction of a general grid in 1948. Each post is given a fixed index number (C Indices) on the grid.

Pension

In France, it should be noted that:

1. Pension calculated as a proportion of the last salary received.
2. Those who worked for 30 years will receive half the salary received last.
3. Those who spent 40 years in service will receive two-third of the salary received at the time of retirement.
4. To qualify for pension, a minimum of 15 years must have been spent in service.
5. Pension amount increases automatically when there is a pay increase in the civil service.
6. The widow of the pensioner will receive half the pension.
7. Children of the demised pensioner will receive 10 per cent of the pension amount till they attain 21 years of age.

3.2 System of administration in Germany

Germany has undergone one of its most important changes since the end of World War II. German unification has been largely couched in economic terms, both within Germany and abroad by its friends and

allies. This interpretation is understandable, given the enormity and the speed with which this daunting task had to be accomplished. The political, constitutional, and administrative changes that have occurred at all levels of the federal system are no less deserving of attention.

The German experiences make abundantly clear that a political system premised on a dualism of state and society cannot be sustained even with support of the best-trained and most loyal civil service, if other democratic institutions, civil and political, are not allowed to take their rightful place as important political transmission mechanisms.

Germany's cultural and economic diversity, the strength of regional centers outside the capital, compensated to some degree for the immature central political institutions and carried Germany at least through the industrial revolution. It was, however, the underdeveloped polity that contributed in large measure to disastrous miscalculations in foreign affairs, and the inability to incorporate an increasingly restless populace into public decision making and policy formation. A fully developed civil society had to wait until the middle of the 20th century. By the beginning of the 20th century, it also became increasingly evident, that the German civil service was not the homogeneous loyal and neutral corps, as often portrayed, but an "increasingly diverse, expensive, and unwieldy bureaucratic apparatus" (Caplan 1988:13).

Conditions of Service

In German constitutional interpretations, the state contained both a moral quality as well as a legal/administrative one. The creation of a civilian cadre of high-level administrators (the Beamte) with mostly legal training remains a uniquely German institution. The cadre was later expanded to include other academic specialties to include professionals in various economic areas, university professors, certain secondary school teachers, and physicians in state service. It was essential that the German administrative service remained removed from the day-to-day politics in order not to undermine its moral responsibilities as preservers of the unity of the state. These paraconstitutional functions of the civil service in virtually all areas of public decision-making made it difficult for the embryonic parliaments to carve out their rightful place in Germany's governmental system (Ellwein 1994).

Each tier in Germany's administrative system functioned as an extension of the central state. A strict hierarchy with small spans of control assured reasonable conformity with promulgated edicts and administrative orders, but also led to one of the largest civil service apparatuses in Europe. With size came the need for greater control and thus even more rules and regulations. For example, each municipality

until today has still an inordinate number of departments, many of them identical to their counterparts elsewhere.

Division of labor has been one of the central principles of German administration. The composition of the German civil service ranks changed dramatically in the early decades of the 20th century. Civil servants (Beamte) were granted a separate employment status. Tenured for life, prohibited participating in labor strikes, and their special legal employment conditions set them socially apart from other employee categories. The civil service of the 19th and early 20th centuries preserved the traditional class structures of the civil service corps. The lower civil service ranks (added as the societal demands for public services grew in the wake of the industrial revolution), e.g. Postal carriers did not differ much from non-Beamte of the same social strata. The middle and upper charges, however, enjoyed considerable social status. To advance to these positions applicants had to undergo extensive professional training and earn academic degrees, especially law degrees. The representatives of this group, typically teachers, and upper administrative officials were expected to show complete loyalty to the state and professional commitment to their administrative obligations.

In Germany, Beamte have permanent tenure, i.e. they cannot normally be dismissed, receive certain privileges, and are usually remunerated more generously than ordinary employees. In addition, they are exempt from all social security contributions such as pension or unemployment insurance. Dismissal is permissible for prolonged periods of illness, i.e. three months within half a year. It is also possible to dismiss the Beamter during the probationary period, and thereafter the Beamter can be retired and given a pension on the basis of his years of service.

Recruitment (Beamte)

Beamte of the Middle Service are required to have passed their Realschulabschluss, preferably some further experience. This can be compared to GCSEs in the United Kingdom (other than Scotland), or the American High School diploma.

To join the Upper Service, all applicants need the Abitur (equivalent to A-levels), followed by taking a degree at a college owned by entity for the purpose of training future Beamte.

Traditionally, most Beamte in the Senior Service held a University State Exam, then equivalent to a university diploma or magister, at a time when law and teacher training was still regulated by the state (law still is). However, the common requirement these days is a Master's degree or equivalent, or a State Exam in law. Grammar-school teachers now

commonly hold a B.A. in two or three subjects, and a Master's in Education

Training in Germany (Beamte)

There are typically three steps involved in becoming a Beamter with full tenure for life:

- (a) For all four career tracks (lower, middle, upper and senior civil service) there are specially-designed training schemes lasting one year (lower service), two years (middle and senior service) or three years (upper service), including oral and written exams as well as a dissertation. There are exceptions for highly technical tasks. Trainee Beamte usually have the title *Anwärter*, preceded by the official term of the position, e.g. *Regierungssekretärsanwärter (RSA)* (Trainee Government Secretary) or *Kriminalkommissaranwärter (KKA)* (Trainee Detective Inspector). Trainee officials of the senior service are called *Referendare*, e.g. *Studienreferendar* for a trainee teacher. They receive a special salary and hold the legal status of Beamter, albeit without tenure for life.
- (b) The trainee period is followed by a probationary period. This period usually lasts three years, occasionally longer. The salary is based on the salary grade which the Beamter will hold upon achieving tenure for life. Usually, the designation of office precedes the abbreviation "z. A." (*zur Anstellung*), which means "to be employed", e.g. *Regierungsinspektor z. A.* Again, there is an exception with regard to the senior service, where probationary Beamte may be called *Rat z. A.* (e.g. *studienrat z. A.*, *Regierungsrat z. A.*), or, alternatively, *Assessor*, although this is now less common.
- (c) The official becomes a *Beamter auf Lebenszeit*, i.e. a Beamter with full tenure for life.

It should be borne in mind that, whether applicants undergo steps 1, 2, or 3, they are already hold the status of Beamter, although initially in training or on probation.

Compensation

All Beamte were once paid according to the *Bundesbesoldungsgesetz* (Federal Payment Act), regardless of whom the employing entity was (the federal government, the 16 states, local authorities or other corporations, agencies and foundations governed by public law). This has now changed. The 16 states have the option to vary salaries. Nonetheless, the Federal Government still keeps a close eye on the

respective "Landesbesoldungsgesetze", which may only differ up to 5% from the Federal Salary Scheme.

However, the civil service law is based on the following idea: officials devoting their entire abilities to the employer for the purpose of realizing public wealth, and particularly the acts of parliaments, in a neutral and equal way. The employer shall care for the official and his family in return. The officer is given a secure legal status, which makes him independent and allows him to fully concentrate on his task.

However, he cannot influence the content of this status himself in a contract. The rights and obligations are designed unilaterally by the legislature, under constitutional guidelines.

The central principles of civil service legislation in Germany are:

- loyalty (the officials must faithfully serve his employer);
- moderation obligation (the officer mustn't behave extremely in his official position or in private life);
- Dependence on instruction (the officer must comply with instructions coming from his superiors - unless the instruction violates criminal law or human dignity);
- ban on strikes (the official mustn't strike); not quite fixed working hours (if required, the official shall work overtime);
- disciplinary rules (erratic behaviour is sanctioned by separate administrative penalty rules);
- Principle of alimentation (the official receives a salary for the position he holds, not specifically for his work);
- Official principle (the official only receives a raise when obtaining a new position);
- Recruitment on accomplishment (In a vacancy, the candidate who is best suited for the job will get it);
- The pension depends on the position occupied by the officials at the end (if he has held it at least three years);
- Care Duty: The employer must take care of his officials.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly describe the nature of staff recruitment and training in France

4.0 CONCLUSION

Criticisms of German bureaucrats for not effecting administrative changes abound. The highly touted reforms of the health care system, public financial and tax system, pension system, and most recently the hotly debated changes in spelling and grammar of the German language

are seen by some as an inability of the German administrative system to reform itself. The civil service law in Germany is traditionally not open to reform. This is mainly due to a constitutional rule, according to which the legislature is required to comply, while adopting the rules on civil service, with general principles of law which were already laid down in the Weimar Constitution (1919 to 1933) or even earlier (Article 33 paragraph 5 GG: (The law governing the public service shall be regulated and developed with due regard to the traditional principles of the professional civil service.)). In France, it is common for civil servants to interpolate periods of elective office or even to hold local office whilst still acting as an administrator. Historically also, the recruiting methods in this country has been ordained for particular class of administrators.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have looked at the system of administration in the classic culture of France and Germany. In Germany, Beamte have permanent tenure, i.e. they cannot normally be dismissed, receive certain privileges, and are usually remunerated more generously than ordinary employees. But, France has a rigid formula for salary fixation for its servants and in a flexible approach and relative pay outside the civil service is compared the USA thereby the Bureau of Labour Statistics.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Attempt a Comparison of the France administrative system with that of Germany

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.
- Esman, M.J. (1971). "Gag and the study of public administration". In Riggs, F.W. (eds.). *Frontiers of Development Administration*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Diamant, A. (1970). "The Temporal Dimensions in model of Administration and Organisation". In Waldo, D. (ed.). *Temporal Dimensions of Development Administration*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspectives*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.

- Hogwood, B.W. and Peters, B.G. (1983). *Policy Dynamics*. Brighton: Wheatsheal .
- Ngu, S. M. (2001). *Government and administration in Asia and the MiddleEast*. Zaria: Shareef Salam Press.
- Ngu, S. M. (2001). *Government and administration in Europe and America: A comparative and evolutionary perspective*. Zaria: Shareef Salam Press.
- Wolff, H. A. (2011). *The Civil Service in Germany Annual Report - 2011 – COUNTRY (May 2011)*.

UNIT 3 SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION IN THE CIVIC CULTURE: GREAT BRITAIN AND THE USA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main content
 - 3.1 System of Administration in Great Britain
 - 3.2 System of Administration in USA
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

United Kingdom common feature is the constitutional and hereditary monarchy. In practice it is a Parliamentary democracy. The Monarch is the head and performs functions akin to the President of India. Legislature is supreme and is bicameral viz. House of Lords (upper house) and House of Commons (lower house). Executive is headed by the political executive that is the Prime Minister and his cabinet that consist of ministries staffed by civil servants under ministers while the political system of USA is presidential system with the president as head of state and government or rather the chief executive. However, our emphasis here is not on the political structure but the nature of administration in relation to the civil service or bureaucracy.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the administrative system of United Kingdom
- describe the administrative system of USA
- attempt a Comparison of the administrative system of United Kingdom with that of USA

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 System of Administration in Great Britain

The British civil service made its first major movement toward modernization as a result of Northcote-Trevelyan Report of 1853, which

stressed the value of a civil service recruited on the basis of merit. This report resulted in a civil service dominated by class composed almost entirely of honours graduates in the humanities (especially classics), who though intelligent, did not have the training in the economic and technological issues that were increasingly called, Executive class and clerical class. There have been reforms in British civil service, especially, the “NEXT STEPS” reforms, which made executive positions of newly created agencies open to private sector as well as public sector applicants. This has made private managers, with limited public sector experience to make some in-roads. However, the major policy advice positions remained in the hands of career civil servants and public administration remains a major cog in the machinery of government.

The Treasury and Cabinet office are also at the heart of this collection of organizations, help to determine overall government policy. The third form of organization is local government. The United Kingdom is a unitary government, so the number and functions of local authorities are controlled by the central government, and much of the cost of local government is borne by the central government.

The fourth major group of public employees comprises the health service. These employees stand in a variety of relationships to government, depending upon how they are employed and what functions they perform. In general, the employees of the National Health service are definitely public employees, but they are not civil servants. Consequently, many of the benefits and restrictions- of civil service employment do not apply to them. Hospital physicians (consultants) and all other employees of the hospitals are salaried public employees, although they are employees of the National Health Service and not of government per se.

Fifthly, there are a number of non-departmental public bodies in the structure of British government. These bodies are, in turn, divisible into two groups. One group consists of the remnants of nationalized industries, such as: British Telecom, British Airways and British gas. Within the classification of nationalized industries, there are also some 150,000 industrial civil servants, with full civil service status, employed primarily in government-owned enterprises supplying the ministry of Defence.

In addition to the nationalized industries, there are a number of non-departmental bodies, commonly referred to as “quangos (quasi-non-governmental organizations), which represent a large number of different types of organizations standing in various relationships to government (Hogwood, 1983). Some are simply sections of cabinet

departments that have been “hived off” and may still be staffed by civil servants. Another group of non-department bodies are the universities, while clearly in the public sector, are kept at arm’s length from government for reasons of academic freedom.

Finally, there are the true “quangos” organizations that are private or partially private, but that spend public money and exercise the authority of government. There are also a number of advisory bodies for ministries included among the “quangos”. However, the types of public employees staffing these institutions are almost as varied as the institutions themselves.

Conditions of service

The USA and France were successful enough to differential the role of administration and government as a distinctive one, but such distinctions never occurred in Britain till the beginning of the nineteenth century. In the UK up to a certain level every civil servants work is the subject of confidential annual reports by the head of this unit in which he serves. Like the USA, India and France discipline is maintained by the administration of reprimands and penalties such as stoppages and forfeiture of annual increments, loss of promotion, and suspension from duty, in the last resort dismissal without pension or gratuity.

Evaluation of Civil Servants

Innovations were added to evaluate the efficiency of the servants in the UK during Thatcher's period. The government appointed Rayner as an adviser on administrative efficiency. An 'efficiency unit' was formed which was compared of civil servants and outside consultants. The unit aimed to improve the efficiency of civil servants within the White Hall. It was considered to be the first step towards managerialism of public service in Britain. But unlike the USA, the efficiency unit was applied only to an organisation as whole than individuals. It was now placed under the control of cabinet office. There are problems in using these appraising techniques in different social settings of different countries. The problem with this system is that it is prone to subjectivity and negligence of the rating officer. But in the UK and France capacities and qualifications of employees are closely scrutinised and will be selected by the departmental head.

Recruitment

In contrast to American and French experience, the UK relied more on non-specialists in the career civil service system. It rested on open written examinations set by the civil service commission in academic subjects. After the successful written examinations, the candidates’ personality is tested by interview methods. For the past 50 years in the

UK, there are three kinds of non-specialist civil servants being recruited by fixing the following qualifications.

1. Administrative class-recruited primarily from university graduates Age 21-28 years.
2. Executive class-recruited at matriculation standard, minimum age 18 years.
3. Clerical class-required qualification is a pass in the first major school examination (General Certificate of Education). Minimum age is 15 years but recruits are accepted up to the age of 59.

Training

Training in Britain is fashioned in such a way as to fulfill the needs of generalists. Unlike France, they generally lack an in-depth training in a particular specialised field. In Britain, the Civil Service College (CSC) (1970) imparts training in three main ways:

1. Post-entry training for administrative recruits in economic, financial or social areas of government.
2. Courses in administration and management for specialists.
3. Conducting research into administrative problems.

One unique feature of the British training institute is that it also organises a wide range of shorter training courses for local government staff, industry, and the lower rungs of the civil service. The British training programmes are largely a product of their own tradition and based on the functional requirements of 'generalist' cadre of various departments. In Britain, attendance at any or all of the courses is not mandatory. The total period of formal training for British civil servants is only 22 weeks. The major weakness of training in Britain is largely due to the lack of in service training or indoctrination for specialist groups.

Promotion

At the top of civil service administration in the UK, promotions are made on merit but at the lower levels promotion tends to take place in accordance with seniority rules agreed to by the staff union. Such automatic promotion at the lower levels was criticised by Fulton Committee report and suggested introduction of the system of promotion by merit for the entire system of administration. In the UK, promotions of civil servants are made partly through centrally conducted competitions and partly by departments. In this regard, promotion to most of the highest positions in civil service, for instance, permanent secretaries, deputy secretaries, are approved by the prime minister who is advised in these matters by Head of the Home Civil Service. From 1,

January 1986 numbered grades having been introduced at the top of the service have the following appearance in the UK.

Grade 1 - Permanent secretary Grade 1A - Second permanent secretary
 Grade 2 - Deputy secretary Grade 3 - Under secretary Grade 4 - Executive director
 Grade 5 - Assistant secretary Grade 6 - Senior principal Grade 7 - Principal.

Automatic promotion based on seniority principle applies to Grade 7 from Grade 4 while a combination of merit based performance appraisals and seniority applies to Grades 3 and 4 for Grades 1 and 2 on purely political and merit consideration. Regional level civil servants' promotion to central administrative service is not generally practised as a way of promotion in the UK and France, in lieu of the unitary type of political system.

Retirement

Retirement age is fixed at 60 years

1. Civil service pensions have been governed comprehensively by non-statutory (superannuation act) enabling act. Therefore, it is possible to make any change pension without further legislation.
2. Ten years minimum service is required to receive pension.
3. A civil servant is eligible to receive an annual pension of one-eighth of his average salary over the last three years of service. ,
4. Temporary civil servants who have served five years or more are eligible to receive a lump sum quantity.
5. No. contribution is made by a civil servant towards his pension.
6. Widows and children of the pensioner will get pensionary through contributory scheme.
7. Superannuation benefits are the same for men and women, except that an established women civil servant who chooses to resign on marriage after not less than six years of reckonable service may be granted a marriage gratuity of one month's pay for each completed year of her established service, subject to a maximum of 12 months' pay.

3.2 System of Administration in USA

Many historical and sociological factors have also shaped the American system. A few of them cited are the Civil war that lead to providing African American slaves was given the title of citizens and right to vote. Also the second civil rights movement that occurred under the aegis of Martin Luther King Jr. leading to elimination of segregation and racial discrimination between black and white Americans.

The USA has a federal republican form of government where President is the national as well as executive head. There is a separate constitution (which bears allegiance to the federal constitution of 1787) as well as citizenship for every state and they are all bound together in a federation, thus all working as a whole with their autonomy intact. The Constitution of US specifies the subjects listed for the national/federal and the ones reserved for the States and also the residuary powers lie with the states only. There are three levels of governments - national or federal, state and local (counties, townships, cities, etc.). Separation of powers between the legislature, executive and judiciary is an important aspect. The Senate (Upper House) and House of Representatives (Lower house) comprise the congress/legislature of the country. There is no specificity in the constitution regarding the administrative system but it does state that the President can from time to time as and when necessary get advice from the principal officers of the various departments regarding his duty as the chief executive of those departments. There are thirteen departments in the administration that come under the direct control of the president. The President however does not possess the authority to change/reorder his cabinet as that power lies with the Congress.

Civil services in USA are also done on merit through competitive exams and also at times there are some political appointees too who are chosen by the president for their extraordinary achievement in a particular field suitable to the job. Some departments are headed by individuals whereas some are headed by Boards and Commissions.

Conditions of Service

In USA the common conduct rules of civil servants are again derived from the Hatch Act 1940. But the Act does not specify what they prohibit. In the USA, federal employees are forced to discourage the political activities of their spouse. Generally, public servants should not use their position to subvert the political goals being pursued by the elected government and the political community as a whole. Subscribing to communist ideology was considered as disloyalty to federal government during the 1940s and 1950s which is known as "McCarthyism." The loyalty of public servants was examined by a loyalty review board. Any adverse report of the board would result in the dismissal of the servant. A dismissed civil servant could appeal to Supreme Court. Today in the USA public employees enjoy constitutional rights to appeal to the higher court if:

1. the basis of their actions was the exercise of an ordinary constitutional right such as freedom of association,
2. labelled as dishonest or immoral, and
3. dismissed.

There is also much scope for public employees' liability in civil suits for damage resulting from the violation of an individual's constitutional rights through an employee's action within the sphere of his or her official duties. Prescribing to democratic norms the civil servants are consulted in determining the nature of working conditions in government employment as in India, France and the UK.

However, the gentlemen period of personnel system was started with Washington's first administration in 1789 after the formation of the United States of America. Washington adopted 'fitness of character' as the basic criteria for appointment of personnel. And most of the appointments were given only to persons of high social status (only to the rich). The gentleman era attempted to develop political neutrality in the administrative branch. But for political reasons it was put to an end by the advent of Jackson as the American president in 1829. He institutionalised the spoilt system by developing politically convincing rationale for it. The system of merit recruitment was introduced only by 1865-1869 during the tenure of Andrew Johnson as the USA president. Merit system was backed by legal provisions by the passing of Civil Service Act in 1883 (also known as Pendleton Act).

Further reforms in personnel administration was introduced during the tenure of Jimmy Carter (Civil Service Reform Act, 1978). The unique contribution of American personnel administration to the world is certainly the 'Spoil System'. It was not purely based on patronage or kinship or an appointment of a person to civil service based on his social status. In a spoil system, public service posts were given to persons who politically helped the incoming American president after facing the highly competitive elections¹². Even today in the USA the legacy of spoil system is practised in the top appointments by the president. It is a unique blend of spoil system at the top followed by career bureaucracy of permanent tenure selected on the basis of merit by an autonomous recruiting board.

Evaluation of Civil Servants

However, in the USA the federal government established a Bureau of Efficiency in 1916 for looking after rating work in various departments. Any discrepancies, if found by any employees can be referred to Personnel Arbitrary Council and the minorities can make representation to EEOC, if there is any kind of racial prejudice.

The USA has an edge over other countries in evaluating their public servants known as efficiency Rating System and it was the result of Scientific Management Movement (1920). It is a system for discovering, analysing and classifying the differences among employees vis-a-vis job standards. It gained greater attention as a part of federal civil service

reforms. Appraisals are generally done by supervisors, peers, the employees themselves, by groups, by external evaluators, or by some combination of these. The major techniques in the appraisal are as follows:

1. Rating scale.
2. Essay Report-Focusing on an employee's need for further training and his or her potential and ability to obtain results.
3. Check-list-It consists of statements about the employee's performance. The rater checks the most appropriate statements. Some of these may be given greater weight than others in reaching an overall appraisal.
4. Critical incidents-It is an approach requiring the supervisor to keep a log of employees, performance, indicating incidents of both good and poor performance.
5. Forced choice-This requires supervisors to rate employees on the basis of descriptive statements.
6. Ranking-It is a process where there is comparison of employee with the other.
7. Forced Distribution-It requires the rater to place employee in categories such as top 5 per cent next 10 per cent, next 25 per cent and so on.

Recruitment

In the USA minimum educational qualification is not needed. One should only qualify himself in the above said competitive examinations. In the USA, if a person wants to be appointed to a civil service post, he should prove his residential qualification. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in the USA has the power to oversee whether minorities, particularly Blacks, Hispanics and women are adequately employed or not.

Training

In the some way, the various departments in the USA have special and general training for their incumbents. It varies from one department to the other. Overall training supervision and co-ordination are the functions assigned to the OPM. Thus, the USA just like France is much oriented towards pragmatic training than Britain. There is also the problem of co-ordination and communication in the field of training in the USA.

The office of personnel management is in charge of imparting training to federal civil servants in the USA. This agency is designed to serve as the president's arm for positive, effective, personnel management. It inherited from the Civil Service Commission (CSC) such managerial functions as responsibility of testing, training and operating retirement.

Its headquarters is situated at Washington and has regional offices at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Atlanta, Chicago, Dallas, Louis and San Francisco. It is headed by a director appointed by the president who is assisted by a deputy director. All the state governments have their own training institutions for the state services and they receive training guidelines from OPM.

Promotion

Reservation in promotion in career civil service is very rare in the USA and the UK. In the USA a combination of both seniority and merit principle is followed for promotion. There is a written competitive promotional examination in the USA. Any dispute with regard to promotion can be referred to the Labour Board. Most of the civil service unions in the USA stress only on the method of promotion by seniority. The Civil Service Act, 1978 of the USA wanted a gradual introduction of merit principle in federal civil services as well as administration at the state and the local levels.

In the USA, promotion of civil servants to the highest position in the federal service is made by officials in the White Office but the president appoints them. The Classification Act of 1949 established general schedule of graded responsibility where one can make use of promotional benefits. The grade ranges from G.5.-1 to G.5.-1S. In such grades, there are super grades like G.S.-16, 17, and 18.

1. G.S. 1 to G.S. 4-includes low-level clerical employees.
2. G.S. 5 - G.S. 7-lowest executive echelon.
3. G.S. 8 - G.S. 12-middle management officials.
4. G.s. 13 - G.5. IS-top level career officials.

Automatic promotion is generally restricted within these major four categories. For super grade promotion the president's approval is required.

Retirement

Retirement age is fixed at 60 years. However, there are certain services in the USA for which the retirement age is 70 (Judges of Federal and State Courts).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly compare the administrative system of United Kingdom and USA

4.0 CONCLUSION

Both United Kingdom and USA can be described as civic administrative culture with a semblance in terms of giving emphasis on merit. However, the system of merit recruitment was introduced only by 1865-1869 during the tenure of Andrew Johnson as the USA president. Merit system was backed by legal provisions by the passing of Civil Service Act in 1883 (also known as Pendleton Act). In USA, it was emphasized that public servants should not use their position to subvert the political goals being pursued by the elected government and the political community as a whole. In terms of merit, at the top of civil service administration in the UK, promotions are made on merit but at the lower levels promotion tends to take place in accordance with seniority rules agreed to by the staff union.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, the administrative system of United Kingdom and USA were discussed using different variables or elements ranging from conditions of service, recruitment process, method of evaluation of staff, promotion criterion, training modalities and retirement.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Compare the administrative system of Britain with that of USA

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Comparative Public Administration and Public Policy: Theories and Applications*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press Ltd.
- Heady, F. (1979). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, 2nd edition. New York: Mariel Dekker.
- Jreisat, J. (2012). *Globalisation and Comparative Public Administration*. London: CRC Press.
- Mukhi, H. R. (1998). *Comparative Public Administration*. Delhi: Surjeet Book Depot.
- Ngu, S. M. (2001). *Government and administration in Europe and America: A comparative and evolutionary perspective*. Zaria: Shareef Salam Press.

Otenyo, E. E. and Lord, N. S. (2006). Comparative Public Administration: growth, method and ecology. In E. E. Otenyo and N. S. Lord (eds). *Comparative Public Administration, the Essential Readings*. London: Elsevier.

Rathod, P.B (2007). *Comparative Public Administration*. Jaipur, India: Abd Publishers

Wart, M. V. and Cayer, J. N. (2006). Comparative Public Administration: The search for theories in E. E. Otenye and N. S. Lord (eds). *Comparative Public Administration: The Essential Readings*. London: Elsevier.

UNIT 4 SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION IN MODERNISING CULTURE OF JAPAN

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main contents
 - 3.1 Administrative system of Japan
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Here, we are to discuss about modernise administrative system of Japan. The Japanese had been exposed to bureaucratic institutions at least by the early seventh century A.D. (Nara period) when the imperial court adopted the laws and government structure of Tang China. However, the distinctive Chinese (confucian) institution of civil service examination never took root, and the imported system was never successfully imposed on the country at large. But by the middle of the Tokugawa period (1600-1867), the samurai class functions had evolved from military to clerical and administrative functions. Following the Meiji Restoration (1868), the new elite, which came from the lower ranks of the samurai, established a Western-style civil service.

In Japan, the bureaucracy has traditionally exercised a strong political function. With the promulgation of the new Constitution in 1947, the old bureaucracy was replaced by a democratic civil service, and also the status of the bureaucrats transferred from one of servants of the emperor to one of servants of the people as a whole. However, despite its institutional reform, the traditional bureaucratic character still remains within the civil service. This unit will first trace the historical development of the Japanese civil service, and to describe the present conditions of recruitment and promotion within the current higher civil service.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Describe the administrative system of Japan

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Administrative system of Japan

The Civil Service Through the promulgation of the Meiji Constitution in 1889, a limited monarchy was adopted modeled on that of Bismarck's Germany. The personnel administration system was established two years earlier than the establishment of the Meiji Constitution (ILAS Tokyo 1982:7). In July 1887, the ordinances were issued establishing an examination commission and an examination system. Despite the regulations concerning examination procedures and requirements, it remained possible for applicants to substitute education or experience for taking an examination.

The higher civil service examination, called Kotoh Bunkan Shiken, consisted of written tests in law, economics, finance, and in one or more fields of philosophy, ethics, logic, psychology, etc., and an oral test in law. Since there was no separate central personnel agency, the direction of civil service was dispersed among other ministries and agencies, each maintaining its own personnel administration. Among ministries and agencies, the Ministry of Home Affairs was powerful enough to regulate or to set standards for government service. From 1910 to 1945, the ranks and grades of officials comprised the following: Persons of Shinnin rank (one grade) were appointed by the Emperor in person, and included the prime minister, cabinet members, privy council members, ambassadors, etc. Those of Chokunin rank (one to two grades) were appointed by the emperor based on the prime minister's recommendation, and included permanent secretaries, judges, procurators, bureau directors, and prefectural governors. The Sohnin rank (one to seven grades), including bureau secretaries and section chiefs, was appointed by ministers with the Emperor's approval. Appointments to Sohnin rank were, in principle, limited to persons who had passed the Kohto Bunkan Shiken. Persons of Hannin rank (one to four grades) were appointed by department heads on their own authority.

The Hannin rank officials were required to pass an ordinary civil service examination or possess certain special qualifications, and were appointed to minor posts by department heads (Watanabe 1976:113). Below these official ranks, there were the ordinary employees chosen by employing officials of each separate agency and governed by departmental regulations and ordinances. They were Koin, primarily clerical assistants to officials, and Yohnin, engaged principally as craftsmen or in custodial service. They enjoyed no civil service status and had no civil service protection. Of a recorded total of 858,543 employees in the government ministries, agencies, and monopolies, exclusive of the ministries of the army and navy, as of December

31,1938,2.2% were higher officials (77 of Shinninrank,1757 of Chokuninrank and 16,939 of Sohinrank) and 17.3% (148,570 of Hanninrank) were lower officials, so that about 80% of all government employees had neither civil service status nor protection (GHQ/SCAP 1951:4).

In Japan, the administrative culture traditionally evolved as a dominant culture covering the whole society, not as one of the subcultures in the larger social environment surrounding the civil service (Ide 1982:xvi). Since the formation of the nation-state as a result of the Meiji Restoration in 1868, the Japanese government wanted to modernize itself by absorbing the Western knowledge or skill, but, on the other hand, they intended to achieve it through inculcating the Japanese esprit de corps and eliminating the Western spirit in the modernization process. This intention had been largely achieved through a unified and centralized system of national education demanding loyalty to the Emperor as a divine being with comprehensive ruling power. From 1887 until the end of World War II, the regulations governing Japanese civil service were often amended. However, the Kanri Fukumu Kiritsu (regulations concerning the discipline of officials) of 1887 remained in force with no revision for 60 years and contributed to the inculcation of a particular esprit de corps into Japanese civil service. According to Article I of Kanri Fukumu Kiritsu, "Officials shall regard loyalty and diligence to the Emperor and to His Majesty's Government as of primary duty, and shall discharge their duties in obedience to laws and ordinances". As this article suggests, the government officials were forced to serve as the "Emperor's servants" under very strict regulations demanding strong loyalty. However, on the other hand, they enjoyed privileged social status or honor such as court rank or decorations as a compensation for strong loyalty to the Emperor. In this context, Tadao Adachi defined the personnel administration in the pre-war period as a spiritual or emotional administration based upon a sense of loyalty and honor (Adachi 1962:7, 1966:36). Besides, it followed, from the establishment of the personnel management system emphasizing special obligation and right that bureaucracy was permeated by a strong sense of Kanson Minpi, placing the government above the people.

Nature (problems) of civil service in Japan

The National Personnel Authority, Japan's central personnel administration agency, notes the following problems of the current civil service system.

1. Scandals involving senior civil servants (erosion of civil service ethics)
2. Mistrust of the administrative capacity of civil servants (administrative failure)

3. Sectionalism (closed nature of civil service apparatus and fixation on defending interests of ministries)
4. Career system (development of a sense of privilege)
5. Retirement management (strong criticism of *amakudari*, the practice of retired bureaucrats' "parachuting" into lucrative jobs in sectors they formerly regulated)
6. Close relations between politicians and bureaucrats (ambiguous demarcation)
7. Seniority system (emasculating of meritocracy and complacency borne of protected status)

These issues have frequently been taken up and debated in several government advisory bodies. But actual reforms of the civil service system have been limited to such piecemeal measures as the introduction of a system of fixed-term appointment; no fundamental reforms have been undertaken.

Public Administration under the New Constitution of Japan

On the reform of the Bureaucracy, the new Constitution stated that "all public officials are to be servants of the whole people and not of any group thereof and that the people have the inalienable right to choose and dismiss their public officials" (Article 15). With the promulgation of the new Constitution, the reform of the bureaucracy that exercised political power over the people as "Emperor's servants" became an urgent need in order to substitute a body of democratically selected officials who would serve the people as "civil servants". The militarists and the Zaibatsu capitalists were dissolved through the powerful measures taken by the Allied powers. However, the bureaucracy, which functioned as an effective instrument for carrying out the policies of these groups, was permitted to survive, through the decision to utilize the existing Japanese government machinery to affect the Occupation policies. This decision inevitably involved the risk that ideologically hostile bureaucrats would nullify the effectiveness of policies for democratization by administrative sabotage. The risk was reduced to some extent by the removal of militarists and ultranationalists from public life.

In October 1947, the National Public Service Law based on these recommendations was passed by the Diet, laying down the legal basis for a fundamental reform of the Japanese civil service.¹ Following the National Public Service Law amended in December 1948; the National Personnel Authority (NPA) was established, replacing the temporary National Personnel Commission created by the 1947 legislation. The NPA, composed of three commissioners, was empowered to issue rules of the authority concerning working conditions etc. of employees, to recommend rates and standards of compensation to the Diet, to conduct

necessary research on personnel administration, to recommend changes in civil service laws, and to review appeals by employees. In addition, the NPA has been responsible for conducting various types of civil service entrance examinations. In the prewar period, Kohto Bunkan Shiken operated to favor graduates of the law faculties of Tokyo Imperial University, which institution has come close to monopolizing the higher posts in the civil service. According to the special study by SCAP authorities in 1946, the eight permanent members of the Higher Civil Service Examination Committee (all higher career officials) were graduates of Tokyo Imperial University. In 1946, of 84 special members, 57 were graduates of Tokyo Imperial University and 17 of Kyoto Imperial University. Of the 32 of these examiners who were government officials, 25 had been graduated from Tokyo and two from Kyoto Imperial University (GHQ/SCAP1951:67). Thus, the problem of a preference for the graduates of Tokyo Imperial University in the recruitment of the higher officials and the selection of the examiners seems to have been a very important issue for the reform of the old bureaucracy.

Recruitment and Entrance Examination

National government civil servants are divided into "special" and "regular" categories. Appointments in the special category are governed by political or other factors and do not involve competitive examinations. This category includes cabinet ministers, heads of independent agencies, members of the Self-Defence Forces, Diet officials, and ambassadors. The core of the civil service is composed of members of the regular category, who are recruited through competitive examinations. This group is further divided into junior service and upper professional levels, the latter forming a well-defined civil service elite.

However;

- (a) **Recruitment** In the case of senior civil service entrance examination, initial appointment of employees is made, in principle, through a competitive examination conducted by the NPA that is open equally to all citizens. However, since the appointing power is vested in the head of each ministry and agency, the final appointment is decided by each ministry and agency through comprehensive evaluation of a specific written test, oral examination, and physical examination for the successful applicants selected from the entrance eligibility lists in which their names are entered in the order of their examination scores. Despite this appointment power in each ministry and agency, appointments to the positions of departmental section chief or higher in the central offices of a ministry and agency are subject to review and evaluation by the NPA, as provided by the NPA rule. The total number of these positions was 2323 as of March 1999. Thus, the number of the Japanese senior civil

servants staffed at departmental section chief or higher posts amounted to 2323.

- (b) Entrance Examination In the national civil service, there are three categories of entrance examinations common to most ministries and agencies, in addition to 14 types of examination for candidates for specialist positions in specific ministries and agencies. They are class I, class II, and class III examinations. In addition to these examinations conducted by the NPA, the ministry of foreign affairs has conducted two types of entrance examination for candidates at the college graduate level, but its senior class examination was abolished through the integration into class I examination in 1999. The class I examination (formerly known as senior A class examination, renamed in 1985) is the senior civil service examination open for candidates within the age group between 21 and 32. Annual gross wages is 3,363,600 yen for new college graduate recruits (as of April 1999). The class II examination (an integration of the formerly known senior B class examination and the intermediate examination in 1985) is an ordinary examination for the college graduate level within the age group between 21 and 28.

The system of civil service appointments in Japan thus has an amphibious character, featuring as it does both political and merit-based appointment. Herein lies the root of the problem. As noted in the opening paragraph, senior officials in other countries are appointed either politically, as in the United States, or on merit, as in Britain. To prevent political appointments, Britain operates a system in which no senior officials, up through the rank of permanent secretary, are directly appointed by the minister. Instead, candidates are generally screened and nominated by a selection committee or the central personnel agency based on ability and performance standards, after which they are approved by the prime minister or relevant minister.

Although political appointments cannot be fully prevented because the prime minister has the power to veto nominees, this indirect appointment process serves to limit that risk. This is made possible by an agreement among the political parties, both ruling and opposition, to maintain political neutrality in the civil service. If, by contrast, the power to appoint senior officials is to be considered the prerogative of ministers, then senior civil service posts should be made special positions without any guarantee of status, to which candidates are politically appointed as in the United States. And ministers themselves not ministerial personnel departments should take responsibility for appointing and dismissing these officers.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly describe the nature of recruitment in Japan administrative system

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the transfer from the old bureaucracy under the Meiji Constitution to the democratic civil service under the new Constitution of Japan shows that the institutional relationship of bureaucrats and politicians has greatly changed in postwar period. Despite its institutional reform, the advocates of the bureaucratic-dominance model have paid attention to the fact that the old bureaucracy survived as the instrument of the indirect governance policy under the Occupation of Japan, and have argued that the bureaucracy still has a predominant influence in policy making (Adachi 1982). On the other hand, the advocates of the party dominance model have insisted that the Japanese political system is pluralistic and party dominance is even more appropriate. This model was productive in showing us the importance of the analysis of the changing political environment surrounding the bureaucracy.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, the civil service system that was developed in the Meiji era came to an end with the conclusion of World War II. The National Public Service Act, which defines the current national civil service system, was legislated under the US Occupation. Its fundamental purpose was to democratize Japan's system of politics and public administration, as well as to introduce a modern personnel system to the government sector. Despite having been devastated by the war, the Japanese economy subsequently achieved growth eclipsing that of leading Western countries, a performance many have described as miraculous. It has often been said that this growth was led by the country's exceptionally talented bureaucrats. In terms of recruitment, entrance examination in the national civil service, there are three categories of entrance examinations common to most ministries and agencies, in addition to 14 types of examination for candidates for specialist positions in specific ministries and agencies. They are class I, class II, and class III examinations while initial appointment of employees is made, in principle, through a competitive examination conducted by the NPA that is open equally to all citizens.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Critically discuss the administrative system of Japan

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Adachi, T. (1962). The pattern of administration in the public service: an interpretation of the public service in Japan. *Kwansei Gakuin Law Review Annual Report 1*.
- Farazmand, A. (2001). *Handbook of Comparative and Development Public Administration*. New York: Marcel Dekker Inc.
- Muramatsu, M., and Krauss, E. (1984). Bureaucrats and politicians in policymaking: the case of Japan. *American Political Science Review* 78. National Personnel Authority.