NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIAL
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DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: PAD 747
COURSE TITLE: INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This is a two credit course for the Post-Graduate Diploma in Public Administration Programme. This course of thirty units, consist of six modules; introduction to the study of public administration, historical development and approaches of public administration, bureaucracy and public policy, organization, Nigeria civil service and other aspects of public administration. Each module has an average of five units. The material has been developed to suit post-graduate diploma students in Public Administration at the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) by adopting an approach that highlights the key areas of public administration. The course guide tells you briefly what the course is all about, what course materials you will be using and how you can work your way through these materials. Other information contained in the course includes how to make use of your time and the information on the tutor marked assignments.

2.0 WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE
The course content consists of the meaning, objective, benefits and problems of public administration in Nigeria. It also includes the Ecology and Evolution of Public Administration, organization, Public Policy, Bureaucracy, and the Nigerian Civil Service.

3.0 COURSE OVERVIEW
This course '*Introduction to Public Administration*' aims to give you an understanding of the techniques used and necessary skills in administering and managing public organizations and more specifically, the Nigerian Civil Service.

4.0 COURSE OBJECTIVES
The objectives of the course are to:
1. Explain the context of public administration,
2. Examine the historical development and approaches of public administration
3. Examine the relationship between bureaucracy and public policy
4. Examine the concept of organization
5. Examine the evolution and operations of Nigerian civil service
6. Overview of other aspects of public administration such as personnel administration, development administration, financial administration, urban administration and local government administration.

In addition, each unit also has specific objectives and self-assessment exercise. The units' objectives are also included at the beginning of a unit; you should read them before you start working through the unit. You may want to refer to them during your study of the unit to check on your progress. You should always look at the unit objectives after completing a unit, in this way, you can be sure that you have done what is required of the unit.
5.0 WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To successfully complete this course, you are required to read the study units, read related books and read other materials provided by the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). Each unit contains self-assignment exercises, and at certain points during the course, you will be expected to submit assignments. At the end of the course is a final examination. The course should take you about a total of about 18 weeks to complete. The course is of six modules; introduction to the study of public administration, historical development and approaches of public administration, bureaucracy and public policy, organization, Nigeria civil service and other aspects of public administration. The following are the components of the course, the course guide, study units and textbooks. What you have to do and how you should allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course successfully on time

6.0 STUDY UNITS
The study units in this course are as follows:

MODULE 1-   INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Unit 1 Meaning, Nature and Scope of Public Administration
Unit 2 Principles of Public Administration
Unit 3 Public Administration; the Art and Science Debate
Unit 4 Public Administration; Politics - Administration Dichotomy
Unit 5 Private and Public Administration Compared

MODULE 2-   HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND APPROACHES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Unit 1- Historical Development of Public Administration
Unit 2- Public Administration and Other Social Sciences
Unit 3- Approaches to the Study of Public Administration
Unit 4- New Dimensions of Public Administration
Unit 5- The Concept Of The Chief Executive Officer (CEO)

MODULE 3 BUREAUCRACY AND PUBLIC POLICY
Unit 1- Bureaucracy- meaning, characteristics and criticism
Unit 2- Public Administration and Bureaucracy
Unit 3- Public Policy
Unit 4- Public Policy analysis
Unit 5- Bureaucracy and Public Policy Making

MODULE 4 ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES AND MANAGEMENT
Unit 1 – Organizations; Meaning, principles, types and elements
Unit 2– Process of Organization
Unit 3 –theories of Organization
Unit 4 –The concept of Management

Unit 5– Principles of Management
MODULE 5 NIGERIA CIVIL SERVICE
Unit 1 -Evolution of Public Administration in Nigeria
Unit 2 -Ecology of the Nigerian Public Administration
Unit 3 -The Nigerian Civil Service
Unit 4 -Public Service Reforms in Nigeria
Unit 5 -Planning and Budgeting in the Nigerian Civil Service

MODULE 6 OTHER ASPECTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Unit 1- Public Personnel Administration
Unit 2- Public Financial Administration
Unit 3- Development Administration
Unit 4- Local Government Administration
Unit 5- Comparative Public Administration

7.0 COURSE OUTLINED PROGRAMME PROPOSAL (OPP) FOR
This course is designed to give the students a broad view of what public administration is all about. The contents are: nature and scope of public administration; principles of public administration; historical development and approaches of public administration; the ecology and evolution of public administration in Nigeria; the bureaucracy and public policy, the Nigerian civil service and other aspects of public administration.

8.0 COURSE MATERIALS
Major Components of the course are:
1. Course guide;
2. Study units;
3. Textbooks;

9.0 COURSE MARKING SCHEME
There are two aspects to the assessment for this course: The first is the Tutor-Marked Assignment; and secondly, examination. Within each unit are self-assessment exercises, which are aimed at helping you to check your assimilation as you proceed. Try to attempt each of the exercises before finding out the expected answers from the literature.

10.0 ASSIGNMENT FILE
There will be an assignment in each unit, the exercise are tailored to help you have a full understanding of the course. Practice these assignments carefully, it will help you assess the course critically, consequently increasing your knowledge of the course.

11.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT (TMA's)

This is your continuous assessment exercise and its accounts for 30% of your total score. You are expected to answer at least four set of TMA's questions, before you sit for the end of course examination. Your best three TMA's will account for the 30% total score.

12.0 FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING
Your course examinations' would earn you 70% which would be added to your TMA score (30%). The time for this examination would be communicated to you.

13.0 SUMMARY
This course, Introduction to Public Administration is designed to give you some knowledge which would help you understand the basic fundamentals, functions and principles of administration as applied to Public Organizations. After going through this course, you would be in a good position to pass your e-examination at the end of the semester and programme, the knowledge gained could be applied in the execution of managerial duties and to contribute to the development of scholarly thoughts in public sector management.

13.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
Here are some references for further reading that can assist you. At the end of each unit, you will see a list of references directly related to the topic treated.

MODULE 1
Unit 1 Meaning, Nature and Scope of Public Administration
Unit 2 Principles of Public Administration
Unit 3 Public Administration; the Art and Science Debate
Unit 4 Public Administration; Politics - Administration Dichotomy
Unit 5 Private and Public Administration Compared

UNIT 1
MEANING, DEFINITION, NATURE AND SCOPE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Contents

> 3.1. What is Administration
> **3.2** Public Administration – Meaning and Definitions

> **3.3** Characteristics of Public Administration

> 3.4 Nature of Public Administration
> 3.5 Scope of Public Administration

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 **Introduction**
This unit is the first part of the discussion under the broad framework we termed background to the study of public administration. The unit introduces the student to the basic ideas of public administration. These include gaining insight into the meaning of 'administration' and 'public administration' as well as examination of various definitions of public administration as provided by scholars in the field. Student will also learn the characteristics of public administration and its basic components.

2.0 **Objectives**
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
- Examine various definitions and characteristics of public administration

- Discuss the nature of public administration
- Discuss the Scope of public administration.

3.0 Main Content
3.1. What is Administration?

Administration is a universal process that exists in any organization set up for a defined purpose or objective. It comes to play in churches, the army, the universities, an industrial or business concern or a purely social organization. In these organizations, administration comes to play because each of these organization consists of human beings brought together in a hierarchical set-up, making use of tools, equipment, human and material resources, all in the quest to attain the objective for which the organization is established (Adebayo, 1981). In lieu of the above, we can assert that administration is a process of management practiced by all kinds of organizations from the household to the most complex system of government. This is the reason why administration is a general term. By implication, scholars are at liberty to confer meanings to the concept of administration with respect to their educational, research and occupational background. Therefore, it will be wise to examine four definitions of administration by Pfiffner, Adebayo, Max and Nigro:

i. Administration is the organization and direction of human and material resources to achieve desired ends – (Pfiffner, 1960).
ii. Administration is the organization and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specified end – (Adebayo, 1984).
iii. Administration is determined action taken in pursuit of a conscious purpose. It is the systematic ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources aimed at making those things happen which one wants to happen – (Marx, 1964).
iv. Administration is the organization and use of men and materials to accomplish a purpose – (Nigro, 1965).

The two features of administration are (a) cooperative efforts and (b) pursuit of common objectives. Administration is thus concerned with organization of men and materials to achieve desired ends. Administration consists of 'doing the work' or 'getting the work done by the others'.

Because of the generic nature of administration, it becomes pertinent that we specifically assert the meaning and definitions of public administration.

3.2 Public Administration – Meaning and Definitions

Administration may be private or public. When it refers to the activities of a household, corporation or company, it is private administration, but when it refers to the activities of the state as being undertaken by the federal, state or local government, it is called public administration.

Public Administration could be defined as the art and science of managing government affairs, enforcing law and fulfilling public policy. The term public administration originates from two Latin words: Publicus, which means, people or the public and

Ad+Ministaire, which means, to look after people or things. Public Administration is a collective mechanism for the expression of the will of the people and the wellbeing of the environment. Public administration can also be referred to as the political system in action. It also means to care for or look after people and to manage affairs (Gladden, 1972).

Below are some definitions of public administration:

i. Woodrow Wilson defined public administration as "detailed systematic execution of public law, every particular application of general law is an act of administration (1887).

ii. Public Administration is the function that has to do with getting things done or the accomplishment of defined objectives. It is essentially concerned with the management of organizations in the pursuit of desired public goals and objectives. The ultimate goal of public administration is how to maximize, the efficiency and social effectiveness of public administrative institutions (Gulick and Urwick 1937).

iii. Public administration is the art and science of management as applied to the affairs of state (Waldo, 1955).

iv. Public administration is commonly used to refer to both the activities concerned with the management of government business and the study of these activities. In order words, it is used in distinct senses, as science or as an art; it is an art since it is concerned with the practical management of human resources and as science as it concerns with the knowledge of the ways and methods for efficient fulfillment of public policy (Adamolekun 1983).

v. Public administration is the machinery and the integral processes, through which the government performs its functions. It is a network of human relationships and associated activities extending from the Head of State to the lowest officer charged with utilizing resources on behalf of the people (Nnoli 1986)

vi. Public administration is the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy as declared by the competent authorities. It deals with the problem and powers, the organisation and techniques of management involved in carrying out the laws and policies formulated by the policy-making agencies of government. Public administration is law in action. It is the executive side of government (Dimock, 1937).

vii. Public administration is that part of the science of administration which has to do with Government and thus concerns itself primarily with the executive branch where the work of the government is done (Gullick, 1937).

viii. Public administration has come to signify primarily the organization, personnel, practices and procedures essential for effective performance of the civilian functions entrusted to the executive branch of government (Morstein Marx, 1964).

ix. Public administration is decision-making, planning the work to be done, formulating objectives and goals, working with the legislative and citizens organizations to gain public support and funds for government programmes,

establishing and revising organizations, directing and supervising employees, providing leadership, communicating and receiving communications, determining the work methods and procedures, appraising performance, exercising controls, and other functions performed by government, the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realized (Basu, 1994).

x. Nigro provides a more comprehensive meaning and definition of public administration. According to him, Public Administration:

- Is cooperative group effort in a public setting;
- Covers all three branches – executive, legislative and judicial –and their-relationships;
- Has an important role in the formulation of public policy and is thus a part of the political process;
- Is more important than, and also different in significant ways from private administration;
- As a field of study and practice has been much influenced in recent years by the human relations approach; and
- Is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community.

All of these definitions identify public administration with:
• The formulation and implementation of public policies;
• The executive branch of government;
• Organizational structures and machinery of administration;
• Administrative processes;
• Bureaucracy and its activities;
• Coordination of group activity or social relationship; and
• Interaction between organization and their environment (Basu, 1994).

In the study of public administration, emphasis is on the notion of efficiency – focus on how to improve the machinery of government for effective and efficient service delivery. This is why the objective of public administration is the most efficient utilization of the resources at the disposal of officials and employees (this includes material, equipment, human resources).

3.3   Characteristics of Public Administration

We can talk about the main characteristics or main features of public administration. Balogun (1983) provides what he describes as the enduring characteristics of public administration. These include:

i.   The primacy of ends, goals or objectives: The source and origin of administration are the ends which are meant to be served.

ii.   The interlocking relationship between policy and formulation and policy implementation roles: From the broad goals identified, policies are formulated and then implemented. Although the political class sometimes lays claim to exclusive

control of the policy formulation process, administrators have a vital role to play in the areas of policy analysis, fact-gathering, and options identification, all of which will finally lead to formulation of policy.

iii. The integrative role of organization: Even when policies are conceived and formulated outside the framework of organizations, the implementation generally takes place in bureaucratic organizations or in 'programme' or matrix organizations. It is in such organizations that human and material resources are coordinated and deployed to achieve policy objectives.

iv. The interposition of values and ethics: Although administration is a universal concept, its practice tends to be conditioned by values prevailing at any particular time and place.

v. The intrusion of economic values: If public administration was originally concerned in the main with political values and objectives, it now has to accommodate economic values in view of its intervention in economic spheres.

Any comprehensive definition and consideration of public administration will need to highlight the above characteristics.

3.4. Nature of Public Administration

There are two main divergent views regarding the nature of public administration.

Integral view – according to this view, public administration is a sum total of all the activities undertaken in pursuit of and in fulfillment of public policy. These activities include managerial, technical, as well as manual and clerical. In this manner, the activities of all persons from top to bottom constitute administration although they are of varying significance to the running of administrative machinery (Bhagwan and Bhushan, 2006). Dimock (1937) was of the view that administration is concerned with the 'what' and the 'how' of government. The 'what' is the subject-matter, the technical knowledge of a field which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The 'how' is the technique of management, the principles according to which cooperative programmes are carried to success.

Managerial view –according to this view, the work of only those persons who are engaged in the performance of managerial functions in an organization constitute administration. The job of this group of people is to plan, programme and organize all the activities in an organization so as to achieve the desired ends.

These two views differ from each other in many ways. The integral view includes the activities of all persons engaged in administration whereas the managerial view restricts itself only to the activities of a few persons at the top.

The integral view postulates all types of activities from manual to managerial; from non-technical to technical, but managerial view takes into account only the managerial activities in an organization. Some of these activities include: planning for the organization, budgeting, staffing amongst others.

According to the integral view, administration would differ from one person sphere to another depending upon the subject matter, whereas the managerial view is identified with the managerial techniques common to all fields of administration.

3.5 Scope of Public Administration
Several writers in the field of public administration have defined the scope of public administration in varying degree. Indeed, the scope of public administration is wide; it involves those issues, functions, spheres and areas in the public domain. The complex natures of our modern society make public administration to be more complex. An average citizen is likely to think of public administration primarily in terms of governmental regulations of individual and group conduct. However, the scope of public administration is vast in nature and varied in form of protection, assistance, and services the government provides.

Adebayo (1981), states that when administration is qualified by the word public, it simple means the practice of administration in the public sector. Public administration means the same as government administration. The scope of public administration connotes the service of the public or government. In Nigeria, the scope of public administration has increased to include the federal government and all its ministries, the federal Parastalals and Commissions, the army, the Police, the Customs department, the state ministries, Commissions and Parastatals owned by the state and the federal capital territory (FCT) Abuja as well as the 774 Local government areas in the country. However, from the foregoing one could be able to deduce that the scope of public administration can be categorized as follows:

Protection: It is duties of government to provide some level of protection for the society as a whole; e.g. police, fire protection, healthcare, national and civil defence, prison services, safeguarding and conservation of natural resources of the environment.

Promotion of services: The government owns and operates enterprises services, e.g. postal services, post facilities, municipal, water supply, electric power, vehicle assembly plants, cement factories, banks and allied institutions, etc. the government also provides some level of services to education and social groups e.g. farmers, factory workers, businessmen and women, women and children, the unemployed public administration and the aged.

Regulation: The government through it various departments and agencies regulates the public and private sectors. The activities of NDLEA, NAFDAC, S.O.N. etc. and other regulatory bodies and boards are of significance here.

Furthermore, the scope of public administration deals with intergovernmental and other functional responsibilities such as agriculture, civil aviation, high ways, housing, rural and urban development, vocational rehabilitation, care of the aged, the blind, the destitute, and the refuges. Public administration is also concerned with how a country's administration is organized and how it functions. It's the machinery for implementing government policy. The functions of public administration involve social, economic, cultural and political activities.

Woodrow (1887), states that the task of public administration is to strengthen the path of government and to make its business-less, and purify its organization and to crown its duties with dutifulness. He further states that the expansion of modern societies and the complexities of societal demands have helped to make the scope of public administration rather elastic.

4.0 Conclusion

The meaning, nature and scope of public administration as discussed in this unit reveal that the field of public administration is very wide. Public administration on one hand can be considered as the implementation of public policy (administering the policies of government). Performing this task will involve every cadre of the organization; managerial, administrative, technical and non-technical. On another hand, it can be seen as managerial aspect of an organization where the focus is on the managerial activities.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, we discussed the definitions, characteristics, nature and scope of public administration. The section identifies two divergent views of public administration: the integral and managerial views. We also discussed the scope of public administration, where we assert that the scope of public administration involves those issues, functions, spheres and areas of public administration.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

1. What is your understanding of the term 'public administration'?
2. Discuss the major characteristics of public administration.
3. Discuss the two divergent views on the nature of public administration
4. Discuss the scope of Pubic Administration

7.0 References/Further Reading

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UNIT 2

PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main Content
3.1 Principles of Administration
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION
In this unit, you will be introduced to basic principles of public administration. These principles may be expected to serve the practical purpose of providing an essentially conceptual framework to facilitate the study of public administration. These principles we shall learn in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVE
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss various principles of public administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Principles of Administration
Bhagwan and Bhushan (2006: 70-77) provide a checklist of the principles of public administration. Let us consider these principles one after the other.
a) Principle of Political Direction
Public administration is an agency of government. The subordinate machinery obeys the general directions as issued by the political authority. It is directed by the political laws and statues. The objectives of administrative actions are defined and authorised by the political authority in a state possessing to compel members of the society over which it presides to act in certain ways. Since the ends it pursues are not of its own devising, public administration serves the will of others. That will is formed and expressed by political, not administrative, machinery.

The administrative only receives the orders from the above and has no initiative left in its own hands. The only initiative, which an administrative body possesses, is with regard to those activities or spheres which have not been touched by the superior authority and are left to the administrative bodies in their discretion.

b) Principle of Authority

Public administration is carried by persons who have certain powers or authority. Authority is the power or right of a person commanding other people to do things and in general of getting work done by them. The authority comes to an administrator from the nature of things. It results from the position of superiority occupied by some people over others. The authority which a superior exercises is of three sorts, one legal or statutory, second, which follows from the nature of the position he holds, and the third, from his own personality. The legal authority is one which is given to him by the rules and regulations of administration. But sometimes conditions and circumstances may arise not contemplated in the rules and regulations which may call for command on the one side and obedience on the other. Such command or authority will be said to flow from the nature of the position the superior holds. The third source of authority is the personality of the superior due to his intelligence, knowledge, experience and the moral value of his personality. Authority and his counterpart obedience keep administration in order.

c) Principle of Public Responsibility
The third principle that follows is the principle of public responsibility.
Public administration is responsible for all its acts to the political executive who in its turn is responsible to the public through legislature and thus public administration, if not directly; it is indirectly responsible to the people for its acts through political chief. Public administration must be sure of the grounds on which it acts since it can be questioned at anytime. It must be able to explain its activities when required to do so.
Adequate records of the grounds and reasons for its actions as well as of the actions themselves must be maintained. That is why that official business is not conducted orally but by correspondence and by written minutes preserved in files. Since public administration is ultimately responsible to the public, this responsibility as a whole will tend to require uniformity in administrative action. Civil servants cannot give special considerations to individuals of a particular group. Their treatments should be uniform throughout. It will always be difficult in public administration to justify giving special consideration and treatments to individuals, which is not extended generally to all individual in like circumstances.

d) Principle of Social Necessity
From the above mentioned principles it should not be inferred that administrative responsibility is merely the responsibility of obeying others- as a squad of new recruits obeys a drill sergeant on the parade ground. Public administration is much more than mere being a faithful servant. It is the inevitable necessity and the absolute indispensability.
Social action is impossible without administrative action. In the present age the social machinery cannot run without the aid of public administration, it is the inevitable part of the social link something very essential in the nature of society to set up one set of conditions into another. So great are the complexities of all the requirements of social action that political machinery alone is unable to plan their execution in all details. Much

has to be left to the administrative action if political ends are to be achieved. It is, in other words, a necessary part of the government of a country.

e) Principle of Efficiency
No governmental machinery can be successful unless civil service is efficient. Though efficiency is not of special and exclusive application to public administration, since many other humans' activities also seek to be efficient, nevertheless the guidance of such a principle cannot be omitted from a set of administrative principles because without it the subject would lack a standard by which its performance could be assessed. The principle of efficiency therefore holds an important place in the realm of public administration.

f) Principle of Organisation
This principle draws attention to the need for careful organisation or structuring of the administrative machinery. Upon this principle depends in large measure the value of the contribution public administration can make to social well-being. Though the organisation must be economical, yet it should not be lacking the basic ingredients of a perfect organisation. "Co-ordination", "correlation" and "integration" are blessed words covering a multitude of administrative virtues. Every department of public administration must be correlated with each other. There must not be water-tight separation between the various departments. The government is a unit and must be run as a unit.
Important and independent activities should be integrated at one place. Coordination of the work of all the parts of administration is absolutely necessary to make the administrative system work.

g) Principles of Public Relations
Public Administration is a means and not an end in itself. It exists for the welfare of individuals and since it affects their welfare, it is essential that it must understand the needs and desires of the people. The principle of public relations enjoins effective interaction between administration and the public affected by administration and the public affected by administration. It points to the need for an integration of democratic 'experience' and 'will' with the administrative agencies designed for its expression. It is only when public relations have been rightly established that there can be true democratic system of public administration.

h) Principle of Evolution and Progress
A peep into history reveals the mass and momentum of public administration as well as the rate at which it has increased and is increasing everyday. At the end of the eighteenth century and during the first quarter of the nineteenth century little or nothing had been done to cope with a number of pressing social problems. Today the government has opened her departments like the department of social security, community projects and planning, etc. which has ensured an increase in administrative force. More and more activities have been assigned to public administration and there is no sign that the tendency is likely to be reversed. Education, social security, electricity supply and many other activities have been largely removed from the sphere of exclusive, voluntary,

private or uncontrolled exploitation. Today the relationship between states and individual is not that of opposition but essentially one of self-help and co-operative effort through a better and more intelligently planned division of labour. Therefore, the principle of evolution and progress in public administration is all that the above indicate as well as the fact that public administration is becoming more and more scientific and evolving itself from old methods to new ones.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Examine two of the principles of public administration

4.0 CONCLUSION
There is what we can refer to as principles of public administration. They are the statements which succeed in showing the broad dimensions of a subject and at the same time map out its main features. We can learn different things about public administration from each of these principles.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, we have examined the basic principles of public administration as provided by Bhagwan and Bhushan (2006).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Discuss the principles of public administration.
2. Examine the three types of authority an administrator holds under the principle of authority of public administration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
Adamolekun, L. (1986). *Politics and Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.
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UNIT 3

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION; THE ART AND SCIENCE DEBATE

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There are divergent views among scholars on whether public administration is a science or an art. It is quite clear that subjects that deal with the natural phenomenon do not find it difficult to build up a system of sound laws or principles which may predict the future happenings or events with exactitude. On the other hand, public administration as an art is practiced daily in all governmental organizations.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss why Public Administration is referred to as science
• discuss how Public Administration constitute an art.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Public Administration as a Science

Since in public administration one studies the governmental organisation and relationship of human beings in the organisation, therefore, the researchers in the field of public administration are trying their best to build up a science of public. Moreover, it has been seen that any discipline which is involved in the studying of social affairs gains legitimacy and respectability if it can be established as a science. The early writers on the study of public administration like Woodrow Wilson called it the "Science of public administration" Willoughby in 1926 asserted, "In administration there are certain fundamental principles of general application analogous to those characterising any science".

Moreover, in the case of physical sciences they have the features of exactness, precision and predictability. The advocates of science of public administration had been classified into three main categories. Accordingly, the writers falling into the first category claim that there is a fair degree of exactness and certainty of the principle of public administration. The second group of writers does not agree with the view point put forward by writers of the first category. Merson and White who presented the second

category do not agree with the argument given by the writers who fall into the first category and further say that there is not and can never be exact science of public administration, yet they assert that public administration is science. The writers went further to argue that science is the investigation and observation, followed by tabulation, classification and correlation. It is further emphasised that the subject-matter of exact science is measured and consists of facts which can be isolated and generally have a relative uniformity. According to the view expressed by writers belonging to the third category, the present state of development, public administration may not earn the name of a science, but in due course of time it will become a science. At the present state of affairs, its study presents only a framework of connected ideas which provides a basis for further study and analysis of its subject-matter.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
1 Why did the early writers call Public Administration a Science?

3.2 Public Administration as an Art
The second part of the discussion which relates to public administration as an art is practiced daily in all governmental organisations. Moreover, it has been seen that it is not only concerned with building of programmes and projects but also with their efficient execution by applying the principles of public administration. It has further argued that an administrator has to face the challenges of administration while implementing the policies and programmes of the government. So an administrator must be fully trained in administrative skill or art to face such challenges.
Nowadays a pertinent question which is faced by the administrators is: can the art of administration be acquired? Some are of the opinion that administration as an art is a natural gift hence in other words the implication is that it cannot be acquired. But the opposite view of the above is that the art of administration cannot be acquired quickly. It requires a constant and concerned effort. Public administration as an art has been in practice since ancient times. The aim and objectives behind the art of public administration is most efficient utilisation of resources at the disposal of officials and employees. Therefore, like the art of music, the art of administration can also be acquired and improved upon through the continuous practice in that art.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2
Explain how Public Administration constitutes an art?

4.0 CONCLUSION
In conclusion, to the discussion on the question of science and art of public administration, there is not yet any final answer. However, it could be said that since public administration is a growing science, hence it is at present more an art than science.

5.0 SUMMARY

To sum up the above discussion, it is observed that public administration cannot be called a science until the following conditions are fulfilled. In the first place it is very much imperative that the place of normative value should clearly be identified and made clear. Secondly, greater emphasis on human element in public administration should be laid for understanding the subject-matter of this science of administration. Lastly, principles of public administration should be developed on the basis of cross-cultural studies which may not suffer from being culture bound.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. In your own view, is public administration a science?
2. Can the art of administration be acquired?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4

POLITICS – ADMINISTRATION AND ADMINISTRATION-MANAGEMENT DICHOTOMY

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Politics and administration are two closely related social science disciplines, so much so that it is difficult to draw a line of demarcation to say where politics starts and ends and where administration starts and ends. This position notwithstanding, can be said without fear of contraction that politics and politicians are mainly concerned with the "a theory of public administration which means in our time a theory of politics too".

2.0 Objective

By the end of this unit, the students will understand

1. the difference between politics and administration in the context of the politics-administration dichotomy
2. the relationship between administration and management

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Differences between Politics and Administration

The conventional view of the relationship between politics and administration is that of one between ends and means. Politics in its more specific sense is concerned with the acquisition and use of state power. Power in this sense can be taken as the collective powers of all duly constituted public authorities.

Administration is concerned solely with the most efficient means for achieving any given set or political objectives. It is important to note that this is a simplified distinction between politics and administration because public administrators are in various ways, involved in both public policy-making and policy-implementation.

One way of differentiating politics from administration is in terms of careers and vocations. With regards to this view, politics is concerned in democracies with the activities of elected representatives and those who elect them or influence them and the

activities of professional administrators as advisers. But this distinction does not hold at all times in view of the enormous influence wielded by top professional administrators in public policy-making as a result of their technical expertise which most elected members of the state and National Assemblies do not possess.

Another way of differentiating politics from administration is in term of process. We can envisage an arch with the left representing the political process and the right arc the administrative process. The junction at the top represents the critical point at which policies flow and energize the administrative system. It is also the point at which influences that have been generated within the administrative process flow back into the higher levels of the political process.

Fig. 1.

Melting Critical Point

Political Process

Administrative Process
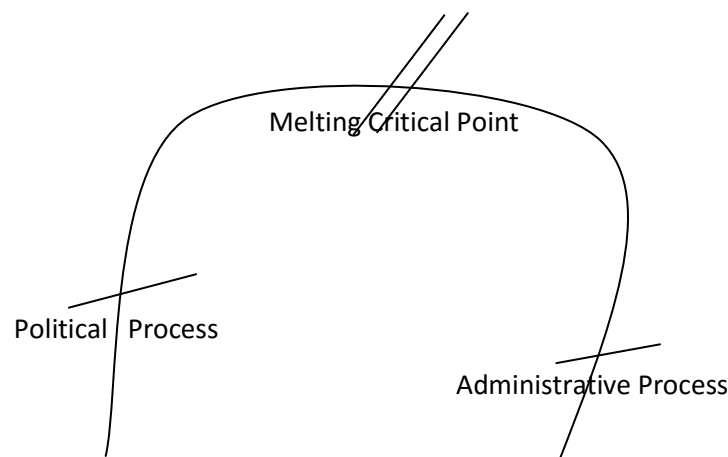
Source: Austin Ranney, The Governing of Men, 4thed.Hinsdale; The Dryden Press, 1975, p.31

The conventional view of this image would show all, or nearly all, the lines of forces moving in opposite direction – that is from the political to the administrative. They would show political will being generated by the activities of political parties, interest groups, public opinion, elected representatives etc. and then discharged into the administrative system where they are broken down into successively more detailed stages of application. This picture contains a fair degree of truth since it is generally the case that the stronger drives and impulses originate within the political process.

In summary, it can be said that the political processes are concerned with interaction and influences and also, the ability for the political will to flow into the administrative system and back to the political process while administration centred on the efficiency of the political processes.

Self-Assessment Exercise:

1. Explain the relationship between the Political process and Administrative process

2. In your own words, define Public Administration and Management

3.2 Differences Between Administration And Management
Administration and Management can be differentiated in two major ways: a. The nature of the organization and management levels. b. The kind of decisions involved.

The Nature of Organisation and Management Levels
The term administration is preferably used in public institutions e.g. churches, government departments, educational institutions, hospitals etc. and as such laid down rules, regulations, standards, code of conduct, principles and procedures guide the achievement of set goals. Hence administration is said to be rigid, and concerned with obeying the stated rules and code of conduct. Administration tends to concentrate on efficiency "doing things right" and it is somehow autocratic – seeking obedience to prescribed standards. The output in administration seeks quality which is difficult to measure.

Dichotomy between Administration and Management
Administration is seen as any action that is directed towards the analysis of policies, identification of options and to a substantial degree, the implementation of programmes as well as efficient allocation of resources. In addition to all these calculated decisions, a typical administrative action takes into consideration the goals of the organization as well as the environment within which the actions place (Balogun, 1983). Haimann, (1983) states that administration means the overall determination of policies, setting of major objectives, identification of general purposes and laying down of broad programmes and projects. Newman, (1963) states that administration means guidance, leadership & control of the efforts of the groups towards some common goals. Administration tends to concentrate on efficiency, sometimes it is very rigid and somewhat autocratic seeking obedience to prescribed standards. Management sets standard for attainment, encourages creativity, flexibility and diversification (Obiajulu and Obi, 2004). There are several scholars that have contributed to the meaning of administration prominent among whom are Nwankwo (1987), Heyel (1973), Breach (1975) and Guilck (1968). Administration is the capacity of coordinating many and often conflicting social energies in single organisation. Peretomode (1980), administration is the process of working with and through others to efficiently accomplishes organisational goals and objectives. Fayol (1984), defines administration in the narrow sense of management and regarded administration as a discipline, which deserved to be taught as a universal activity that any organisation should be involved in. he maintained that administration has five elements; foresight; organisation; command; co-ordination and control. He further stated that the principles of administration includes; division of labour, authority, discipline unity of command, unity of direction, subordination to general interest, remuneration, centralization, order and hierarchy of command. Nwankwo (1987), states that administration is considered as the careful and systematic arrangements for the achievement of the specific objectives of a given organisation. He further introduced a

new dimension to the definition of administration when he made mention of the use of resources, situation and opportunities. It can there be inferred that administration involves the effective and efficient use of the three Ms (Man, Money and Materials). However, the above definitions revolve around the main variables which are: accomplishment of organisational goals and the cooperative effort as a means of goals accomplishment.

Management on the other hand involves conceiving, initiating and bringing together the various elements; coordinating, actuating, integrating the diverse organizational components while sustaining the viability of the organization towards some pre-determined goals. In other words, it is an art of getting things done through and with the people in formally organized groups. Management is seen as the act of handling or controlling affairs. Management is rigid and somewhat autocratic; this is because the output is predetermined and can easily be measured. Management tends to be product-oriented (Obiajulu and Obi, 2004). Drucker (1973), states that management is an objective function that ought to be grounded I the responsibility for performance. Follett (1920), defines management as the art of getting things done through people, which implies that management is an art (that is, depends on personal qualities), managers must have subordinates and that they do not do the same things as other employees. Managers' tasks include making good use of the enterprises employees to perform whatever task that may be necessary to achieve organisational goals. Management is concerned with human beings whose behaviour is highly unpredictable. Most people would prefer to use administration for government businesses and refers to any other organisation that is non-governmental management. Peretomode (1980), states that management is the act of getting things done through and with people in formally organised groups. It is the art of creating the environment in which people can perform and individuals could cooperate towards attaining of group goals. Breach (1975), states that management requires a sequence of coordinated activities undertaken by one person or group of persons in the most effective and efficient way to direct the activities of others for the purpose of accomplishing organisational goals. He further stated that management is a set of activities which is classified as concerning with planning, organising or controlling. Management is seen 'as giving direction to their organisations, provide leadership and how to use organisational resources to accomplish goals (Drucker, 1979). Management refers to persons who work with and through other to achieve organisational goals. He is equally of the view that, all organisations operate by the provision, combination and utilization of organisational resources of men, material (material inputs and technology) and money. (Akpala, 1988) Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990) Management is more scientifically based than administration. The principles of management are different from administration.

The difference between Management and Administration can be summarized under two categories: -- Functions, and Usage or Applicability.

On the basic function, table-1 below shows the major dichotomy between administration and public administration.

Table 1.1

BASIS	MANAGEMENT	ADMINISTRATION
Meaning	Management is an art of getting things done through others by directing their efforts towards achievement of pre-determined goals.	It is concerned with formulation of broad objectives, plans and policies
Nature	Management is an executing function.	Administration is a decision-making function.
Process	Management decides who should as it and how should he do it.	Administration decides what is to be done & when it is to be done.
Function	Management is a doing function because managers get work done under their supervision.	Administration is a thinking function because plans and policies are determined under it.
Skills	Technical and Human skills	Conceptual and Human skills
Level	Middle & lower level function	Top level function

Sources: http://www.managementstudy guide.com.

On the basic usage or application, the table-2 below shows the major dichotomy between administration and public administration.

Table: 1.2

| BASIS	MANAGEMENT	ADMINISTRATION
Applicability	It is applicable to business concerns i.e. profit-making organization.	It is applicable to non-business concerns i.e. clubs, schools, hospitals etc.
Influence	The management decisions are influenced by the values, opinions, beliefs & decisions of the managers.	The administration is influenced by public opinion, govt. policies, religious organizations, customs etc.
Status	Management constitutes the employees of the organization who are paid remuneration (in the form of salaries & wages).	Administration represents owners of the enterprise who earn return on their capital invested & profits in the form of dividend.

Sources: http://www.managementstudy guide.com.

Practically, there is no difference between management and administration. Every manager is concerned with both - administrative management function and operative management function as shown in the tables above. However, the managers who are higher up in the hierarchy denote more time on administrative function and the lower

level denote more time on directing and controlling worker's performance i.e. management.

The table-3 below shows the degree of administration and management performed by the different levels of management.

Table 1.3

Sources: http://www.managementstudy guide.com.
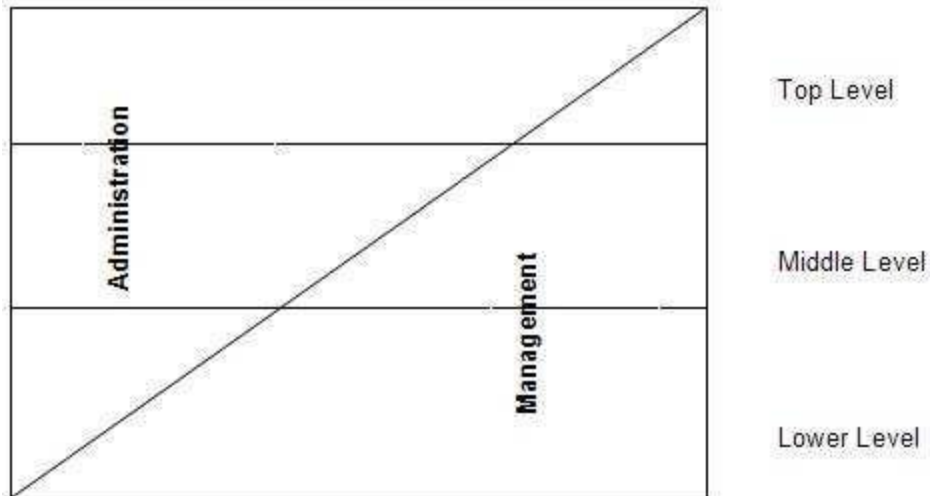
4.0 Conclusion

From the foregone discussion, it has been revealed that the major difference between politics and administration is in the areas of interaction and influences on the political process and efficiency of the administrative system. Again, the difference between management and administration is on the nature of the organization and the kind of decisions involved. The differences that exist between public and private administration are in the setting, formation and structure.

5.0 Summary

While scholars have been tempted to assert that there is no difference between politics and administration as the line between them are getting blurred by the day, the fact still remains that there is a difference between both concepts and their relationship has been established. Same applies to administration and management which sometimes scholars used interchangeable.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

1. Explain the relationship between the Political process and Administrative process
2. In your own words, define Public Administration and Management

7.0 References/Further Reading

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UNIT 5

PRIVATE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION COMPARED

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You will recall in our discussion in unit 1, we alluded that administration might be private or public. When it refers to the activities of a household, corporation or company, it is private administration, but when it refers to the activities of the state as being undertaken by the central, provincial or local government, it is called public administration. In this unit, you will learn more about the major differences that exist between public administration and private administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss the major differences between public administration and private administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Public and Private Administration

Public Administration is sometimes referred to as public management and sometimes the two words are used interchangeably. It is concerned with the activities of public institutions and organizations that are owned jointly or principally by the government. It is concerned with the implementation of policies and activities of the government at the three levels (federal, state and local). It is concerned with how a country administration is organised and how it functions. Woodrow (1887), public administration means the most obvious part of government or government in action. It is the most visible side of government, particularly the executive arms, that implements the plans and activities of the government. Adebayo (1986), public administration means the art of planning, assessment, appraising performance by the government executives and supervisors. Public administration also means the management of public policy, the shaping and carrying out of public policies and service- oriented (Ladipo and Omoyele, 2003).

Private administration is in the domain of private organizations or institutions which are establishments that are not owned (either jointly or principally) by the government. it

means the organisation and management of human and material resources of the private sectors for the goal of the public. Whatever management decision taken and policy implemented in private organisations e.g. Nestle plc, Shell, Chevron, Lever Brothers Nigeria plc, etc belong in the realm of private administration. Their activities and operations are centred on profit- making by minimizing cost of production and maximizing profit. Private organisations produce goods and render services.

3.2   Differences between Public Administration and Private Administration

Politics versus Profits: One of the major distinctions between public and private administrations lies in the fact that the goals of public administration are grounded in politics and decision making processes that may affect an entire community of citizens, whereas the goals of private administration are founded on the maximisation of profit. Decision making in public bureaucracies is achieved by meeting the objectives of compromise, consensus, and democratic participation. These objectives are different from the private sector's emphasis on the concepts of efficiency, rationality, and profit Berkley and Rouse (1994).

Public Responsibility: Public administration has responsibility to the public. It has to face the criticism of the public, press and political parties. Public officials are to act in accordance with the wishes of the people expressed through their representatives, the legislators and the ministers who are held responsible for fulfillment of the people's wishes. The principle of public responsibility requires the public administration to keep elaborate records and accounts of their actions and to make public the activities of the public servants so that the people may know what is being done by the government and in what manner so that they may control their activities by their criticisms and may be in a position to offer suggestions for improvements in administration.

Private administration does not have any great responsibility towards the public. Private administration is not responsible to the public in the sense in which the public administration is. While public administration is directly responsible to the people to a very great extent, private administration is only responsible to the people indirectly in the sense that it is set up to secure its ends and not for the welfare of the people.

Nature of Function: Public administration is more comprehensive. It deals with the various types of the needs of the people, for example, public administration maintains railways to facilitate movement of goods and passengers, provides postal services, maintains hospitals and health centres to protect public health. Public administration carries out functions which are vital for the very existence of the people, for example, maintenance of law and order.

Private administration does not usually cover so many aspects of human life. It is mostly concerned with the economic needs of life. Again, public administration owns monopoly in some of the services, for example, it alone runs railways, maintains an army. No private individual can undertake any of these functions. In private administration more than one organisation undertakes the same activity for example, the telecommunication

network provider in Nigeria, there are MTN, Globacom, Multilink, Airtel and so on. However, since the 1990s (globalisation) governments have been allowing private organisations to participate in those areas of the economy (sectors) previously left for governments only.

Efficiency: Private administration is said to be conducted upon a level of efficiency superior to that of public administration. In a private administration, the incentive of more profits impels the individual to devote himself wholeheartedly to his business. This incentive is lacking in public administration. Consequently the administration of public affairs cannot be made equal to the efficiency of private administration. This is more of the case in the developing countries of Africa, Asia etc.

Organisation: Though the principle of organisation is relevant to both public and private administration, yet the principle has social consequences in the sphere of public administration and of far greater influence than in private administration because a defect in organization in public administration will do more harm to the public than a defect in private administration can do, (this is more so because public administration deals with a wider segments of the population) and even if any harm is done by it, it would be less significant. However, since globalisation, there have been changes in this trend. Whether the harm will be significant or not even in the private sector depends on the size of the organisation. For example any harm or damage in the Telecommunication industries in Nigeria (though private) will have a dire consequence on the population.

Monopolistic: In the field of public administration, there is generally a monopoly of the government and it does not allow private parties to compete with it. In the case of private administration, there are several organisations competing with each other to supply the same commodity or to meet the same need. We should note that this is fast changing because of globalisation. In spite of the differences discussed above, some points of convergence between public and private administrations do exist.

These differences that exist between public and private administration can be grouped into setting, formation and structures of the organizations:
Setting:
1. Public administration is for service orientation, that is, capitally intensive e.g. PHCN, NITEL, NTA, NPA, etc. while private organization is a profit-oriented entity. The private enterprise is essentially for profit maximization
2. Public administration performs numerous activities e.g. external defence (military services), police affairs, currency, maintenance of law and order, whereas the private organizations have limited activities e.g. engineering, industry, production, communication, textiles, commerce and banking etc.
3. Accountability in the public administration in not well established or accounted for, but in the private organizations, the level of accountability and efficiency is well established.

Formation:
1. Public administrations are being financed from various taxes or being owned by the public. They are being paid by the tax payer fund. But private organizations are owned by limited number of people not as large as a country
2. Public organization is opened to more criticism (either constructive or otherwise) while the private organizations are not all that prune to frequent criticism as their operations are not widely known
Structure:
1. The size of public organizations is usually larger than those of private organizations. Many private organizations structures do not extend beyond their locality.
2. Recruitment into the public services is based on geographical spread (federal character) those of the private sector, are mostly on merit irrespective of applicant's state of origin.
3. Personnel procurement in the public sector is done by a centralized body, civil service commission, or by ministries acting on their behalf and according to the guideline formulated by it. While in the private sector, individual organization is responsible for the living of its staff.
4. Decision making in public administration is control by the government or elected officers while the Shareholders control private organizations or sectors

However, both private and public administration is interested in matters of economic as well as socio-political, although the degree of interest will vary depending on circumstances. Since it also takes place within a dynamic socio-political environment, private administration cannot pretend to have nothing to do with the public, or with the issues of morals and ethics confronting society. Public administration may also find itself being regulated not just by public law, but also by private, mercantile law (the enactments on hours of work, employment of women, working conditions and so on) apply as much to the public sector as they do to the private sector (Balogun,1983). So, in many ways, both types of administration has relationship.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What are the main differences between public and private administrations?

4.0 CONCLUSION
Administration is a universal process seen as management of human and non-human material to achieve an objective. However, administration as practiced in the public sector is different from administration in the private sector. The above differences we identified show that both the public and private administration are place in different context but similarities also abound.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the various ways in which public administration is different from private administration. From their characterization, public administration is bureaucratic, while private administration is less bureaucratic, business-like and driven by profit motive. Public administration is political, while private administration is non-political. Public administration is complex dealing with varying aspect of public life while private administration operation is limited in scope. Public administration is subject to the principle of external control of the legislature, while private administration is basically under the control of its owners.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Public and private administrations are different in many respect, discuss the differences between the two.
2. Why is public administration more complex than private administration?
3. Are there any similarities between public and private administrations?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
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MODULE 2

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UNIT 1
HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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3.1 Historical Development of Public Administration
3.2 Historical Approach to the study of Public Administration
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5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading.

1.0 INTRODUCTION
In the first module, you had an idea about what the concept, nature and scope of public administration are all about. This unit will take you a step further into the Historical Development of the Study of Public Administration. In this unit, the focus is on the Historical Development of Public Administration.

2.0 Objective
At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain:
   i. the historical development of Public Administration
   ii. the historical Approach to the study of Public Administration

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Historical Development of Public Administration
Historically, the study of public administration as an independent field of political science came about in the late eighteen century, when Woodrow Wilson (1887), a constitutional lawyer and Kinnear (1887), undertook and made enquiry into the field of public administration. It is an infallible fact that the British colonized Nigeria and that the institutionalization of the sphere of influence by British on Nigerian territory took place in successive stages. When Lagos was annexed in 1861, by 1862, the situation necessitated the establishment of rudimentary public administration which was confined to the Lagos colony then. No sooner had Britain settled in Nigeria, was a committee constituted in 1865, on how public administration will be administered.

Goodnow (1890), states that the study of public administration commenced at about 1940 or precisely after the 2nd World War. He further stated that, Robert Dahl, Fred Riggs, Sulton, David Easton, Davies are among the leaders and pioneering scholars of public administration, However, the work of Rigg is by far the most outstanding. His work on the concepts of the Sala Model and the Prismatic Society study brought into view public administration of the developing non-western countries.

This account naturally leads to the approaches to the study of public administration which we have treated but for emphasis sakes, the historical approach to the study of public administration will be re-engaged here.

3.2 Historical Approach to the study of Public Administration

The historical approach to the study of Public Administration is essentially based on the belief that knowledge of history is absolutely essential for an in-depth study of any subject. For a proper understanding of the subject, the study of public administration of the past in particular periods is necessary to link up with the present administrative systems. If we take Nigeria for example, in order to understand the evolution, the growth and development of its administration, a historical perspective is essential. This may involve knowing the nature of public administration in the pre-colonial period (Traditional Society), during colonial period and how these developed into the modern public administration.

Therefore, this approach sees public administration from the perspective of historical development of events of a particular nation's public service and administration. In this approach, scholars of public administration are categorized into two major groups. Those who have sound knowledge of public service and public administration such as Woodrow Wilson, Frank Goodnow, a professor of administrative law at Colombia University (father of American Public Administration), F. W. Willonghboy, Mashal Dimock, George Frederickson, Orion White, Leonard D. etc. and those who are interested in neither public service nor public administration such as the likes of Fridrick Taylor, Urwick, Gulick, Herbert Simon, Max Weber etc. However, the latter are those without sound knowledge of public administration, but are interested in the practical nature of the discipline efficiency and effectiveness of public organization. These groups of people however, are saddled with unveiling practical ways of improving work performance. In Nigeria, for example, the origin of civil service in Nigeria is traced to the administration of Lord Lugard who was governor-general and Head of administration at the time of amalgamation of the Northern and Southern in 1914. However, the real nucleus of public service in Nigeria evolved under Sir Hugh Clifford who succeeded Lord Lugard administration in 1921, with the establishment of a central secretariat in Lagos for administrative practice. (Anifowose and Enemuo, 1999).

In 1906, the New York Bureau of Municipal Research was founded to promote efficient and economical municipal government and the scientific study of municipal administration. This Bureau became a model, after the publication of handbooks and materials on public administration. In 1911, a training school was established for administrative practice (Simon, 1964)

4.0 Conclusion
From the foregoing discussion, the approaches to the Historical Development of the study of Public Administration are numerous. Wildrow Wilson articles of 1887, on the ability to scientifically undertake and make enquiry into the field of public administration marks the beginning and approaches to Public administration as scientific if separated from the hazard of politics. Some of the pioneering scholars of public administration are Robert Dahl, Fix Riggs, Fred Riggs Sulton, David Easton Davies etc. Here also, the historical approach to the study of Public Administration was expatiated for the purposes of understanding the historical development of public administration.

5.0 Summary
Historical development of public administration started in 1887. Frederick Winslow Taylor and Henri Fayol made remarkable contributions to the history and development of the study of public administration. While the judicial approach to eth study of public administration is adjudge the oldest of all the approaches to the study of public administration because it holds the instrument of law for the day–to-day running of any organization, the historical approach is applauded for the insight from the past it brings into the present to enable for accurate projection of the future.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
1. Trace the historical development of the study of Public Administration
2. Explain the historic approach to the study of public administration

7.0 References/Further Reading.
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UNIT 2

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

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3.2 Public Administration and Economics
3.4 Public Administration and Sociology
3.5 Public Administration and Psychology
3.6 Public Administration and Law
3.7 Public Administration and Ethics
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5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In a wide sense, all knowledge is one integrated whole, and the different branches into which it has been divided is a convenient device for purpose of study. We have known the fact that Public Administration is a social science. It deals with one aspect of human behaviour, i.e. administrative, just as other social sciences deal with certain other aspect of human activity. But it cannot study administrative behaviour without drawing upon the contributions made by other social sciences in the study of human behaviour. As such, it is closely related to other social sciences as much as other social sciences are related to it. Not only this, public administration scores over other social sciences because of its relationship with pure sciences and technology as well.

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

• describe public administration is closely related to other social sciences
• explain the influence of science and technology on public administration
• discuss why an understanding of politics is the key to understanding of public administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Public Administration and Political Science

Public administration is very closely related to the study of political science. The very fact that public administration has been and still continues to be a part of brand of the study of political science bears ample testimony to their close mutual relationship. It is still a fact that "an understanding of politics is the key to an understanding of public administration; politics and administration are the two sides of a single coin". Most of the authoritative writers on the subject have found it difficult, even impossible to make a

distinction between politics and administration. Pfiffner has rightly said that in some cases, politics and administration 'are so inter-mingled and confused that a clear distinction is difficult", and he further adds that "the line between the two should be shaded from black to various shades of grey, finally merging almost imperceptibly into the white". However, some earlier writers on the subject made a sharp distinction between politics and administration. In their view, politics was concerned with laying down of policies, whereas administration was concerned with executing these policies economically and efficiently. Woodrow Wilson was the first person who pointed out in 1887 that both these disciplines were quite separate from each other with their own specialized field. In his article on "study of administration", he said "the field of administration is the field of business". Administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics. Administrative questions are not political questions. Although politics sets the tasks far administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices. The field of administration is a field of business, it is removed from the hurry and strife of politics, it at the most, stands apart even from the debatable ground of constitutional study".

Among the modern writers Pfiffner's enumeration of the points of distinction between political and administrative officers is very interesting. These are:

Political Officer	Administrative Officer
Amateur	Professional
Non- Technical	Technical
Partisan	Non- Partisan
Temporary	Permanent
More Public contacts	less public contacts
More legislative contacts	less legislative contacts
More policy formulating	less policy formulating
More decisions	More Advisory
More coordination	More performing
Influence by popular opinion	Influence by technical data collected from study and research

Political processes of election, legislation and of defining the broad objectives of administration as well as the manipulation of political power provide the motivating force for the wheels of government. On the other hand, administration and administrators are mainly concerned with the administrative processes of gathering and digesting data, offering, suggestions based on facts for the purposes of policy formulation and helping to implement same.

Therefore, for harmonious co-existence between politics and public administration which are two species of the same genus, there must be a lot of give-and-take between the politicians and the administration. Politics when it loses sight of what is administratively feasible degenerates into mere building castles in the air, and administration, shorn of its political context, becomes an empty nothingness.

The relationship between public administration and political science can be summed up remarking that the two disciplines are in fact species of the same genus. There is a great give and take between the two. But in spite of the intimacy between them we should not over-look the limits of their fields. Finally, let's borrow the words of John M.Gaus that "there is no denying the fact that there is difference between the duties of political officers and those of administrative officers, but the differences is more of a degree rather than of a kind. If we look to the top administrators, we will find that most of what they do is political in nature". Although, apparently, policy-making is the function of the ministers and legislatures, yet most of the ground work is done by the administrators behind the scenes. It has been rightly said that if a minister is unable to reply or cuts a sorry figure in the parliament/house of representative, it is not he/she but his/her secretary who is to blame. Generally, the top officers are so well familiar with policy-making that it takes them little time to adjust in the political arena if ever they decide to quit administration. As far as practice goes, most of the Nigerian diplomats posted abroad have, at one time or another, been top-officials in the governmental administration of our country.

The bottom-line here is that politics and administration are two closely related social science disciplines, so much so that it is difficult to draw a line of demarcation to say where politics starts and ends and where administration starts and ends. This position notwithstanding, can be said without fear of contraction that politics and politicians are mainly concerned with the "a theory of public administration which means in our time a theory of politics too".

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
2 What was Woodrow Wilson's view in 1887 on the field of Public Administration and Political Science?

3.2 Public Administration and Economics
Public administration has much in common with economics. It was not always so. During the 18th century, and the early years of the 19th century, the scope of public administration was confined only to the maintenance of law and order and the administration of justice. But the industrial revolution and the numerous problems that followed on account of it, compelled the state to interfere in the economic and industrial fields. Laws were framed to regulate hours of work, condition of service, etc of the workers. Later on, the government decided to enter the economic and business fields in the interest of social justice. At present, except for a few capitalist countries, the tendency is more and more growing towards state ownership and nationalization. However, it is being increasingly realized that those entering government services must have a background of economics. The problems of financial administration e.g. budgeting, execution of the budget, accounts and audit, banking and insurance, currency and coinage, trade and commerce, revenue producing departments like the post and telegraphs, railways and newly set up government undertakings such as life insurance

corporation, Nigerian Air ways, etc, all these have a special bearing on public administration. The topics of public finance, banking and currency and financial administration are of common interest to both the administrator and the economist. Economic administration has recently been included in the syllabi of public administration. Administration has borrowed a great deal of techniques as well as terminology from business administration. The field of private business is considerably contributing in improving a lot of the masses. The field of business is the field of economics. This explains the interaction of economics with public administration at the national level.

However, modern governments have to deal with many other problems of economic nature, for example, strikes, lock-outs, activities of trade unions, housing, etc. The federal government of Nigeria is committed to establishing a socialistic pattern of society in Nigeria. All these problems can be solved only when administrators have a sound knowledge of economics. A comparative study of economic systems of different counties can be very much helpful to the administrators in their work. It is worthwhile to conclude by reminding ourselves that, we, in Nigeria, have taken to planning as means to establish socialistic pattern of society. It implies that whatever we plan must be implemented most efficiently. It is therefore, the task of administrators to plan and implement. If our administrators and administration fail, our planning fails. Most of the failure of our planning in the past has been on account of the administration not coming up to the burden of planning.

3.3 Public Administration and Sociology
Sociology is the study of human behaviour in a group. It studies various types of groups and how they influence human instincts and activity. All human beings who live in society have to interact with one another. Sociology is the mother of all social sciences and it deals with society in its fundamental forms and their off-shoots. It studies different kinds of groups existing in a society. Public administration deals with the administrative aspects of the society, and thus, both are closely related. Administration is a co-operative endeavour in which large number of people get together to achieve certain objectives. Besides being organised in a huge hierarchical structure, they also enter into social intercourse and can thus be called as constituting a *"social group"*. The larger the organisation, the greater the growth of smaller social groups. These groups and sub-groups develop their own loyalties, their own sympathies and antipathies, their own ethnics and outlooks which change the very formal arrangements of the organisation, thus deeply influencing the work of administration. Sociology provides to administration very useful information about these groups, how they function and how they influence social life. Some of the recent studies of sociology in the field of status, class, power, occupation, family, caste, etc are of special interest to public administration.
Max Weber's essay on Bureaucracy in his book, *The study of public administration*, is a valuable contribution in this regard. He looks upon bureaucracy as a social structure meant to carry community action into a rationally ordered social action. His study has

proved immense value in studying power- relationships in an organisation. Among the writings of contemporary sociologists which have significant relevance for public administration studies are, Robert k. Merton's *Social Theory and Social Structure,* Peter Blaius, *Bureaucracy in Modern Society,* Philip Selznicks, *T.V.A., and the Grassroots*, Brian Crosier, *The Bureaucratic phenomenon,* and Monroe Berger's *Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt.* Modern administrators have to face a lot of trade-union activities. The concepts of power, authority, etc, relate to the field of sociology as well as to public administration. Public administration has to be studied in the environmental context. Herbert Simon developed what may be called *Ecology of Administration.* Sociology has given public administration a new perspective which may broaden the horizons of public administration a great deal.

3.4 Public Administration and Psychology

During the 18th and 19th centuries, public administration refused to be influenced by psychology because it regarded itself as a perfect science, capable of discovering immutable laws of organisation and management. Later researches, however, proved that psychology has much contribution to make to the study of public administration. Human behaviour is not as perfectly rational as public administration thought it to be. It is on account of this fact that the importance of social and industrial Psychology is being increasingly realized in the various fields including that of government services. An administrator has got to be a psychologist as well otherwise he will prove a flop. He has to deal with people and not with bricks and mortar and as such, he must have an understanding of psychological behavior of the persons he deals with. The importance of informal contacts between the heads and the subordinates on the one hand and between the administrator and the public on the other, has been realized only recently. It is little informal contacts which produce a great influence upon the efficiency of administration than the formal routine and official commands. Therefore, psychology has developed the staff training techniques as well as public relation and publicity systems of the government. It has also made a major contribution to the development of administrative techniques.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4 How could you prove that psychology has much contribution to make, to the study of Public Administration?

3.5 Public Administration and Law

The term Law, is a body of principles the purpose of which is the adjustment and ordering of human relations in the society. The relationship between Law and public administration is quite clear from the fact that implementation of social policies is impossible without the help of laws. The administrator with the aid of laws tries to bring about desired changes in the society. For example, if Nigeria is to adopt a socialistic pattern of society, suitable laws have to be made. On the other hand, if three laws propose to bring changes in the basic structure of society, the help of administrators will be essential. It is they who are to enforce them. Unless the laws are enforced properly, they

remain mere paper-work. Public administration, unlike private administration, has to function within the framework of law of the country. Nothing which is illegal or contrary to law can be accepted in government administration. It implies that a public servant should so conduct himself as to be always on the right side of law, both negatively and positively. He should not break the law but apply it, both in letter and spirit. In case he exceeds his powers, he is subject to the overall jurisdiction of law courts. The administrators not only implement the law but also assist in the making of law. The ministers do not have the expert knowledge and consequently have to depend upon the advice of their secretaries for giving a legal shape in their policies. The bills are drafted by civil servants who for this purpose require technical knowledge of jurisprudence and law-making. Delegated legislation is law making by the administration. Public Administration has been described by Woodrow Wilson as a "Systematic and detailed execution of law" The relation between administration and law is so close that the former has been mainly studied as a part of the latter in the continental countries. Administrative law, delegated legislation, administrative tribunals, etc, are topic common to the study of law and public administration. Public Administration, too, has influenced the basic concepts of law. Now the law must give greater protection to the weaker section of our society. This is in the interest of social and economic justice which administration aims at promoting. Administration is also closely related to constitutional law. As Wilson writes: "The study of administration-philosophy, as viewed, is closely connected with the study of the proper distribution of constitutional authority" to be efficient, it must discover the simplest arrangements by which responsibility can unmistakably be fixed upon officials, the best way of dividing authority without hampering it, and responsibility without obscuring it. And this question of distribution of authority, when taken into the sphere of higher, the original functions of the government is obviously the best principles upon which to base such distribution it will have done constitutional study an invaluable service"

3.7 Public Administration Ethics
Public Administration is also related to Ethics in as much as the latter sets standards of integrity and honesty for human actions. Ethics has to do with the moral values of the community and administration must take cognizance of these values while enforcing public policy. Public and professional morality now constitutes an integral part of the study of Public Administration. In the words of Dr. Appleby, "moral performance begins in individual self-discipline on the part of officials involving all that is meant by the word character." But, this is not enough. It also requires systematic process which supports individual group judgments enriched by contributions from person's variously equipped and concerned differentiation in responsibilities to each other and to a whole public responsibility. The official individually and organizationally must be concerned to be beyond simple honesty to a devoted guardianship of the continuing reality of democracy.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5
Explain the influence of science and technology on Public Administration.

4.0 CONCLUSION
From the foregoing discussions, it is evident that public administration is closely related to other social sciences. While no one can contest the fact that public administration is a distinct and independent academic discipline, it must be studied in the relevant context of politics, economics history, sociology, psychology, law, science and technology. Student of public administration need not worry about the skepticism expressed earlier in some quarters that graduates of the course may turn out to be jack of all trade and master of none after they are given tit-bits drawn from a number of social science disciplines.

5.0 SUMMARY
While there is no doubt that public administration is a distinct academic discipline which may be looked upon as an autonomous social science discipline, it is however closely related to a number of social science disciplines. Commenting on the close relationships between the social sciences, McIver and Page observed that "it is always the focus of interest that distinguishes one social science from another.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Politics is about laying down policies whereas administration is concerned to execute these policies economically and efficiently: Expatiate
2. Explain Administrative Law.
3. How does public administration relate to political science.

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UNIT 3

APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 Approaches to the Study of Public Administration
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to different approaches to the study of public administration. Since 1887(Woodrow Wilson wrote his article on the Study of Public Administration in 1887) when public administration as a separate academic discipline was born, various approaches have developed. Basu (1994) distinguish between traditional and the new approaches to the study of administration. Our focus will be on understanding these approaches.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss the various approaches to the study of public administration
• differentiate between the various approaches to the study of public administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Approaches to the study of Public Administration

We shall consider the various approaches as provided by Basu (1994:65-77).

Historical Approach

The historical approach is essentially based on the belief that knowledge of history is absolutely essential for an in-depth study of any subject.

For a proper understanding of the subject the study of public administration of the past in particular periods is necessary to link up with the present administrative systems. If we take Nigeria for example, in order to understand the evolution, the growth and development of its administration, a historical perspective is essential. This may involve knowing the nature of public administration in the pre-colonial period (Traditional Society), during colonial period and how these developed into the modern public administration.

Legal Approach

The legal approach concentrates on the formal legal structure and organisation of public bodies. The approach stresses the formal organisation of offices, official duties, and

limitations of power and discretionary authority of administrators. Its main sources are constitutions, codes of law, office manuals of rules and regulations and judicial decisions. The legal approach is valuable for the understanding of the legal framework within which administrative system has to operate, but by neglecting the informal forces operating in the organisation (the sociological and psychological variables), it remains to a great extent an incomplete approach to the study of public administration (Basu 1994:66).

Institutional Approach

The Institutional approach tries to establish the linkages between the study of public administration and the institutions of government. Its focus is on the study of the structure and functioning of separate institutions and organisations of the state – such as the executive, the legislature, the departments, government corporations, boards and commissions. The Institutional approach considers the study of organisations, their principles, goals and structures as primary to the study of administration. But just like the legal approach, the institutional approach has its own limitations. The approach completely neglects the environmental and informal factors on administration.

Behavioural Approach

Modern behaviourism developed in the late 1940s and 1950s and concerned itself with the scientific study of human behavior in diverse social environments. It started as a protest against traditional, historical, normative and largely descriptive approaches in the social sciences.

The behavioural approach in administrative studies has the following important features:

• Its literature is descriptive, rather than prescriptive, with the studies on motivation being an exception.
• Increased attention is paid to the individual based on more realistic research-concerning motivation, decision-making processes and the nature of authority. Stress is laid on informal relationships and communication patterns among members of an organisation.
• It emphasises operational definition of terms and empirical study based on rigorous methods, such as field study, laboratory experiments or use of other statistical methods.
• It is chiefly, though not exclusively, concerned with quantification, and formal theory construction.
• It is interdisciplinary in character, and makes considerable use of propositions drawn from other social sciences (Basu 194:68).

In a nutshell, the behaviourists sought to adopt an integrated and interdisciplinary approach. According to the behaviourists all human actions are motivated by social, economic, political, or psychological environment from which they come.

The behavioural approach has been criticised for being of limited utility in the analysis of all types of administrative phenomena. The argument is that the complexity and variability of human nature, motivations and behavior preclude the attainment of precision that is so characteristic of the physical sciences. Again, value oriented or

normative problems and issues of organisation cannot really be explained or interpreted in terms of the behavioural approach.

Structural-Functional Approach

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

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 behavior which has become a standard feature of a social system'.

All social structures perform some 'functions'. In structural-functional terms, a 'function' involves 'a pattern of interdependence' between two or more structures, a relationship between variables. It refers to any consequences of a structure in so far as they affect other structures or the total system of which they are a part.

We should note that 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.

Ecological Approach

Various scholars and administrative theorists have often referred to the need to relate public administration to the environment in which it functions.

The ecological perspective in the study of public administration was introduced primarily through the writing of John Gaus, who first elaborated this approach in his reflections of public administration 1945. Gaus advocated the concept of relating government functions to the environment which included such factors as people, situation, culture, technology amongst others. These factors must be included in the 'ecological' study of public administration. The ecological approach assumes that administrative behavior is peculiarly moulded by the values of the administrative culture in which it functions, the administrative culture in being an outgrowth of the interaction of values and traits of the administrative system with the social system as a whole.

An administrative system may not act as an independent variable in all circumstances. It acts and reacts under the influence of various subsystems surrounding it.

There is a degree of interdependence between all social organizations and their ecological settings (environment). Organizations, structures, procedures and goals are largely created and changed as a result of the interaction between an organization and its environment. Thus, if an organisation is to survive it must adapt itself to the changing needs and conditions of its external environment.

The merit of ecological approach lies in the value and relevance of studying people in relation to their environment, taking into consideration their peculiar characteristics and problems.

The Scientific Approach
Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856–1917), is regarded as the father of scientific approach to the study of public administration. This approach is also referred to as the machine approach. Taylor spent most of his working life at the Steel Company. He started as a labourer and rose through the rank of a foreman to a chief Engineer and later a consultant. His vision was to develop public administration into a science from the principles of engineering and management sciences, to the study of scientific methods in management in the field of business and industry. However, Taylor believed that there is only "one best method" which should be the "scientific management principle" he sees man as an extension of the machine. His style of approach is seen today in various expressions as "Administration oils the machinery", "the logs of the business", "a wheel within a wheel", and as the "ex-obey". Taylor further states that, the desire to increase production of goods and services is by motivating the workers to work harder. He emphasized that the motivation of workers can be achieved by adopting the "bottom-up" approach which is the decentralized system of management. (Anifowose and Enemuo, 1999)

Self-Assessment Exercise
i. Explain what institutional approach is, to the study of public administration.
ii. Differentiate between legal approach and ecological approach.

4.0 CONCLUSION
There are various approaches to the study of public administration. Each approach emphasises something unique about public administration.
While some focus on the institutions, goals, structures of organization others stress the environmental and informal factors in organization while some focus on the integrated and holistic method of studying an organisation.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, we have examined various approaches to the study of organisation. As we observed in this unit, each approach focuses on one unique factor with which we can study organisation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Discuss the features of the behavioural approach to the study of public administration.
2. Examine the institutional and legal approaches to the study of public administration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
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UNIT 4
NEW DIMENSIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 New Public Administration
3.2 Development of Administration
3.3 Comparative Public Administration
3.4 International Administration
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There has always been a controversy about the nature, contexts and ends of public administration. Prof. Woodrow Wilson in 1889 drew a sharp distinction between politics and administration and opined that the later must steer clear of the former. It was said that politics was concerned with policy-making while administration was concerned with policy implementation. The politics-administrative dichotomy had writers such as Woodrow Wilson, Willoughby, White, Luther Gullick, Henry Fayol and Urwick to discover principles of Public Administration. These principles laid emphasis on economy and efficiency as the sole goal of administrative activity and regarded administration a mechanical organisation. Taylor's scientific management movement in the last quarter of the 19th century emphasized the fact that administration was nothing but management and it should be possible to discover the best principles of managing public affairs. The politics-administrative dichotomy need was criticized being both impracticable and undesirable. It was impracticable because the administrator also takes part in the policy formulation. The above controversy regarding the nature and contents of Public administration continued to persist till the late thirties of the present century when the terms of the new changes began to creep in. Now, the rigid and dogmatic separation between politics and administration was given up and it was recognized that administrative process is permeated with politics.

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discover what has influenced the study of Public Administration
• identify why the term why New Public was used to describe this trend in the field of public administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 New Public Administration
In 1960s and early 1970s were periods of turbulence, instability and confusion in the west, particular in the United States. Like other social sciences such as psychology,

sociology and political science, public administration was shaken by this revolutionary period. The earlier dogmas of public administration, economy and efficiency were found inadequate and incomplete objectives of administrative activity. It began to be said that efficiency is not the whole of public administration. Man is the centre-stage of all administrative activity who cannot be subjected to the mechanical test of efficiency. The impact of administration on human character is more important than its efficiency and economy. The term new public administration was used to described this new trend in the field of public administration. Two books, titled, towards a new public administration. The Minnowbrook perspective, edited by Frank Marini and published in 1971 and public administration in a time of turbulence, edited by Dright Waldo and published simultaneously, gave currency to the concept of New Public Administration. These two books edited the ideas of an academic get together of younger-age-group on public administration called the "Minnowbrook Conference" held in 1968. This conference expressed dissatisfaction with the state of the discipline of public administration and sought to give it a new image by discarding traditional concepts and making it alive to the problems presented by the turbulent times. Evaluation: The critics of the doctrine of New Public Administration hold that the New Public Administration possessed only a kind of difference by definition. For example, Campbell argued that it differs from the old public administration only in its response to a different set of societal problems from those of other periods.

Robert T. Golembiewski holds that new public administration must be counted as a partial success at best and perhaps only a cruel reminder of the gap in the field between aspiration and performance. The critics also feared that the advocates of new public administration are trying to arrogate to themselves what falls within the domain of political institutions, further; the concept of social equity is vague. What it means, what it requires in public programmes and opinions vary greatly. The New public administration has not yet developed a theory of its own. It was the product of the social ferment of the 1960s and early 1970s in the America. The Minnowbrook Conference was a youth conference which felt that old public administration had failed to solve the current social problems. According to James C. Charles Worth, "Public administration theory has not caught up with emerging problems. The huge military industrial complex, riots, labour unions and strikes, public school conflicts, still slum the impingement of sciences and developing countries". However, the New Public Administration continues to endure as witnessed. The books published in 1980 by H. George Frederickson, Negro and Negro, are of the view that the new public administration has certainly broken fresh ground and seriously jolted the traditional concepts. It has imparted new substance and a large perspective to the discipline of administration. Since the new public administration emerged, question of values and ethics have remained the major items in public administration.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
1 Explain the concept of "New Public Administration.

3.2 Development Administration

The sphere of development administration has acquired an immense importance in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin American since the 1960s. Often these countries are labeled as developing countries because they are relatively young and are engaged in the developmental tasks of nation-building and socio economic progress. Although, these countries have different customs, traditions, cultures, political systems, languages, and vary greatly in social values, religious beliefs and degrees of economic development, they have the following fundamental features in common.

i. First, they are faced with similar developmental problems, be it social, economic, political or administrative.

ii. Second, they are embarking on the road of modernisation with much stress on raising their national income per capital and improving the well being of their people.

iii. Third, they have realised the importance of development administration as a means of carrying out socio-economic, political change with a view to achieving the goals of nation building and socio economic progress.

Meaning of Development Administration

Development administration is of recent origin. Edward Weidner defined it 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 the other". Merle Fairsoul regarded development administration as "a carrier of innovating values, it embraces the way of the new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialisation. Development administration involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth and mobilising and allocating resources to expand national income". To Montgomery, development administration connotes "carrying planned change in the economy or capital infrastructure and to a lesser extent in the social services especially, health and education". In the above definitions, development administration is used in two inter-related senses.

i. It refers to the administration of development programmes, to the methods used by large scale organisation, notably government to implement policies and plans designed to meet these developmental objectives,

ii. By implication, rather than directly, it involves the strengthening of administrative capabilities.

This two aspects of development administration i.e. administration of development and development of administration are intertwined in most definitions of the term. Riggs Observes "Administration cannot normally be improved very much without changes in the environmental constraints (the infrastructure) that hampers its effectiveness and the environment itself cannot be changed unless the administration of development programmes is strengthened". Donald stones analysed the concept of development administration in terms of plans, policies, programmes and projects towards the achievement of developmental goals. Development administration, therefore is concerned primarily with the tasks and process of formulating and implementing the four Ps (Plans,

Policies, programmes and projects), in respect to whatever mixture of goals and objectives may be politically determined.

Development Bureaucracy: As said earlier, development administration is concerned not only with the administration of development but also with the development of administration. The development of administration means development of administrative machinery and processes suited to the task of national development. Only through an effective administrative system can the goals of socio-economic development and nation-building be achieved. The government being the principal planner, financier, promoter and director of national development depends on bureaucracy for its functioning. Therefore, the role of bureaucracy as an agent of socio-economic change becomes important in the development process. Despite the fact that bureaucracy in developing countries is ill-prepared and ill-motivated for the tasks lying before it, the fact remains that in most of these countries it is the major instrument of social change. Eisenstadt observes that bureaucracies in developing countries "helped to maintain the framework of a unified polity as well as the capacity to absorb varied demands and to relate them effectively. Not only were they important instruments for unification and centralisation, but they enabled the rulers to implement continuous policy. In addition, they also served as important instruments for mobilisation of resources, taxes, manpower and political support. There is no basic conflict between bureaucracy and development. No doubt, at present it suffers from certain structural weaknesses and behavioural attitudes, nevertheless, given right orientation in the new content, bureaucracy can be structurally and behaviorally geared to the task of development.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
2 Explain the importance of Development Administration as a means of carrying out socio-economic- political change.

3.3 Comparative Public Administration
The World War II is often regarded as the dividing line between the old and new literature on the subject of public administration. As stated earlier, a new discipline under the name of New Public Administration came into being. Similarly, development administration also was the product of World War II. In the field of comparative public administration, emphasis shifted from general managerial approach to contextual and situational approach. Public administration, it was argued, is essentially culture-bound and develops its own peculiar characteristics in different cultural areas or environments. A look at the structure and function of the public administration in different countries revealled that though there is manifest similarity in formal organisations, yet their informal and behavioural patterns possess considerably diversities, each being shaped by its societal culture. Meaning The comparative administration group of the American society for public administration which was set up in 1963 under the chairmanship of Fred Riggs to study the administrative problems of developing countries, viewed in the systematic context of their social, cultural, political and economic environments, defined comparative public administration as "The theory of public administration applied to

diverse cultures and national setting and the body of factual data, by which it can be examined and tested". Fred Riggs, holds that the term "comparative" should be used only for empirical, homothetic studies. He outlines three trends in the comparative study of public administration.

i. From normative towards more approach,
ii. Shifts from ideographic (Individualistic) toward Nomothetic (universal),
iii. Shift from a predominantly non-ecological to an ecological basis for the study of public administration.

Focus: The comparative public administration emphasises that: i. Organisations must be viewed as embedded in specific cultures and political settings ii. The principles of public administration are seriously inadequate. iii. Both the study and practice of administration are pervasively value-loaded and iv. Any proper discipline must have complementary, pure and applied aspects.

Therefore, the study of comparative public administration is not merely an intellectual exercise of some young scholars. Its conclusions have important bearing on the whole range of public administration. The major contribution is that it has helped eliminate the narrowness of provincialism and regionalism. The principles of public administration are analysed in cross-cultural and cross national context and to be universal, they should be tested in cross-cultural settings.

3.4 International Administration

Generally speaking, public administration is the administration of the affairs of a state. In recent years, the sovereign states of the world have been drawn closer together through the improvement and speeding up of communications and transport. The modern states are not only physically closer but even otherwise they depend on each other for their mutual national development. It is now generally conceded that the nation states have become inadequate to the realities of the situation in the world today. The further progress of mankind now depends on developing fruitful international cooperation. It is in the field of public administration more than in any other that international cooperation has been most closely realised. There is no international government yet in the sense of supra-national authority whose writ should be binding on all states. The nation states, even the smaller ones, are very zealous to guard their sovereignty and are not willingly to submit themselves to the mandatory control of any supranational organisation. Yet multination international cooperation has been extended into many fields of human activity. Up to the Second World War as many as 222 international unions had been founded which according to Gladden, was the pioneering stage in the development of modern international administration. The League of Nations was the first world organisation to enforce international law and improve the living conditions of the weaker sections like labour. Although the league failed to prevent the Second World War, it had, however, come to operate as a store house facts and a clearing house of ideas about truly international affairs. However, with the replacement of League of Nations in 1945, a new phase in the development of international government began. The United Nations originally consisting of 26 members represents almost universal membership. The U.N.

staff functions in a neutral way without any influence from any government or from any other authority external to the United Nations organisation. They represent only the organisation. In addition to U.N. and its specialised agencies, there have come into being a large number of regional organisations serving the common interests or member states. Some of these important organisations are North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), European Economic Community (EU), African Union (AU), Common Wealth of Nations, World Bank, South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC), etc.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
3 What is international Administration?

It may be mentioned that the United Nations and other regional Organisations have their own limitations as organs of international administration since they are not supra-regional or supra-national governments establishment. They have depended upon the goodwill and co-operation of the member-states in successfully discharging of their functions. The international bureaucracy can function effectively only in an atmosphere of freely granted consent and confidence.

4.0 CONCLUSION
The key-note of New Public Administration is an intense sensitivity to and concern for the social problems of the day. Its parameters are relevance, post-positivism, morals, ethics, and values, innovation, concern for clients, social equity etc. In this background, new forms of organisation are carved out to suit the fast-changing environment.

5.0 SUMMARY
The New Public Administration advocates a client centered approach. It wants administrators to provide the people a major choice in how and when and what is to be provided. In the words of Negro and Negro, "Client-focused administration is recommended along with de-bureaulisation, democratic decision-making, and decentralisation of administrative process in the interest of more effective and human delivery of public services." On the other hand, there appears to be no neat distinction between development administration and non-development administration. The difference seems to be of emphasis on the ecological setting in which an administration functions.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Name some of the universal principles of public administration.
2. Explain some of the organs of international administration.
3. What is the meaning of development Administration?

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UNIT 5
THE CONCEPT OF THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER (CEO)

Table of Content:

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Having understood the nature, scope and principles of public administration and its historical development, the Concept of the Chief Executive Officer comes handy. Therefore, in this unit, the focus is on the Chief Executive Officer, and as such, we shall be looking at meaning and concepts of the Chief Executive Officer. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) is the term used for the Head of an organization both in the public and the private sectors. This unit will discuss the responsibilities, roles and functions of the Chief Executive Officer. In the public service, the (CEO) comes under the nomenclature: Minister, Director General, Chairman, Commissioner or Managing Director.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
a. Define the Chief Executive Officer.
b. Identify the roles and responsibilities of the Chief Executive Officers.
c. List and explain the functions of the Chief Executive Officer

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 DEFINITION OF THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER (CEO)

The Chief Executive Officer is an administrator, Head and Coordinator of all the activities in an organization. The Chief Executive Officer can be found in the following sectors e.g. educational, financial institutions, Company, Industries, firm or corporate establishments etc. He is a diplomat of his Organization. The Chief Executive Officer is at the top of the management team, and exercises full powers, authority and control over its subordinates (Lawal, 1993)The Chief Executive Officer directly or indirectly gets involved in all the major functions or activities of the Organization. He/she is basically responsible for formulating the goals of the organization with the aids of the management

in place. Before any meaningful decisions about what, where and how resources would be put into use, the (CEO) must ensure that they are carefully and logically made after considering various alternatives. For his subordinates to accomplish the set goals of the Chief Executive Officers they must have common interest, to actualize the objectives of the Organization, they must be professionals or technocrats in their various fields and be able to work with minimum supervision.

The Chief Executive Officer must bear in mind staff welfare, customers' interest and the achievement of the goals and objectives of the Organization. In the public service, the Ministers at the Federal and Commissioners at the state levels could be referred to as the Chief Executive Officers because they are fully in-charge or they occupy the apex position in their various ministries or department; they exercise full powers, authority and control over their subordinates, even though they occupy elective positions. Stewart (1967), believes that a CEO is one who has the capability to achieve results through other people by instructing, controlling, influencing, guiding and persuading or a mixed of these in a particular situation. From this definition, we can deduce that the Chief Executive Officer is an achiever. In private organizations, the CEO is best described as an achiever only when the organization is profitable irrespective of the qualities of services offered. In the public service, the effectiveness and efficient of the resources by the administrators or civil servants determines if the Chief Executive Officer is an achiever or not.

Abrogated Decree 43 of 1988 made the Minister both the Chief Executive and Accounting Officer. This is one of the major changes in the civil service structure of 1988. The position of Chief Executive Officer is the highest rank in any Organization whether private or public service. He is in charge of job description of his personnel; he determines salary schedules and grade of staff, and takes full responsibilities of the resources (Human, Material and Finance) of the Organization. In the public service, a Minister who occupies the position of the Chief Executive take charge and responsible for the resources of a ministry. He is the person entrusted with the responsibility of the operation and functions of the ministry. In the private Organisation, the Chief Executives are the Managing Director (MD). But in the Public Service, a Minister is the Chief Executive officer (MD). He is accountable to the presidency. He acts as the Operational Head of Administration and reports to the President directly, he take decisions on the implementation of government policies. The Chief Executive Officer receives all types of information. He initiates changes where necessary and establish organizational goals, he formulates strategies in implementing these goals and spent more time in policy formulation

3.2 TYPES OF CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER
Stewart (1967), Outlined the following types of Chief Executive Officers.
a. The Emissaries: These are the Chief Executive Officers who spend most of their time outside their designated office. They work mostly as administrators and delegate the main responsibilities of their jobs to competent subordinates (with close supervision).

b. The Committee Man: These are the Chief Executive Offices who spend most of their time in attending meetings outside the Organization. They work mostly, on contracts and exist mainly in large Organizations. They also delegate most of their responsibilities to competent hands just like the Emissaries.

c. The Writers: These are the Chief Executive Officers who spend most of their time in writing, reading, and dictating. Their working days are shorter compared to the Emissaries and Committee Man. These Executives are staff specialists who rise to become the Chief Executives.

d. The Trouble Shooters: These are set of Chief Executive Officers who spend most of their time coping with crisis outside the Organization. Their working days are also fragmented.

e. The Discussers: These are the Chief Executive Officers who spend most of their time discussing and negotiating with other groups for the progress of the Organization, they are involved in diverse ranges of activities.

3.3 RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER (CEO)

The following are the major responsibilities of the Chief Executives Officers:

1. He/she ensures that their subordinates are well motivated, activated and trained with the set standard of the Organizational goals.

2. He/she is responsible for disseminating information to all sectors (Internally & Externally) of the Organisation.

3. He/she is responsible for monitoring the environment for a variety of special information required for adequate understanding and exploitation of the environment.

4. He/she is responsible for taking corrective actions and decisions when the need arises.

5. He/she is responsible for allocating organizational resources of all kind e.g. Money, Human and Materials Resources.

6. He/she searches and explores the Organizational environment for opportunities, such as improvement of projects that would bring about change in the society.

Self-Assessment Exercise:
1. Explain the responsibilities of the Chief Executive Officer.
2. Enumerate the types of the Chief Executive Officer

3.4 ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER
3.4.1 The Role of the Chief Executive Officer

The basic role of the Chief Executive Officer of any organization is that, he is the Chief Accounting and Budgeting Officer. He needs to use the available resources judiciously. As the Chief Accounting Officer, his major role is to approve Budget plans, and to achieve the goals of the Organization. He makes estimate of costs and benefits of a project before the Organization can embark on such project. He will be responsible for both success and failure of the Organization. However, Mintzberg (1973) believes that, the roles of the Chief Executive Officer can be divided into three categories (1) Interpersonal Role (2) Informative Role and (3) Decisional Role.

1. Inter-personal Role: The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for ensuring that the policies of the Organization are clearly interpreted and implemented. He acts as a figurehead, a symbol of legal authority, handling ceremonial duties etc. As a leader, he liaises and motivates his subordinates; he serves as link in the communication chain. The Chief Executive Officer is the person entrusted with responsibilities of the operation of the Organization and usually the Managing Director (MD) in a private enterprise.

2. Informative Role: The Chief Executive Officer serves as a nerve centre receiving all types of information. He acts as a spokesman, monitors and disseminates information. He initiates changes within the Organization.

3. Decisional Role: The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for resources (Money, Human and Material) which are critical inputs into the management of the Organization. He acts as a disturbance handler, arbitrating labour conflicts. He establishes Organizational goals, formulates strategies for existing goals and spends more time in policy formulation. He/she acts as the operational head of the management team and reports to the Board of Directors, the results of his implemented policies, programmes and projects.

3.4.2 **Functions of the Chief Executive Officer (C.E.O)**
The Chief Executive Officer performs daily essential and routine functions such as:

1. He/she makes complex decisions and delegates functions to qualified and competent subordinates of the Organization.

2. He/she determines goals and set priorities through others to achieve results.

3. He/she has a conceptual and analytical view, he/she is a diplomat and communicate with his employer, employee and government if need be to move the Organization forward.

4.0 CONCLUSION
From the foregoing discussion on, the Chief Executive Officers (CEO) are the heads and coordinators of the activities of any organisation whether public or private. He/she is responsible for formulating policies, and supervised implementations of duties assigned. In the Public Service Ministers, Commissioners, Directors General and Councils Chairmen are Chief Executives. The responsibilities of the Chief Executives are to Decision-making; Monitoring, Disseminating and allocation of organizational resources. The roles of the Chief Executive Officer are divided into, Interpersonal, Informative and Decision-making.

5.0 SUMMARY
The Chief Executive Officer is an administrator who is fully in charge and control of the activities of an Organizational. They formulate and supervise the implementation of the policies within their Ministries. Their duties are categorized as planning, communicating; controlling, staffing, directing etc. They act as the Operational Heads of Management and reports directly or indirectly to the Board of Directors in the case of Private organizations and to the Presidency in Public Service. The Chief Executives are after the attainment of Organizational results.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Explain the Concept of the Chief Executive Officer.
2. Identify the Roles and Functions of the Chief Executive Officer.

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MODULE 3
Unit 1- Bureaucracy- meaning, process, element and criticism
Unit 2- Public Administration and Bureaucracy
Unit 3- Public Policy
Unit 4- Public Policy analysis
Unit 5- Bureaucracy and Public Policy Making

UNIT 1
BUREAUCRACY- MEANING, PROCESS, ELEMENT AND CRITICISM
TABLE OF CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION
In the last section, we discussed about what training and manpower development are all about. This unit will take you a step further into the concept of bureaucracy. In this unit, the focus is on the process of bureaucracy, the elements of bureaucracy, the functions of bureaucracy, and the criticism of bureaucracy.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
a. Define Bureaucracy
b. List and explain the elements of Bureaucracy c. Enumerate the functions of Bureaucracy.
d. Explain the criticism of Bureaucracy an Organization.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF BUREAUCRACY
Generally people think of bureaucracy as unexplained delay and general frustration, red-tapeism, pettiness and silly rules that seem to create barriers that prevent the working of

common sense (Krimmer, 1977). Bureaucracy could be referred to as the general formal structural elements of a type of human Organization, particularly the collective personnel and structures of a government organization (Weber, 1918). The concept of bureaucracy is generally used in modern organizations to refer to orderly and structural arrangement of things in organizations. It is pertinent to note that, pure bureaucracy does not exist in the real sense of it (Mai, 1897). .However, it is believed that bureaucracy has contributed immensely to the precise and reliable ways to efficiently achieve organizational aims and objectives. The term bureaucracy is identifiable with the 19th century German sociologist. Max Weber, who was referred to as the founder and widely acclaimed to have propounded the concept of bureaucracy believes that, there was the need to differentiate universalism and particularism model and traditions, and between inscriptive and merit. He further states that, there is a difference between public administration and bureaucracy. Weber believes that public administration is all about formalized and institutionalized process where defined rules and procedures are operated in an organizational setting. Weber, (1918) states that for bureaucracy to hold there is the need for unity of command and hierarchical structure. Weber (1918) was more concerned about the concept of power. He was concerned specifically with power domination in terms of how the proportion of the population dominates or controls the rest of the society.

3.1.1 Forms of Power/Authority in Bureaucracy
Weber, (1918) built his model of Bureaucracy on authority which he divided into three types as follows:

(A). Traditional Power or Authority: In this form of power, authority is derived through traditional rules, customs and beliefs. In this situation authority is inherited through established customs and traditions e.g. the Institution of Obaship, Emir and Igwe in Nigeria.

(B). Charismatic Power or Authority: In this form of power, authority is based on the innate personal qualities and ability of the leader to command obedience of his followership. Leaders with this authority exist because of the extra-ordinary qualities they possess and authority exercised. For example, the late, Obafemi Awolowo, Moshood Kasimawo Abiola, Nmandi Azikiwe, Nwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Senegal Senghor and a host of others were charismatic leaders who had a strong control over their followers.

C. Legal – Rational Power or Authority: Legal – Rational Authority is based on the obedience which is owed to the legally established impersonal set of rules rather than a personal ruler. Weber, (1918) Legal-rational authority and power rest in the office rather than, the occupier of the office. Legal rational authorities reside in rulers who are rationally appointed by people and can be changed through a formal process or through an established procedure.

3.1.2 Power and Authority
Weber (1918), defines power as higher forces which compel a person to do what he would not have done; while authority is referred to a legitimate power which wills makes a holder responsible for certain functions. He further states that, authority is inseparable from responsibility for the achievement of goals for which any organization was established.

3.2 The Process of Bureaucratization
One feature of all government organizations is to implement policies through an administrative body of officials. However, the appointment of these officials and the way they carry out their tasks differentiate one type of political structure from another. Under the Feudalism System of government, Weber observed the following Process of Bureaucratization (Weber, 1918).

(A).   The ruler appoints his loyalist to court; he granted them powers and commissioned them to perform these tasks.
(B).   Household officials and favourites were often recruited into sensitive positions on patrimonial basis from among the slaves.
(C).   Qualifications for officers depend on the rulers personal judgement of quality among his household officials.
(D).   Through abrupt changes in appointment and the series of other arbitrary acts, the rulers make every efforts to prevent the identification of anyone household official or favourite with the office he occupies at any one given time.
(E).   The ruler himself and his subordinates conducted the affairs of government when appropriate.

The Feudal system of government was considered an extension of the rulers' private domain and the officials had no rights and securities. However, this was the situation before Weber's Bureaucracy came into practice. During the Industrial Revolution and with a determined movement towards rationalization and secularization of the mind; reactions against the personal subjugation, nepotism, cruelty, and subjective judgment paved the way for the development of a new and more accommodative bureaucratic machine model. Bureaucracy emerged out of the Organization's need for order and precision and workers demand for impartial treatment. Weber conceived an ideal type bureaucracy exhibiting some major characteristics anchored firmly on a body of impersonal rules and regulations. His ideal type bureaucracy is a triumph of complex impersonal rules and an effective separation of the organization from their incumbents. He further stated that organizational rules, orders, and structures are necessary and sufficient conditions for organizational efficiency.

Ideal bureaucracy in advanced countries of the world is practiced using the merit type of bureaucracy as against the anti-merit system and quota system. Weber believed that in the developed world, selection of people is based on competence, qualification and examination.

Negro and Negro (1973), subscribed to this conception, they believes that in an ideal form of bureaucracy the best candidates should be able to secure jobs.

The Characteristics of an Ideal Bureaucracy include:
(1) Knowledge of entry requisites (2) Selection based on competition and examinations (3) Adoption of Principle of equal job (4) Maintenance of rank on the job (5) Political independence of the officials (6)Incentives given for prompt performance (7) Security of tenure e.g. pensions and gratuity (Victor, 1998). However, for the purpose of clarity, Weber's Characteristics of Bureaucracy are: (a) Uniformity (b) Continuity (c) Hierarchical Structure and (d) Competence

Self-Assessment Exercise:
1. Explain the Elements of Bureaucracy
2. What are the Criticism of Bureaucracy

3.2 ELEMENTS OF BUREAUCRACY
The elements of bureaucracy are discussed as follows:
A. Hierarchy of Authority
This is the hallmark of all bureaucratic organization. The pyramidal structure assures that the superior offices direct the activities of their subordinate. The ultimate authority resides at the apex. Consequently, the pyramid narrows as it moves upward. There are more people and less power at the base and in that order until it reaches the apex. Hierarchy gives the organization its structure and allows the organization authority to follow the chain of command. The reason for this supervision is to oversee the activities of the lower officers with a view to training the junior employees and ensuring their activities tilt towards realizing organizational aims and objectives.
B. The Framework of Law-Rules/Regulations
Bureaucracy operates within the framework of law which guides both the superior and the subordinates. (The rule of law requires the administration of actions affecting individual's rights and should reflect: (i) precedents and (ii) legal sanctions not personal discretion of the official. The pre-imminent position of the rule of law means:
(a) The official leans heavily toward precedents (b) He leans towards inflexibility in his actions; (c) He is dependent on legal and financial assistance (d) There is strict conformity to established rules, procedures and legal regulations. The framework of law is to regulate the employee's behavioural patterns in the organization. This will help to coordinate activities in the organisation and ensure uniformly in the actions of the employee.
C. Technical Specialization
Weber (1918), in conjunction with Taylor (1917) believes in the preference for scientific methods of appointing employee into sensitive positions. Weber emphasized the need to base promotion on security and ability of employee to meet the targets agreed with him/her. He emphasized the need for training and development of workers through internal movement from one position to the other. Every organization seeks to ensure

stability and continuity. Organisational processes are reviewed, over and over again, to make the workers more specialized and competent. The division of activities called routinization of work and it is implicit in the idea of specialization. Another aspect of specialization is that bureaucratic Organizations tend to divide its entire aims and goals, to sub-units until it reaches the level of targets for individual.

D. Search for Rationality

This is the ability to think and make decisions on reasons. It was the search for rationality that hastened the development of bureaucracy. Rationality represents the systematic organization of task and individuals to maximize efficiency. Bureaucracy facilitates the channeling of individuals' behaviour into productive ends by means of rule, regulations and sanctions. It provides its members with valuable and factual premise for decision making. The goals of rationality are promoted by the principles of unity of command, ultimate authority as well as rules and organizations.

E. Written Records/Documentation

Organizations place high importance on written records and documentation. Weber, (1918) emphasized the need for documentation of records. This allows for community decisions, instructions and adequate planning.

F. Value System

Bureaucrats work within a value system that determines the conduct of their actions. Values consist of opinion of colleagues and cultural values of the society. Bureaucracy and its characteristics vary from society to society. This phenomenon modified Weber's contention that bureaucracy is universal. Bureaucrats identify value system with the rules of their organization; bureaucrats rarely attach loyalty to persons, but attribute loyalty to the impersonal functions they perform. This notwithstanding, they are also, under the influence of other loyalties e.g. social clubs, church, ethnic group, political parties, relations, colleagues e.g. (giving job or admission to a brother who is qualified, first before any other person).

3.4 FUNCTIONS OF BUREAUCRACY

The functions of bureaucracy are as follows: (Obiajulu and Obi, 2004)

1. Implementing Policies: The traditional role of Bureaucratic organization is to execute the programmes and policies of government. This function is more essential and complex in this age of rapid technological and social change. Modern society is becoming complex and professionalized, special knowledge and technology are brought to bear on major policies. Legislators are not well equipped in this area; naturally they fall back on the bureaucratic information, advice and deliverance.

2. Framing Legislation: When bureaucrats discover a discrepancy in Legislation, they use their discretion to fill in the gap and if the action is sustained, they help in framing Legislation. Under military regimes Bureaucrats play important role in legislation primarily because the Armed Forces were not well equipped with legislative knowledge and information.

3. Influencing Legislature: Bureaucrats influence Legislative activities at various stages. In the advanced countries e.g. United State of America for example, Bureaucrats are

summoned to congressional committees to give evidence in some measure of Legislation. Bureaucrats possess the wealth of information which is necessary for effective debate of a proposed bill. In a parliamentary system of government, the Legislative influence on the Bureaucrats could be more pronounced and direct. Here a Minister could propose a Bill, which his Permanent Secretary had initiated. Since Ministers come and go bureaucrats remain. As career officers they are in better position to advise the government on any proposed Legislation.

4. Ensuring Survival and Growth: Michel (1923), describes the tendency for survival and growth as the "Iron Law of Oligarchy". He states that Organizations tend to perpetuate themselves even when the primary goals have disappeared. Bureaucracy ensures survival of the polity as an entity by performing certain crucial functions. For example, during the turbulent period (1966-1970) in Nigerian, the survival of Nigeria as a nation owed much to the dedication and actions of the Federal Bureaucrats.

5. Environmental Functions: Environmental functions which are performed by bureaucrats include:

a. **Balancing of public and private interests**: Ideally: bureaucrats weigh every issue first and foremost against public interest. Unfortunately, there is no way of determining what public interest is, especially in situations where they are vague and ambiguous.

b. **Balancing professional and ethical considerations**: This happens when a Bureaucrat is in a dilemma arising from conflict between loyalty to his supervisor and loyalty of his official function. This happens in areas where professional consideration differs from political considerations.

c. **Carrying Routine Work Government**: This is perhaps the most important and least appreciated function of the Bureaucrat. Junior officers in government organizations carry out the routine work of government, ranging from refuse disposal and protections of public utilities.

6. **Economic Planning and Management Functions:** In contemporary societies of the world, whether developed on developing Bureaucracy is enmeshed in the planning and management of the State economy.

3.5 CRITICISMS OF BUREAUCRACY

From Weber's (1918), submission on Bureaucracy and types of authorities, it could be observed that bureaucracy cannot be practiced in its totality in developing nations like Nigeria. Boulding, (1920), expresses concern over growing roles of Organizations in modern societies. He claimed that, ethical values as love, freedom, justice, laws etc., tend to run at cross purposes as such loose out to such Organizational features as power, impersonality etc. Argyris (1957), made a case for inevitable conflict between the needs of the individual and those of the Organization. This conflict is self-perpetuating since the employee and manager have divergent interests. Another criticism of Bureaucracy is that, it attempts an up-hill task of removing all undesirable – extra-organizational influence upon the behaviour of members. For example, the ideal official is supposed to conduct his office in a spirit of formalistic impersonality. Bureaucracy does not provide for rapid and unplanned changes. It thrives best under stable routine conditions. Weber (1918),

failed to recognize that men are endowed with limited intelligence. Men are not Omniscience and therefore all Organizations must be designed for the normal man and not for a superman. Knowledge of organizational effectiveness of operations may not always come from the superior. There are situations where the subordinate could be very relevant to the success of the Organization than the boss. Weber, (1918), did not recognize that environmental factors affect the operation of the Bureaucrats, for example, Nigeria Bureaucracy is affected by ethnicity, Federal character and Quota systems and such other cultural and environmental factors which a dynamic Bureaucracy must put into consideration for harmonious co-existence its members.

Marx (1848), a prudent scholar of Bureaucracy, sees bureaucracy as an apparatus of the state, that emerged under capitalism as an "auid pro quo". He states that bureaucracy emerged because of the division of people into social classes. To Marx, bureaucracy is not directly related to production but it constitutes the unproductive sector of economy. Lenin (1984), argues that, bureaucracy is historically contingent on the capitalist mode of production, and this mode of capitalism production pre-supposes a situation in which there is division of people into social class – namely Bourgeoisie and Proletariat (privileged and less privileged people).However, reutilization and rigid adherence to rules have made bureaucracy sluggish, drudgery and full of red tapeism. The ideal form of bureaucracy brings about precision, speed, effectiveness, efficiency and increased productivity and performance.

4.0 **CONCLUSION**
Bureaucracy refers to orderly and structural arrangement of things in an organisation. The essentials of bureaucracy are to implement policies of large entities such as government and non-governmental organizations. The purpose and mission of bureaucracy are to determine efficiency of organisations. Bureaucracy ensures division of labour, hierarchy, rules and regulations and impersonal relationship in organisational set-up. Power is a higher force that compels ones to do what he would not want to do. Power can be in the form of traditional, charismatic and legal-rational.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, you have learnt that Bureaucracy centred on human organizations particularly the collective personnel and structure of government organizations. Bureaucratization processes ensures the execution of laws and commands and the need for security of tenure of officer. Pure bureaucracy does not exist in the real sense. The Functions of Bureaucracy are Policy implementation, framing legislation, influencing Legislature, ensuring survival and growth of organization, economic planning, and environmental functions etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT QUESTION:
1a. Define Bureaucracy
b. List the process of Bureaucratization
2. Explain the functions of Bureaucracy

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UNIT 2
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND BUREAUCRACY

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The term bureaucracy is often heard and used in connection with the conduct of public affairs and the activities of public officials in particular. The word bureaucracy as it appears, have acquired an opprobrious meaning, an odious connotation because the sum of impressions that spring to mind at the mention of the word bureaucracy is associated with inefficiency, lack of initiative; unintelligent, rigidity in the approach to human problems and undue fussiness on the part of officials and downright stubbornness in the way public officials go about their business. The administration of a country is run not only by ministers who are rather amateur in the art of administration but by the civil servants. The point to note is that the minister depends upon the expert advice of the bureaucracy (i.e civil servants). Moreover, the period of office of a minister is not fixed since the minister is like a bird of passage while the civil servant goes on forever. The politician is as changeable as the climate. The government is not the minister's alone but also that of the civil servant or bureaucracy. The real burden of government, which is about running the administration falls on the shoulders of the bureaucracy i.e the army of civil servants, which is responsible for the administration of a country.

Meaning of bureaucracy

This word **Bureaucracy** has been derived from the root **'Bureau'** which stands for the post or office under a government. In popular parlance bureaucrats are called civil servants. Essentially, a civil servant is "a professional body of officials, permanent, paid and skilled'. Let us also consider other definitions by the following:

Jennings writes that "it is a function of a civil servant to administer and of the ministers and the cabinet to control administration. In other words, the minister does nothing except to take decisions on matters of importance".

Laski conceives bureaucracy as "a system of government, the control of which is so completed in the hands of officials that their power jeopardises the liberties of the ordinary citizens".

Professor Ogg's own conception of bureaucracy is that without them the government cannot move hence his succinct position that "such manifold talks fall rather to the body of officials and employees known as the permanent civil servants. It is this great body of men and women that translates law into action from one of the country to the other and brings the national government into its daily contact with the rank and file in the country – less in the public eye than the minister, this army of functionaries is not a bit less necessary to the realization of purposes for which government exists" Following from the above conceptions, it is glaring therefore, that the role of bureaucracy has assumed greater importance in the modern age, because with the development of science and technology, several new problems and spheres have come up where experience, skill and expertise are strongly and necessarily needed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain:
• The historical development of bureaucracy
• The need for bridging the gap between people and bureaucracy
• The difference in bureaucracy and political development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Historical Development of Bureaucracy
The system of bureaucracy is as old as ancient civilization. It existed in the ancient period in Rome, China, India and several other countries. Their duties were fixed in the statecraft of those periods. Some account of the development is available throughout the pages of history. However, their duties were limited to spheres of taxation, collection of taxes, maintaining records, gathering data for the information of the king, conveying the orders of the kings to the public, maintaining accounts, controlling the treasury and managing the affairs of the palace. But with the systematic development of state craft during the middle ages and the development of the activities of the modern states, the function of civil servants were highly enlarged. Today on the one hand the state keeps the army for defence, on the other hand, it is required to employ civil servants in very large number (as if they are army of civil servants). The term bureaucracy was first coined by Vincent De Gournay in 1712, a French economist, in the eighteenth century. He had observed that: "We have an illness in France which bids fair to play havoc with us, this illness is called bureaumania". The dictionary of the French Academy accepted the word in its 1798 supplement and defined it as "Power influence of the heads and staffs of government bureaus". It was in 1895 that bureaucracy was discussed as a subject of importance in its own right by Mosca in his *Elementi di science Politica*. Mosca regarded bureaucracy as being of fundamental importance to the government of great empires and classified political systems into feudal and bureaucratic. His book was translated into English as the Ruling Class.

Laski's Views: Laski attributes the rise of bureaucracy to several factors.

First, it rose as a byproduct of aristocracy. In his history, disinclination on the part of the aristocracy for active government has in some cases led to the transfer into the hands of permanent officials.

Secondly, the origin of bureaucracy may be traced to the desire to be set off against the aristocracy for power.

Third, the advent of democracy helped it in two ways:

(a) In the nineteenth century the advent of democratic government over threw in the Western world the chance of maintaining a system whereby officials could constitute a permanent and hereditary caste.

(b) The new conditions which accompanied democracy made it essential to have a body of experts in charge of a particular service.

Fourth, the scale of the modern state and the vastness of the service it seeks to render make expert administration inevitable.

Max Weber's View: It was Max Weber in 1864 who first founded the sociological study of bureaucracy which has become most familiar with social scientists. What Weber was concerned most was to discover the canons of social behaviour of democracy. In effect, the focus was not to depict and suggest goodness or badness but to suggest a standard model. To this end, his concept does not represent average attributes of all the existing bureaucracies or other social structure. It is rather a pure type in itself derived from the most characteristic bureaucratic aspects of all the loans organisations. Max Weber has defined bureaucracy in terms of its structural characteristics. The above mentioned attributes portray a kind of organisation which is impersonal, where authority is exercised by administrators only by virtue of the office they hold, and what is more, in accordance with the clearly defined rules and regulations. In other words, bureaucracy emerges as a unique impersonal, neutral passive, and instrumental with behavioural characteristics that bother on objectivity, precision and consistency.

3.2 Need for Bridging the Gap between People and Bureaucracy The bureaucracy should, no doubt, be efficient in its job. But efficiency alone is not the criteria of a good government. It is the need of the hour that bureaucracy should be helpful in promoting social justice and economic progress. There is need, therefore, that the gap between the Bureaucracy and the people be bridged hence administrators should not be recruited from the upper strata of the society alone. There is need for good rapport between the civil servants and the people hence the need for mutual understanding of each other's feelings or points of view.

Committed Bureaucracy A controversy has been raging in Nigeria on the question as to what is the role of civil servants in building the new society of ours. Whether the civil servants in Nigeria have honestly endeavoured to successfully implement the policies and programmes of government, and how much faith does the bureaucracy repose in the ideal of social justice? Have the civil servants committed a lot of the policies of the

government? If commitment means "politicisation of the services: it would be well to remember that it may demoralise administration. It would be good that the civil servants remain aloof from the political parties. The civil servants should serve the people in a selfless and impartial manner.

But there is another aspect of commitment, ie, having the bureaucracy to fulfill the ideas enshrined in the constitution and accomplish the aspirations of the people. It is essential however, that the bureaucracy should have faith in social and economic justice. It should implement the policies of the government honestly and with a sense of urgency. The commitment of the bureaucracy in this sense will be praise-worthy.

3.3 Bureaucracy and Political Development

The phenomenon of development involves a gradual separation of institutionally distinct spheres, the differentiation of separate structures for the wide variety of functions that must be performed in any society. The greater the differentiation in a society, the more politically developed it is assumed to be. In this sense, political development is varied. For instance, highly developed systems, such as the West, contain a large number of explicitly administrative structures; each specialised for specific purposes – agriculture, transport, defence, planning, communications, health etc while in traditional or simple societies such differentiation takes place to an extremely limited extent. For proper and democratic functioning, there should be balancing of political and administrative or bureaucratic structures while only vigorous political institutions can be kept under check in a modern bureaucracy. However, if the political institutions are weak, bureaucracy gains an upper hand. In order words, weak political institutions create a power vacuum, which is filled by bureaucracy.

Fred W. Riggs mentions two features of political development in the developing societies:

1. First is a complex pattern of heterogeneous overlapping. In this process of modernisation, these countries adopted from the western model distinct social and political structures and assigned them differentiated task. But in the process the older institutional base of a society lingered on, thus creating a dualistic situation.

2. Second is the concept of lag. All functional sectors of a developing society do not change at the same speed. Thus a lag is produced, one sector making faster progress, the other lagging behind.

Therefore, the requirements of the civil services are that, it shall be impartially selected, administratively competent and politically neutral and imbedded with the spirit of service to community or authority.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is important to note that while bureaucracy has inherent elements that make its processes often cumbersome or distasteful to its public chiefs, yet it is indispensable and indeed an instrument for the achievement of efficiency in all large organisations. It is concerned with the most efficient means of planning and control, and

the fact that these processes are often misused and abused by inefficient, corrupt, and stubborn officials, is not a case for the total condemnation of bureaucracy.

5.0 SUMMARY

Ordinarily, although bureaucracy is not a virtue in administration, yet it is an element of administration that has become an inseparable feature. Bureaucracy implies a certain degree of flexibility and impersonality so much so that it constitutes a problem to administration, but again to the extent that these problems are inseparable from administration, bureaucracy incidentally is a process and an element of administration. There is nothing to be afraid of in bureaucracy.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the characteristics of Bureaucracy?
2. Why is expert administration inevitable?
3. Discuss the contributions of the following scholars:
(a) Max Weber
(b) Laski and
(c) Vincent de Gournay.

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UNIT 3
PUBLIC POLICY

Table of Content

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you have learnt about what public personnel management is all about. This unit will take you a step further into the concept of public policy. In this unit, the focus will be on the meaning and features of public policy, the differences between public policy and decisions making, the components and types of public policy, the various approaches to Public Policy analysis, the roles and relationship between public administration and policy making process in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
1. Define Public Policy.
2. Differentiate between Public Policy and Decision Making.
3. List the types and components of Policy Making Process.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF PUBLIC POLICY

Noticeable scholars of public administration have made contributions on what public policy is all about. The definitions of Thomas Dye, Patrick Mbieli, Ikelegbe , James Anderson, Carl Friedrich, Theodore Lowi and a host of others centred on a common concept. Policy is set of decisions put in place by individuals and governments within a given society (Nwankwo, 1988). Dye (1955), defines Public Policy as whatever governments "choose to do or not to do". There is a rough accuracy to this definition. Dye's definition portrays policy as a single action instead of a course of actions with a well-defined purpose. Dye explains public policy in terms of what government proposes to do instead of what it actually does. Carl (1963), defines policy as a proposed course of

action of a person, group, or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilize and overcome in an effort to reach a goal or realize an objective or a purpose". His definition contains the idea of policy as a course of action directed towards the accomplishment of some purpose or goal.

James (1960), defines Policy as a purposive course of actions followed by an actor or set of actors dealing with the problem or matter of concern. This concept of policy focuses intention on what was actually done as against what is proposed or intended, and it differentiates a policy from a decision, which is a choice among competing alternatives. Public Policies are those policies developed by governmental bodies and officials. The special characteristics of Public Policies stem from the fact that they are formulated by "authorities" in a political system. Examples of such authorities are The Provisional Ruling Council, Armed Forces, Ruling Council, the Presidency, the Legislature, Councillor etc. Mbiele (2006), defines Public Policy as the general statement of the people's intentions, goals and objectives with the adoption of workable measures for the realization of targeted interests and satisfaction of needs. Eyestone (1971), defines Public Policy as the relationship of the governmental units to their environment". Dye (1955), also sees public policy as "what government choose to do or not to do. It is the integrated courses and programmes of actions and practices in certain problem areas". Public policy is simply governmental actions and programmes of action towards solving societal problems. Policy is flexible and dynamic in nature and it differs from rules which are specific and rigid. Policy is a conscious effort and it differs from custom which springs from the land of the society. Policy is of a wider nature having the goals, means and the end while decision is selection of one alternative out of several alternatives.

It is pertinent to emphasize that policy consists of courses or patterns of action by governmental officials rather than their separate decisions. For example, a policy includes not only the decision to enact a law on some issue but also subsequent decisions relating to its implementation and enforcement. Public policy may be either positive or negative in form. A policy is positive, if it involves some form of overt government action to solve a particular problem. It is negative, if it involves a decision by government officials not to take action or to do nothing on some matter for which governmental involvement is sought.

3.1.1 Features of Public Policy: The features of public policy are:

a. It is subject to constant changes that is, dynamic in nature.

b. It utilizes opportunities and states how to overcome obstacles in accomplishing a purpose.

c. It is a course of action of activity of a person, group or government.

d. It is an activity involving governmental and non-governmental actor and factors etc.

3.1.2 Significance of Public Policy

Public policy is significant for the following reasons:

a. It is an instrument for expression of the will of the people. b. It is a chief tool of the government.

c. It develops the people socially, economically, politically and administratively.

d. It represents verbal, written or implied basic guide to all administrative management actions.

3.2 TYPES OF PUBLIC POLICY

Public policy varies from one sector to another. There are different types of policies depending on different criteria of classification; there can be public policy in the areas of Housing, Education, Health, Transport, Agriculture, Industry etc. Policies can also be classified based on intent, operating process, issues and clientele. However, Lowi (1964), classified Policies into three; Distributive, Regulatory and Redistributive.

a. **Distributive Policies**

These are policies relating to tariff or taxes and public and, allocation of public amenities etc. Ikelegbe (1996), states that, distributive policies are those which involve incremental dispersal, unit to different segments of the population and to individuals and institutions, they are actually favours benefits or patronage policies, dispensed to a small number of people. The dispersal is continual and thus, those not favoured at one point may be accommodated through further dispersal at some other time. One distinguishing attribute of distributive policies is that it does not generate conflict among those seeking to benefit from the policy. The main reason for this is that distribution is continual and those who lose out initially are almost certain of gaining later (Ikelegbe, 1996)

In this type of policy, the decision maker is neither aware of all the alternatives nor of their consequences. This condition is more rampant in real life situation as most decision making are done under conditions of uncertainty. Here, the decisions are based on the few alternatives known to the decision maker and his limited knowledge of their consequences.

b. **Regulatory Policy**

Regulatory policies are meant to control the activities of different groups in the society. Regulatory policies are targeted at particular sectors and as such, they generate tensions and even conflicts between competing sectors. The government in the discharge of its duties of protecting the citizens has to issue guidelines, rules and regulations that guide the conducts of various groups and sectors of the society. Regulatory policies are made for victor and losers, a lot of conflicts are usually involved since people don't like losing, people who lose may not accept in good faith and they strive to change the policy to their favour. Examples of these policies are Labour laws, import policies, financial regulation and other government policies aimed at regulating business and the activities of groups in society.

c. **Redistributive Policies**

These are policies that tend to transfer resources from one sector or group to another. e.g. revenues from the Oil sector to Health or Transportation sectors. Redistributive Policies are government policies that favour a particular group to the detriment of others to

achieve equity or inequity. These types of policies naturally generate conflicts and tensions. The beneficiaries of these policies are quite easy to identify because the issue in question may involve class, ideological, tribal, religious or geographical lines. Examples of these policies are government's progressive tax policies, social welfare programmes and sectorial allocation preference policies.

3.3 STAGES OF THE POLICY MAKING PROCESS
There are three stages in the policy making process, they are (a) Policy Formulation (b) Policy Implementation and (c) Policy Evaluation.

A. **Policy Formulation**
The process of policy formulation varies from society to society. In most democratic societies today, the Judiciary and Legislature play a major role in the policy making process. Individuals and groups are getting more and more involved in decision making process. It is this realization that has given rise to the concept of the pluralist theory of policy formulation". Others have argued that instead of talking of pluralism, the dominant factor is the elite. In other to balance the view of both the pluralist theory and the elite theory Lindblom (1990), came out with what is called Partisan Mutual Adjustment, which facilitates agreement among partisans on values and decisions. However in policy formulation, public involvement is very important because it helps in the implementation stage. People easily obey or accept polices they take part in formulating than those forced on them.

The following are steps in Policy formulation process:
i. Identification of the problem: What is a policy problem, what makes it a policy problem, how does it get on the agenda of the government?
ii. Development of alternative courses of action: How are alternatives for dealing with the problem developed, who participates in policy formulation, what is the cost implication of the proposed policy?
iii. Analysis of alternative: Where the alternatives are critical analyse for the best option.
iv. Selection of one alternative/policy choice for adoption: How are alternatives analysed, adopted and enacted, what requirements must be met?

B. **Policy Implementation**
This is the critical stage in policy making process as it determines the overview of the quality of the decision made. This stage is very sensitive and subject to criticism. The quality of a policy is determined by its implementation, and not how good it looks on paper. The 6 – 3 – 3 – 4 policy on education looks so good on paper but how effective is it since inception? In Nigeria, it is well known fact that, the ability to implement a policy is a big problem. However, policy implementation centres on, who is involved, what is to be done to carry policy into effect, what resources are available for policy implementation, what impact does this have on policy content.
The following factors are considered when policies are to be implemented.

i. **Clarity and Specificity of Policy:** Before policies are adopted for implementation, the intention of such policies would have been known clear and specific on a particular sector, item or purpose. Any policy that is not clear, direct and specific in nature may be rejected by the masses. The interest and opinion of the people have to be considered before implementing such policy. The government should enlighten the people on public policies in order to enlist their support and cooperation.

ii. **Implementation Organization**: Before embarking on Programme implementation there is supposed to be an appraisal of the institutional capacity of the implementing organization to know whether the policy can be implemented or not. Most government policies are not properly implemented due to inadequate institutional capabilities which need to be created or to upgrade the existing ones.

iii. **Identification**/**Assessment** of **the Target Group:** Every policy formulation has a purpose and target group once this has been achieved, implementation of such policy takes centre stage. For instance, if a group has an organized leadership, the government may decide to penetrate the group through its leaders.

iv. **The Environment:** The environment where the policy is to be implemented must be taken into consideration. Some salient features within the environment have to be considered for the success and failure of the policies. In Nigeria, the enactment and implementation of Sharia law was restricted to few states of the country because the people's religion or way of life permits such policies. The peculiarities of each location must be of much concern to the policy implementation team.

C. **Policy Evaluation**

Evaluation of policies can be done by the policy makers, the implementing organ, members of the public and public policy analysts or experts. There are some good techniques used in policy evaluation, these include the Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA), the Cost Effectiveness Analysis (CEA), Management by Objectives (MBO), Programme planning and Budgeting System (PPBS), Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), and Zero Based Budgeting (ZBB).

Self-Assessment Exercise:
1. Explain the Component of Policy Making Process.
2. Explain the factors to be considered for Policies Implementation.

3.4 ROLES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS IN PUBLIC POLICY MAKING IN NIGERIA

The role of public administrators in policy making in Nigeria varies with the regimes in power.

The First Civilian Regime (1960 – 1966)
i. Permanent Secretaries were Heads of the various Ministries and assisted in the development of policies and plans and the determination of the means of their implementation.
ii. Top Civil Servants (in theory) are to advice the ministers on policy issues by preparing a list of possible policy options from which ministers preferred option.

iii. Ministers relied vary greatly on technical expertise of civil servants for development of policies, the reasons is because Party bureaucracies could not deal with development of policies.

iv. Permanent Secretaries could go for briefings with the Prime Minister when they felt that a wrong policy decision was about to be taken by the Minister or Cabinet.

The Military Regimes (1966 – 1979)

i. The military rely too heavily on public servants for advice on policies, simply because they are not trained in the art of government.

ii. Under military regimes, Permanent Secretaries were accountable to and advised Commissioners, the Federal Executive Council, the Supreme Military Council, and sometimes the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, for example the top civil servants advised against the ratification of the Aburi accord.

iii. The increased political role of the civil servants brought them into limelight as a political interest group. Thus, the Murtala Mohammed regime embarked on the historic "purge of 1975" in which about 11,000 civil servants were fired or retired from the service. He blamed public administrators, for the indecision of the Gowon Regime.

The Civilian Presidential Regime

i. Top civil servants were accountable to the politicians under the civilian regimes – the President and Vice-president, the Ministers, and Special advisers to the President and the Legislature.

ii. Public Servants had indirect influence on the initiation and implementation of policies because of their possession of technical expertise.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the foregoing discussion on public policy, we can deduce that Public policy is the bedrock of any government whether military or civilian. It is what differentiates one government from another. The programmes and projects of the governments are usually derived from the policies. This therefore makes the development of policy management skills necessary for both public servants and public office holders. A bad policy can make a government loose an election. It is therefore important that public policy formulation process should include a very robust consultation stage which will enable all the ramifications of the policy to be considered

5.0 SUMMARY

Public policy means the general statement of the people's intentions, goals, objectives and decisions put in place by individuals and government within a society. Public policy refers to government actions and programmes towards solving societal problems. Policy can either be analysed as positive where the impact is felt and accepted and negative where the people react negatively. Policies are supposed to be flexible and dynamic in nature and not rigid. Policies are significant in that they of help to develop the people socially, economically, politically and administratively. Policies can be classified into Distributive, Regulatory and Redistributive and these can further be classified as Broad, Specific and General Policies. The stages of policy formulation process are Formulation,

Implementation, and Evaluation. These processes vary from one sector or society to another. The approaches of public policy analysis are systems, group, elite, functional and institutionalism theories. The oldest of public policy is the institutionalism theory which activities and concerns revolve around governmental institutions. The roles of public administrators in policy making in Nigeria vary with the regimes in power.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Define Public Policy.
2. List and explain the types of policies

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UNIT 4
PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

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TABLE OF CONTENT

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Today, data, evaluation, and analysis are omnipresent in public and nonprofit organizations as managers and analysts work to craft cost-effective interventions, funders demand high quality evidence of efficacy, and the public requires transparency in outcomes. In response to the transparency incomes, public policy analysis becomes imminent. The opening paragraph confirms and conforms that Public policy analysis is indeed, a multi-disciplinary and systematic investigation aimed at gathering and analyzing information about the likely consequences of public policies both before and after they occur, which is why it involves collection and interpretation of information in order to predict the consequences of alternative course of action. To achieve that lofty objective, it applies social science research techniques to formulate, execute and evaluate public policy in order make effective decision.

Because Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for policy making and helps to facilitate sound decision making and contributes to better policy implementation and performance, this chapter talks the students to through the meaning of public policy analysis, the basic elements of good public policy analysis, the

importance of public policy analysis, the steps for successful public policy analysis and lastly the stages of public policy analysis; a full package that needed to be relished.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

This unit is expected to teach the students:

1. The meaning of public policy analysis
2. The basic elements of good public policy analysis,
3. The importance of public policy analysis,
4. The steps for successful public policy analysis and
5. The stages of public policy analysis
6. Approaches to public policy analysis

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

While Public policy refers to the rules, regulations, and guidelines formulated by governments for the purpose of solving problems that have an impact on the society and the general public, Public policy analysis involves evaluating issues of public importance with the objective of providing facts and statistics about the extent and impact of the various policies of the government.

Public Policy analysis, therefore, has been variously defined by scholars. Quade (1975) says it is "any type of analysis that generates and presents information in such a way as to improve the basis for policy-makers to exercise their judgment". On his part Chandler and Plano, (1988:96) posit that policy analysis involves "systematic and data-based alternative to intuitive judgments about the effects of policy or policy options". Ikelegbe (1994:5), defines it as the study of the causes, processes, formation, implementation and consequences of public policy. According to - Carl V. Patton, "The process through which we identify and evaluate alternative policies or programs that are intended to lessen or resolve social, economic, or physical problems.".

The basic objective of public policy analysis is to assess the degree to which the policies are meeting their goals. Public policy analysis deals with the application of social science theories and methods to analyze matters of public importance.

Public policy analysis is a large, sprawling intellectual enterprise involving numerous academic disciplines, private research organizations, and governmental agencies each sharing a common concern with the formulation, implementation, or consequences of public policy decisions. As currently practiced, policy analysis involves contributions from the entire gamut of scientific disciplines. Much present-day public policy analysis is undertaken by scholars from the various applied physical and biological sciences (for example, environmental impact studies, technology assessments, seismic risk analyses, and the like). The focus here, however, is on public policy analysis as it is conducted within the social and behavioral sciences, principally economics, political science, and sociology.

3.2   ELEMENTS OF GOOD POLICY ANALYSIS

There are five basic elements of good public policy analysis. They are:

(I)   Validity

Validity, in general, refers to being accurate. In the context of policy analysis, validity refers to the internal consistency of logically drawing a conclusion that follows from the goals, policies, and relations, the external consistency with empirical reality in describing the relations between the alternative policies and the goals; the policies being considered encompass the total set of feasible alternatives (feasibility in this context refers to being capable of being adopted and implemented by the relevant policy makers and policy appliers); and the listed goals include all the major goals and only the goals of the relevant policy makers in this context.

(ii)   Importance

The concept of importance can be defined in two ways. First, does the research deal with issues on which there are big societal benefits and/or big societal costs being

analysed? Second, does the research deal with a subject matter or a set of causal hypotheses that potentially have broad explanatory power? This is theoretical importance, as contrasted to policy importance.

(iii)   Usefulness

Usefulness as its lowest level involves doing policy research that is not referred to by the people who make policy in the subject-matter area. At the next level is research referred to by policy makers orally or in a citation, even if the research cited is not on the winning side. At a higher level is research that reinforces pre-conceived decisions. Policy researchers should be pleased if their research accelerates a worthwhile decision that otherwise might be delayed. At the highest level is the rare case of policy research that converts decision makers from being negative to being sensitive, or vice versa, on an issue.

(iv)   Originality

Originality refers to the extent to which policy research differs from previous research, although even highly original research builds and synthesizes prior research.

(v) Feasibility

Feasibility is an additional criterion for judging proposed policy research, as contrasted to completed policy research. Feasibility is concerned with how easily research can be implemented given the limited time, expertise, interest, funds, and other resources of he researcher (Nagel, 1984).

3.3   THE IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

Because Public policy analysis seeks to answer the question of what the probable effects of a policy will be before they actually occur, it means that Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for public policy making, the content, the knowledge about the outcomes and impact of public policy and ways and means of improving public policy performances.

This position has been corroborated by Ikelegbe (2006) when he asserts:

> Public policy analysis derives its importance and relevance in its contribution to the determination, study and assessment of public problems, public making, policy performance, impact evaluation, policy prescription and advocacy, and policy forecast, prediction and anticipation.

Therefore, the importance of public policy analysis are:

1. **Problems solving:** because public policy analysis provides a systematic study of public problems, the scientific approach to problem solving which characterizes public policy enhances the achievement of more rational, et efficient policies.

2. **Informed Opinion of Policy Preferences**. Public policy analysis constitutes an informed opinion on policy preferences and strategies. It involves policy advocacy which helps to influence future policies.

3. **Policy Performance**. Policy analysis contributes to better policy implementation and performance because of its importance in determining the consequences of Public Policy programs.

4. **Policy Outcome Prediction.** Public Policy Analysis scientifically studies the impact of public policy through some techniques. Through its evaluation strategies, it helps to determine whether policies are implemented according to guidelines and whether policies are achieving their intentions or purposes.

5. **Making Impactful Changes Possible:** Because forecasting, prediction and anticipation fall within the purview of policy analysis, these properties are employed in bringing about impactful changes by resolving problems and improving situation.

3.4   STEPS FOR A SUCCESSFUL POLICY ANALYSIS

Based on the ideas and approach followed by Carl V. Patton there exists a very simple pattern of ideas and points to be considered in doing an actual policy analysis. The six steps are as follows:

1. Verify, Define, and Detail the Problem. This is the most relevant and important of the steps because many times the objectives are not clear or even contradictory from each other. A successful policy analysis will have allocated and identified clearly the problem to be resolved in the following steps. This is the foundation for an efficient and effective outcome of the whole process. The analyst must question both the interested parties involved as well as their agendas of the outcome, and must locate the problem in such a way that eliminates any ambiguity for future references.

2. **Establish Evaluation Criteria**. In order to compare, measure and select among alternatives, relevant evaluation criteria must be established. Cost, net benefit, effectiveness, efficiency, equity, administrative ease, legality, and political acceptability must be considered. Economic benefits must be considered in evaluating the policy. How the policy will harm or benefit a particular group or groups will depend on the number of option viable Options more difficult than others must be considered but ultimately decided through analyzing the parties involved with policy. Political and other variables go hand in hand with the evaluation criteria to be followed. Most of the time the client, or person or group, interested in the policy analysis will dictate the direction or evaluation criteria to follow.

3. Identify Alternative Policies. In order to reach this third step the other two must have been successfully reached and completed. As it can be seen, the policy analysis involves an incrementalist approach; reaching one step in order to go on to the next. In this third step understanding what is sought is very important. In order to generate alternatives, it becomes important to have a clear understanding of the problem and how to go about it. Possible alternatives include the "do nothing approach" (status quo), and any other that can benefit the outcome. Combining alternatives generates better solutions not thought of before. Relying on past experiences from other groups or policy analysis helps to create a more thorough analysis and understanding. It is important to avoid settling prematurely on a certain number of options in this step; many options must be considered before

settling into a reduced number of alternatives. Brainstorming, research, experiments, writing scenarios, or concept mapping greatly help in finding new alternatives that will help reach an "optimal" solution.

4. Evaluate Alternative Policies. Packaging of alternatives into strategies is the next step in accomplishing a thorough policy analysis. It becomes necessary to evaluate how each possible alternative benefits the criteria previously established. Additional data needs to be collected in analyzing the different levels of influence: the economical, political and social dimensions of the problem. These dimensions are analyzed through quantitative and qualitative analysis, that is the benefits and costs per alternative. Political questions in attaining the goals are analyzed as to see whether they satisfy the interested parties of the policy analysis. In doing this more concise analysis the problem may not exist as originally identified; the actual problem statement from the first step may suffer a transformation, which is explained after evaluating the alternatives in greater detail. New aspects of the problem may be found to be transient and even different from the original problem statement. This modification process allows this method of policy analysis to allow for a "recycling" of information in all the steps. Several fast interactions through the policy analysis may well be more efficient and effective than a single detailed one. What this means is that the efficiency is greatly increased when several projects are analyzed and evaluated rather than just one in great detail, allowing for a wider scope of possible solutions. Patton further suggests avoiding the tool box approach: attacking options with a favorite analysis method; it is important to have a heterogeneous approach in analyzing the different possible alternatives. It becomes inefficient to view each alternative under a single perspective; it is clearly relevant the need to evaluate each alternative following diverse evaluating approach singled out according to the uniqueness of each of them.

5. **Display and Distinguish among Alternative Policies.** The results of the evaluation of possible alternatives list the degree to which criteria are met in each of them. Numerical

results don't speak for themselves but are of great help in reaching a satisfying solution in the decision. Comparison schemes used to summarize virtues are of great help in distinguishing among several options; scenarios with quantitative methods, qualitative analysis, and complex political considerations can be melded into general alternatives containing many more from the original ones. In making the comparison and distinction of each alternative it is necessary to play out the economic, political, legal, and administrative ramification of each option. Political analysis is a major factor of decision of distinction among the choices; display the positive effects and negative effects interested in implementing the policy. This political approach will ultimately analyze how the number of participants will improve or diminish the implementation. It will also criticize on how the internal cooperation of the interested units or parties will play an important role in the outcome of the policy analysis. Mixing two or more alternatives is a very common and practiced approach in attaining a very reasonably justified policy analysis.

6. Monitoring the Implemented Policy. Continuity must be Assured while determine whether they are having impact. "Even after a policy has been implemented, there may be some doubt whether the problem was resolved appropriately and even whether the selected policy is being implemented properly. This concern requires that policies and programs be maintained and monitored during implementation to assure that they do not change for unintentionally, to measure the impact that they are having, to determine whether they are having the impact intended, and to decide whether they should be continued, modified or terminated."

3.5   STAGES OF PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS
i.   Evaluation Research

The ultimate analytic question to be asked about any public policy is whether it produced (or will produce) its intended effects (or any effects, whether intended or not). The search for bottom-line effects- impact assessment—is one of two major activities

subsumed under the rubric of evaluation research. The other is so-called process evaluation, discussed below under "Implementation Analysis."

There are many formidable barriers to be overcome in deciding whether a policy or program has produced its intended (or any) effects. First, the notion of "intended effects" presupposes clearly defined and articulated program goals, but many policies are enacted without a clear statement of the goals to be achieved. Thus, many texts in evaluation research recommend an assessment of the "evaluability" of the program prior to initiating the evaluation itself. A second barrier is the often-pronounced difference between the programas-designed and the program-as-delivered. This is the issue of program implementation, discussed below.

A final problem in doing evaluation research is that most policies or programs are relatively small interventions intended to address rather large, complex social issues. The poverty rate, to illustrate, is a complex function of the rate of employment, trends in the world economy, prevailing wage rates, the provisions of the social welfare system, and a host of additional macrostructural factors. Any given antipoverty program, in contrast, will be a relatively small-scale intervention focused on one or a few components of the larger problem, often restricted to one or a few segments of the population. Often, the overall effects of the various large-scale, macrostructural factors will completely swamp the program effects—not because the program effects were not present or meritorious but because they are very small relative to exogenous effects.

ii. Outcome Analysis

Assuming that a programme has been adequately evaluated and an effect documented, one can then analyze that effect (or outcome) to determine whether it was worth the money and effort necessary to produce it. Outcome analysis thus examines the cost effectiveness or cost beneficiality of a given policy, program, or intervention.

Cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analysis are intrinsically complex, technically demanding subjects. One complication lies in assessing the opportunity costs. A dollar spent in one way is a dollar no longer available to use in some other way. Investing the

dollar in any particular intervention thus means that one has lost the "opportunity" to invest that dollar in something that may have been far more beneficial.

iii.   Implementation Analysis

Much is the slippage between the spoon and the mouth." A programme as it is delivered in the field is rarely identical to the programme as designed in the policy making process; sometimes, there is only a superficial resemblance. Since slippage between design and implementation might provide one explanation for the failure to achieve significant program effects, implementation analysis is an essential component of all capable policy evaluations.

There are many reasons why programs-as-delivered differ from programs-as-designed: technical impossibility, bureaucratic inertia, unanticipated conditions, exogenous influences. An elegantly designed policy experiment can fail at the point of randomization if programme personnel let their own sentiments about "worthy" and "unworthy" clients override the randomizing process. Many educational policy initiatives are subverted because teachers persist in their same old ways despite the program admonition to do things differently. Welfare reform will mean little if caseworkers continue to apply the same standards and procedures as in the past. More generally, the real world finds ways to impinge in unexpected and often unwanted ways on any policy initiative; failure to anticipate these impingements has caused many a policy experiment to fail.

iv. Utilization

A consistent frustration expressed throughout the literature is that policy analysis seems only rarely to have any impact on actual policy. Utilization is an ongoing problem in the field of evaluation research. A more detailed treatment of the utilization problem can be found in Chambers and colleagues (1992, chapter 1), Shadish and colleagues (1991), and Weiss (1988). For examples of ways in which evaluation can impact practice, see articles by Gueron, Lipsey, and Wholey in New Directions for Evaluation (1997).

Many reasons for non-utilization have been identified. One of the most important is timeliness. Good research takes time, whereas policy decisions are often made quickly,

well before the results of the analysis are in. The negative income tax experiments mentioned earlier were stimulated in substantial part by a Nixon administration proposal for a modified negative income tax to replace the then-current welfare system. The shortest of the experiments ran for three years; several ran for five years; none were completed by the time the Nixon proposal was killed mainly on political grounds.

A second factor in the non-utilization of policy studies is that research is seldom unequivocal. Even the best-designed and best-executed policy researches will be accompanied by numerous caveats, conditions, and qualifications that strictly limit the safe policy inferences one may draw from them. Policy makers, of course, prefer simple declarative conclusions; policy research rarely allows one to make such statements.

Finally, even under the most favorable conditions, the scientific results of policy analyses are but one among many inputs into the policy-making process. There are, in addition, normative, economic, political, ethical, pragmatic, and ideological inputs that must be accommodated. In the process of accommodation, the influence of scientific research is often obscured to the point where it can no longer be recognized. It should not be inferred from this that policy analysis is not utilized, only that the research results are but one voice in the cacophony of the policy-making process.

Weiss has written extensively on the utilization problem and ways in which evaluation can be used effectively to change policy. She argues that "in its ideal form, evaluation is conducted for a client who has decisions to make and who looks to the evaluation for answers on which to base his decisions" (1972:6). This is often not the case; however, as evaluation results seldom influence important decisions regarding programmes and policies. Weiss's general conclusion regarding utilization is that evaluation results affect public policy by serving as the impetus for public discourse and debate that form social policy, rather than through extensive program reform or termination. His argument sums up eh entire stages as a system in process.

3.6   APPROACHES TO PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS.

Theoretical approaches are relevant to public policy analysis in the sense that they direct our attention to important political phenomena, help clarify and simplify our thinking, and suggest possible explanations of the form and outcome of public policy. The approaches in this unit include systems theory, group theory, elite theory, functional process theory and institutionalism.

Political Systems Theory

Public Policy may be viewed as the response of a political system to demands arising from its environment. Easton (1965), states that the political system theory, is composed of those identifiable and interrelated institutions and activities in a society that make authoritative decisions (or allocations of values) that are binding on society. Inputs into the system from the environment consist of demands and supports for the policy. The environment consists of all those conditions and events external to the boundaries of the political system. Demands are the claims made by individuals and groups on the political system for action to satisfy their interests. Support is rendered when groups and individuals abide by election results, pay taxes, obey laws, and otherwise accept the decisions and actions of the authoritative political system made in response to demands. These authoritative allocations of values constitute public policy (David, 1965).

The usefulness of systems is limited by its highly general nature. It does not say much concerning how decisions are made and policies developed within the political system. Despite these limitations, systems theory is a useful concept in organizing inquiries into policy formation. It also gives alerts of some significant aspects of the political process, such as: How do environmental inputs affect the content of public policy and the nature of the political system? How does public policy affect demands for action? What factors or forces in the environment act to generate demands upon the political system? How is the political system able to convert demands into public policy and preserve itself over time.

Group Theory

Group theorists perceive the political system as a gigantic network of groups in a constant state of interaction with one another. This interaction takes the form of pressures and counter pressures, the outcome of which defines the state of the political system at any given time. A group may be defined as an aggregate of individuals who interact in varying degrees in pursuance of a common interest (David, 1965). Examples of groups are Trade unions, Cooperatives, Business, Ethnic and Religious Organizations; institutional interest groups such as Legislatures, Bureaucracies, Political parties, the Military, Churches etc. There are also interest groups in the form of spontaneous and eruptive aggregations such as riots, demonstrations and other manifestations of mob activity. A group becomes a political interest group when it makes claims through or upon any institutions of government. This group believes that public policy is the product of the group struggle. From this perspective, public policy is the equilibrium reached in the group's struggle at any given moment, and it represents a balance which the contending factions or groups constantly strive to weigh in their favour. Public Policy at any given time will reflect the interests of dominant groups. As groups gain and lose power and influence, public policy could be altered in favour of the interests of those gaining influence against the interests of those losing influence.

Elite Theory

The fundamental perspective of the elite approach is summarized by the assertion that all political systems are divided into two strata – those who rule and those who are ruled. The rulers are labelled the political elite, and these elite are the most significant aspects of any political system. The political elite are that group which possesses most political power and which makes most important political decisions in a society. The elite group is composed of minority individuals who are most active in political affairs. By focusing analysis upon this particular group within the political system, one can best understand the processes of political life. However, one can deduce that public policy can be regarded as the values and preferences of governing elite. The essential argument of elite

theory is that it is not the people or the "masses" who determine public policy through their demands and action; rather public policy is decided by ruling elite and carried into effect by public officials and their Organizations.

Basic Elements of the Elite Theory

(a) Society is divided into few, who have power and the many who do not. Only a small number of persons allocate values for society; the masses do not decide public policy.

(b) The few who govern are not typical of the masses that are governed. Elites are drawn disproportionately from the upper socio-economic strata of society.

(c)The movement of non-elite positions must be slow and continuous to maintain stability and avoid revolution. Only non-elites who have accepted the basic elite consensus can be admitted to governing circles.

(d) Elites share a consensus on the basic values of the social system and the preservation of the system. In the United States, for example, the elite consensus includes private enterprise, private property, limited government, and individual liberty.

(e) Public policy does not reflect demands of the masses but rather the prevailing values of the elites. Changes in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary.

(f) Active elites are subject to relatively little direct influence from apathetic masses. Elites influence masses more than masses influence elites.

Elite theory focuses attention on the role of leadership in policy formulation and on the fact that in any political system a few govern the many. However, the crucial issue of the participation of the masses in policy formulation depends upon the types of regimes in power.

Functional Process Theory

Another way to approach the study of policy formulation is to focus on the various functional activities that occur in the policy process. Lasswell (1954), presents a scheme involving seven categories of functional analysis that will serve as the basis for our discussion:

i. Intelligence: How is the information on policy matters that come to the attention of policy makers gathered and processed?

ii. Recommendation: How are recommendations (or alternatives) for dealing with a given issue made and promoted?

iii. Prescription: How are general rules adopted or enacted, and by whom?

iv. Invocation: Who determines whether given behaviour contravenes rules or laws and demands application of rules or laws thereto?

v. Application: How are laws and rules actually applied or enforced?

vi. Appraisal: How is the operation of policies, their successes and failures appraised?

vii. Termination: How are the original rules or laws terminated or continued in modified or changed from?

The scheme of analysis is not tied to particular institutions or political arrangements and lends itself readily to comparative analysis of policy formation. One can inquire how these different functions are performed, to what effect, and by whom in different political systems or government units. However, its emphasis on functional grounds may lead to neglect of the politics of policy formulation and the effect of environmental variables on the process. Obviously, policy formulation is more than an intellectual process.

Institutionalism Theory

The study of government institutions is one of the oldest concerns of political science. Political life generally revolves around governmental institutions such as Legislative, Executive, Courts, and political parties. Public Policy is initially authoritatively determined and implemented by government institutions. Even though earlier studies of institutions tended to place emphasis on formal and structural aspect, they could be usefully employed in policy analysis. An institution is a set of regularized patterns of human behaviour that persist over time. As such they can affect decision making and the content of public policy. Rules and structural arrangements in organizations are not usually neutral in essence; they tend to favour some interests in society over others, some policy results rather than others.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Public policy analysis is a multi-disciplinary and systematic investigation aimed at gathering and analyzing information about the likely consequences of public policies both before and after they occur. It involves collection and interpretation of information in order to predict the consequences of alternative course of action. It entails the application of social science research techniques to formulate, execute and evaluate public policy in order make effective decision. Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for policy making. It helps to facilitate sound decision making and contributes to better policy implementation and performance. To do know how it operate, w offered useful insight into the basic elements of Public Policy Analysis, its importance and the vital steps of successful Policy analysis as well as the stages of Public Policy analysis.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, via the importance of public policy analysis, we have been able to establish that the basic aim of Public policy analysis is improving the basis for public policy making, the content, the knowledge about the outcomes and impact of public policy and ways and means of improving public policy performances which, which seeks to answer the question of what the probable effects of a policy will be before they actually occur.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the benefits of public policy analysis?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING.

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UNIT 5

BUREAUCRACY AND PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

TABLE OF CONTENT

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The federal bureaucracy performs three primary tasks in government: implementation, administration, and regulation. When the National Assembly passes a law, it sets down guidelines to carry out the new policies. Actually putting these policies into practice is known as implementation. This is where the role of the bureaucracy comes in. This role heralds the use of administrative discretion. In public administration, administrative discretion refers to the flexible exercising of judgment and decision making allowed to public administrators (Rabin, 2003; Cann, 2015). Regulatory agencies have the power to exercise this type of discretion in their day-to-day activities, and there have been cases where regulatory agencies have abused this power. Administrative law can help these agencies get on the path of following regulations, serve the public, and in turn, a reflection of the public's values and beliefs.

The work of Harold Lesswell on the development of policy is widely used as a way to understand the different stages where an issue is developed into a policy before it is effectively implemented. With this 5 stage process while bureaucrats are also involved in the agenda setting stage, its first point of contribution is within the formulation of a policy. Habitually, this role was carried out in a system of diverse and complex organizations. Peters (2001) found that this structural composition is an attempt to limit policy choice by bureaucrats providing them with limited resources and obstructive procedure to work amongst. Harut and Radu (2009) argue that the role of bureaucrats within these organizations is that they operate as atomized and invisible hands compiling ideas of particular issues into a policy package on which a decision can be made. One of the key aspects of the role is the prerogative of bureaucrats to exercise discretion in formulating policy. Even with government led visions on policies, it is always prone to modification as the bureaucrats identify and supply the problem to parliament, and of course this leaves room for bureaucrats to mold issues as they deem fit. This unbridled control over the identification of issues and tools for policy making provided another aspect for dissent on the role of the bureaucrats in policy making, with many dissatisfied that unelected officials has this access to apply personal bias and choice in the allocation of national resources.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit the students are expected to

1. know what bureaucracy is all about
2. know the role of bureaucracy in public policy making process
3. know the administrative discretion/power and its control measures

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   MEANING OF BUREAUCRACY

Bureaucracy refers to both a body of non-elective government officials and an administrative policy-making group. Historically, a bureaucracy was a government administration managed by departments staffed with non-elected officials. Today,

bureaucracy is the administrative system governing any large institution (Tony & Dagmar 2015). The public administration in many countries is an example of a bureaucracy. Since being coined, the word bureaucracy has developed negative connotations (Raadschelders, 1998). Bureaucracies have been criticized as being inefficient, convoluted, or too inflexible to individuals (Ronald & Gary, 1994).

Others have noted the necessity of bureaucracies in modern life. The German sociologist Max Weber argued that bureaucracy constitutes the most efficient and rational way in which one can organize the human activity and that systematic processes and organized hierarchies are necessary to maintain order, maximize efficiency, and eliminate favoritism. On the other hand, Weber also saw unfettered bureaucracy as a threat to individual freedom, trapping individuals in an impersonal "iron cage" of rule-based, rational control (George, 2004; Richard & Agevall 2005)

A bureaucracy is a way of administratively organizing large numbers of people who need to work together. Organizations in the public and private sector, including universities and governments, rely on bureaucracies to function. The term bureaucracy literally means "rule by desks or offices," a definition that highlights the often impersonal character of bureaucracies. Even though bureaucracies sometimes seem inefficient or wasteful, setting up a bureaucracy helps ensure that thousands of people work together in compatible ways by defining everyone's roles within a hierarchy.

Today a bureaucracy is a large administrative organization that handles the day-to-day business of a government or society. Here in America, the government's bureaucracy operates on national, state, and local levels. Bureaucracies have four key characteristics that make their resemblance to beehives all the more apparent.

A Clear Hierarchy - Bureaucracies have a firm chain of command. Every worker has his or her own place in the chain, and everyone's work is overseen by someone on the next level up. Power flows down from the top of the hierarchy and diminishes as it approaches the bottom. Just think of the beehive. The queen bee stands at the top, and each worker bee or drone has its own place in the hive's chain of command.

Specialization - Everyone in a bureaucracy has a specific job to do and often becomes an expert at it. Bees have specific jobs, too, collecting pollen, making honey, or populating the hive.

A Division of Labour - In a bureaucracy, nearly every task is broken down into its component parts, and different people work on different parts of the task. Together they get the job done, just like bees in a hive who divide their labor for maximum efficiency.

A Set of Formal Rules - These so-called standard operating procedures are the clear, written instructions for each specialized job at every level of the hierarchy. Workers who follow them can be sure that they are on the same page as their colleagues and are doing their jobs properly. According to beekeepers, bees, too, have a sophisticated system of communication that keeps their hives running smoothly.

3.2 FUNCTIONS OF THE BUREAUCRACY

The main functions of bureaucracy are the implementation of government policies and programs.

1. The Bureaucracy Implements the Laws and Policies Made by Elected Officials.

These laws and policies need to be put into practice in specific situations and applied in all the contingencies of daily life. For example, a city council has decided that all dog owners must have their pets licensed and microchipped, but the city council members don't have the time to make sure that their decision is carried out. City workers, members of the city's bureaucracy, are the ones who answer questions and complaints about the law, help dog owners fill out the proper forms, decide when to waive the license fee, refer owners to veterinarians who can insert the microchips, work with the vets to hand out coupons for discounts on microchips, and enforce the law to make sure that all dog owners have their animals licensed and microchipped in a reasonable amount of time.

2. The Bureaucracy Provides Necessary Administrative Functions, like Conducting Examinations, Issuing Permits and Licenses, and Collecting fees.

Essentially, it handles the paperwork of everyday government operations. Anyone who has a driver's license has come face-to-face with bureaucratic administration through the required written and behind-the-wheel exams, learning permits, fees at all stages, and finally applying for and receiving the driver's license itself.

3. The Bureaucracy regulates various Government Activities.

In other words, it creates the rules and regulations that clarify how various laws work on a daily basis. For instance, the bureaucracy is responsible for writing rules and regulations for public schools, including curriculum standards, examination procedures, discipline methods, teacher training and licensing requirements, and administrative policies. Schoolchildren feel the effects of these regulations when they work on their assignments or take standardized tests

3.3   THE BUREAUCRACY IN PUBLIC POLICY MAKING PROCESS

According to Ayuba, et al (2012), in Nigeria and across the world in general, the word bureaucracy is one of the most frequently, used by many authors in modern writing about organization. This is because the public bureaucracies are entrusted with public property and they are charged with responsibilities of specific method of allocating resources within a large organization. A synonym for this sense might be bureaucratic decision making. Furthermore, they are also referred to as essentially civil servants primarily established to help in the formulation and implementation of government's policies. Therefore, if you ever wonder as a Nigerian why sometimes that governments do things that no one seems to be interested or understand in your particular state, local government or your village in spite of huge population, political or economic activities, and yet you don't feel the presence of federal, state or local government. While, if you take statistics or compare the area with others, you would discovered that there were more presence of government better than other areas. Then why does such happened? Who are responsible in shaping government decision making and implementation. Furthermore, have you ever wondered to know who these bureaucrats behind the political

scene charged with the responsibility of helping the governments in taking and sharpening decisions that affect policy making process?. The answer is that they are called season civil servants who have a strong background experience as administrators in critical thinking skills as well as decision-making abilities. Thus;

> It is ironic that bureaucracy is primarily a term of scorn. In reality, bureaus are among the most important institutions in every part of the world. Not only do they provide employment for a very significant fraction of the world's population, but they also make critical decisions that shape the economic, educational, political, social, moral, and even religious lives of nearly everyone on earth...The ability of bureaus to outlive their real usefulness is part of the mythology of bureaucracy... (Downs, 1967);

In spite of the important roles of the civil servant in Nigeria in achieving many of government's laudable policies and programmes, however, not much of such are fully and excellently implemented or achieved but in many instances, as many of them have been marred by poor implementation strategies (i.e. bureaucratic procedures). This become so, as the civil service has a way of putting obstacles or frustration in the way policies are being formulated by the political officials, especially those policies on which they hold divergent opinions or are not of direct benefit to them. As such, they employed so many varieties of tactics "to thwart such implementation". From the fore-going, as stated by Okotoni (2001) that we can summarize the role of the federal bureaucracy as coordination of federal ministries, advising the political officials, formulation and implementation of government's policies, gathering and supplying of data for policy makers, ensuring continuity of services and public relations services. All the roles highlighted above are so crucial to the smooth running of any administration to the extent that one may be tempted to conclude that bureaucracy is indispensable in public Policy formulation and implementation.

3.4 MANAGING DISCRETION AND ABUSE OF ADMINISTRATIVE POWER

On the line of executing the policies of government, the bureaucrats/ administrators are given certain administrative powers. Administrative power is the power to administer or enforce a law. Administrative powers can be executive, legislative, or judicial in nature. Administrative power intends to carry the laws into effect, practical application of laws and execution of the principles prescribed by the lawmaker. Therefore, it qualifies as administrative discretion.

According to Laksheyender (2011), administrative discretion means choosing from amongst the various available alternatives but with reference to the rules of reason and justice and not according to personal whims. Such exercise is not to be arbitrary, vague and fanciful, but legal and regular.

However, there is a problem with administrative powers/discretion. The problem of administrative discretion is complex. It is true that in any intensive form of government, the government cannot function without the exercise of some discretion by the officials. It is necessary not only for the individualization of the administrative power but also because it is humanly impossible to lay down a rule for every conceivable eventually in the complex art of modern government. But it is equally true that absolute discretion is a ruthless master. It is more destructive of freedom than any of man's other inventions. Therefore, there has been a constant conflict between the claims of the administration to an absolute discretion and the claims of subjects to a reasonable exercise of it.

Discretionary power by itself is not pure evil but gives much room for misuse. Therefore, remedy lies in tightening the procedure hence keeping the administrator accountable as discretions are, according to Ikeanyibe (2013) usually informal and therefore unprotected by the safeguards inherent in formal procedure. Yet it is inevitable since rules and regulations can never be too detailed to the extent that everything an administrator may have to do is clearly prescribed for him/her. Every form of public

policy will inevitably see variations from the original intended policy goals as part of the discretionary process (Theodoulou and Kofinis, 2007).

Policies are not implemented in static environment and exercising discretion to meet the changing political ad administrative environment is a necessity for sustainable long term effectiveness (Wong, 2007). In his support for administrative discretion, Brodkin (2007) sees administrative reforms as a likely way to manage administrative discretion and thus, identified two basic methods of reforms:

i. Managerial and structural repositioning of the bureaucratic organization through formal rules and regulations, monitoring, rewards and penalties, or even persuasion and exhortation. It involves the use of standard instrument the "old" public administration. This is the formal bureaucratic internal mechanism of control.

ii. Administrative reforms in the light of the New Public Management Approach. The New Public Management (NPM) approach to public service production and delivery runs counter to the old ('traditional') bureaucratic approaches that were born with the emergence of the modern states systems across most of the Western world. It rejects the idea of a specific culture for public organizations and typically argues that such organizations should be managed in the same way as any private sector organization (Riccucci, 2001, Page, 2005; Dunleavy, Margetts, Bastow and Tinkler, 2006). This approach was developed during the 1980s as part of an effort to make the public service more "businesslike" and to improve its efficiency by using private sector management models. As with the private sector, which focuses on "customer service", NPM reforms often focused on the "...centrality of citizens who were the recipient of the services or customers to the public sector." NPM reformers experimented with using decentralized service delivery models, to give local agencies more freedom in how they delivered programs or services. In some cases, NPM reforms that used e-government consolidated a program or service to a central location to reduce costs. Key themes in NPM were "...financial control, value for money, increasing efficiency...,identifying and setting targets and continuance monitoring of performance, handing over power to the senior management"

executives. Performance was assessed with audits, benchmarks and performance evaluations. Some NPM reforms used private sector companies to deliver what were formerly public services.

Still, many scholars have found certain deficiencies in this method though it proposes reducing the role of bureaucracy in policy implementation, it seeks to increase its role in policy making, and hence the use of discretion cannot be stamped out the powers of bureaucrats (Ikeanyibe, 2013).

4.0   CONCLUSION

Administrative discretion allows agencies to use professional expertise and judgment when making decisions or performing official duties, as opposed to only adhering to strict regulations or statuses. For example, a public official has administrative discretion when he or she has the freedom to make a choice among potential courses of action. The failure to exercise reasonable judgment or discretion is abuse of discretion. However, for the good of public policy, this power of the administrator needs to be checkmated. This is the thrust of this unit.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able to establish that bureaucracies is involved in every stage of the policy making process hence the bureaucrats inevitably become involved in the policy-making process as they develop experience, accumulate information and gain expertise on matters of public policy. This experience enters not only the policy formulation and implementation stage, but also the final process of evaluation, review and assessment. The evaluation state is the process where an organization, whether public or private, evaluates and revises its policies on whether it was effective in resolving the targeted issue.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the role of the bureaucracy in the public policy making process?

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MODULE 4
Unit 1 – Organizations; Meaning, principles, types and elements
Unit 2– Process of Organization
Unit 3 –theories of Organization
Unit 4 –The concept of Management
Unit 5– Principles of Management

UNIT 1
ORGANIZATIONS; MEANING, PRINCIPLES, TYPES AND ELEMENTS
CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 The Meaning of Organization
3.2 The Principles of Organization
3.3 Types of Management
3.4 Elements of Organization
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 Introduction
Because management denotes a function and the people who discharge the function, as well as the process of coordinating work activities so that they are completed efficiently and effectively with and through other people, it suffices that these functions and those who perform them are found in an organization. To attain organization's goals by effectively leading, and controlling the organization's human, physical, financial and informational resources, the understanding of the concept of organization, its principles, types and elements becomes necessary.

2.0 Objectives
At the end of this unit, the students are expected to understand and appreciate:
   i. Meaning of organization
   ii. Principles of organizations
   iii. Types of organization; and
   iv. Elements of organization

3.0 Main Content
3.1 The Meaning and definitions of Organization
Organization is the foundation upon which the whole structure of management is built. Organization is related with developing a frame work where the total work is divided into

manageable components in order to facilitate the achievement of objectives or goals. Thus, organization is the structure or mechanism (machinery) that enables living things to work together. In a static sense, an organisation is a structure or machinery manned by group of individuals who are working together towards a common goal.

The term 'organization' has been used in a number of ways. Broadly speaking, the term 'organization' is used in four different senses: as a process, as a structure of relationship, as a group of persons and as a system, as given below:

Organization as a Process: In this first sense, organisation is treated as a dynamic process and a managerial activity which is essential for planning the utilization of company's resources, plant an equipment materials, money and people to accomplish the various objectives.

Organisation as a Framework of Relationship: In the second sense organisation refers to the structure of relationships and among position jobs which is created to release certain objectives. The definitions of Henry, Urwick, Farland, Northcourt, Lansburgh and Spriegel Breach, Davis, Mooney and Reily etc., come under this group. For example: According to Mooney and Reily, "Organisation is the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose."

Organisation as a Group of persons: In the third sense, organisation is very often viewed as a group of persons contributing their efforts towards certain goals. Organisation begins when people combine their efforts for some common purpose. It is a universal truth that an individual is unable ability and resources. Barnard has defined 'Organisation' as an identifiable group of people contributing their efforts towards the attainment of goals.

Organisation as a System: In the fourth sense, the organisation is viewed as system. System concepts recognize that organizations are made up of components each of which has unique properties, capabilities and mutual relationship. The constituent elements of a system are linked together in such complex ways that actions taken by one producer have far reaching effect on others.

In short, organizing is the determining, grouping and arranging of the various activities deemed necessary for the attainment of the objectives, the assigning of people to those activities, the providing of suitable physical factors of environment and the indicating of the relative authority delegated to each individual charged with the execution of each respective activity.

Having established the meaning of organizations, let us examine some definitions. Different authors have defined organisation in different ways. The main definitions of organisation are as follows:

- According to keith Davis, "Organisation may be defined as a group of individuals, large of small, that is cooperating under the direction of executive leadership in accomplishment of certain common objective."
- According to Chester I. Barnard, "Organisation is a system of co-operative activities of two or more persons."
- According to Louis A. Allen, "Organisation is the process of identifying and grouping the work to be performed, defining and delegating responsibility and authority, and establishing relationship for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives."
- According to Mooney and Railey, "Organisation is the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose."

3.2 THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

There is no unanimity as to number of principles of organisation amongst the leading authors on the subject. L.K. Urwick, in his paper 'Scientific Principles of Organisation' (1938) and 'Notes on the Theory of Organisation' (1952) prescribed ten principles of organisation. Thereafter, many other writers on the subject have added a few more principles of organisation. The main principles of organisation are as follows:

1. The Principle of Objective
Every enterprise, big or small, prescribes certain basic objectives. Organisation serves as a tool in attaining these prescribed objectives. Every part of the organisation and the organisation as a whole should be geared to the basic objective determined by the enterprise.

2. Principle of Specialization
Precise division of work facilitates specialization. According to this principles division of work between the employees must be based on their ability, capability, tasks, knowledge and interest. This will ensure specialization and specialization will lead to efficiency, quality and elimination of wastage etc.

3. The Scalar Principle
The principle is sometimes known as the 'chain command'. There must be clear lines of authority running from the top to the bottom of the organisation.

4. The Principle of Authority
Authority is the element of organisation structure. It is the tool by which a manager is able to create an environment for individual performance.

5. The Principle of Unity of Command
One subordinate should be kept in the supervision of one boss only. This principle avoids the possibility of conflicts in instructions and develops the feeling of personnel responsibility for the work.

6. The Principal Span of Control
It is also known as 'span of management', 'span of supervision' or 'levels of organisation', etc.

7. The Principle of Definition

The contents of every position should be clearly defined. The duties, responsibilities, authorities and organizational relationship of an individual working on a particular position should be well defined.

8. The Principle of the Unity of Direction

The basic rationale for the very existence of organisation is the attainment of certain objectives. Major objective should be split into functional activities and there should be one objective and one plan for each group of people.

9. The Principle of Supremacy of Organisation Objectives

The organisation goals and objectives should be given wide publicity within the organisation. The people contributing to it, should be made to understand that enterprise objectives are more valuable and significant and one should place one's personal motives under it.

10. The Principle of Balance

In every organisation structure there is need for balance. For effective grouping and assigning activities, this principle calls for putting balance on all types of factors human, technical as well as financial.

11. The Principle of Human Element

This principle indicates that the success or failure of an enterprise largely depends on the handling of human element. If the organisation has sound labor policies along with a number of welfare activities it is bound to succeed.

12. The Principle of Discipline

According to his principle, it is the responsibility of the management to maintain proper discipline in the enterprise. Fayol considered discipline as 'respect for agreements which are directed at achieving obedience, application, energy and outward mark of respect."

3.3 TYPES OF ORGANIZATION

There are a variety of legal types of organizations, including corporations, governments, non-governmental organizations, political organizations, international organizations, armed forces, charities, not-for-profit corporations, partnerships, cooperatives, and educational institutions. Generally, organizations are groups into two broad types: formal and informal.

A.   FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

An organization that is established as a means for achieving defined objectives has been referred to as a formal organization. Its design specifies how goals are subdivided and reflected in subdivisions of the organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs, and tasks make up this work structure. Thus, the formal organization is expected to behave impersonally in regard to relationships with clients or with its members.

According to Weber's definition, entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority. Each employee receives a salary and enjoys a degree of tenure that safeguards him from the arbitrary influence of superiors or of powerful clients. The higher his

position in the hierarchy, the greater his presumed expertise in adjudicating problems that may arise in the course of the work carried out at lower levels of the organization. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis for the appointment of heads or chiefs of administrative subdivisions in the organization and endows them with the authority attached to their position (Gibb, 1970).

The formal organization is basically goal-oriented entity that exist to accurate the efforts of individuals and it refers to the structure of jobs and positions with clearly defined functions, responsibilities and authorities.

From the point of economy, a formal organization can be defined as a fixed regulation of in-plant operational sequence and structures. It is a firmly given order, which is usually also in writing fixed. The formal organization is provided explicitly, in the form of rules and permits mostly only small interpretation clearance.

From management perspective, a formal organization refers to the organization structure which is designed and prescribed by the management of an enterprise that is generally, but not necessarily, represented in the form of an organization chart showing designation of various people employed in the organization, their hierarchical levels, reporting relationships, and other channels for control and coordination. This chart is backed up by a more detailed description of duties and responsibilities of each position shown in the organization chart. Formal organization represents the structure of duties, responsibilities and working relationships formally prescribed in the organization.

Summarily, formal organization is a fixed set of rules of intra-organization procedures and structures. As such, it is usually set out in writing, with a language of rules that ostensibly leave little discretion for interpretation. In some societies and in some organizations, such rules may be strictly followed; in others, they may be little more than an empty formalism.

Characteristics of formal organization
• Well defined rules and regulation
• Determined objectives and policies
• Status symbol
• Limitation on the activities of the individual
• Strict observance of the principle of co-ordination
• Messages are communicated through scalar chain
• It is to best attain the objectives of the enterprise.
• Hierarchical work distribution or clear division of labor.

Distinguishing formal organization from informal organization
Formal rules are often adapted to subjective interests—social structures within an enterprise and the personal goals, desires, sympathies and behaviors of the individual

workers—so that the practical everyday life of an organization becomes informal. Practical experience shows no organization is ever completely rule-bound: instead, all real organizations represent some mix of formal and informal. Consequently, when attempting to legislate for an organization and to create a formal structure, it is necessary to recognize informal organization in order to create workable structures. However, informal organization can fail, or, if already set in order, can work against mismanagement.

Formal organizations are typically understood to be systems of coordinated and controlled activities that arise when work is embedded in complex networks of technical relations and boundary-spanning exchanges. But in modern societies, formal organizational structures arise in highly institutional contexts. Organizations are driven to incorporate the practices and procedures defined by prevailing rationalized concepts of organizational work and institutionalized in society. Organizations that do so increase their legitimacy and their survival prospects, independent of the immediate efficacy of the acquired practices and procedures. There can develop a tension between on the one hand, the institutionalized products, services, techniques, policies, and programs that function as myths (and may be ceremonially adopted), and efficiency criteria on the other hand. To maintain ceremonial conformity, organizations that reflect institutional rules tend to buffer their formal structures from the uncertainties of the technical activities by developing a loose coupling between their formal structures and actual work activities. - (John Meyer and Brian Rowan, 1976)

B. INFORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

The informal organization is the interlocking social structure that governs how people work together in practice. It is the aggregate of, norms, personal and professional connections through which work gets done and relationships are built among people who share a common organizational affiliation or cluster of affiliations. It consists of a dynamic set of personal relationships, social networks, communities of common interest, and emotional sources of motivation. The informal organization evolves, and the complex social dynamics of its members also.

Tended effectively, the informal organization complements the more explicit structures, plans, and processes of the formal organization: it can accelerate and enhance responses to unanticipated events, foster innovation, enable people to solve problems that require collaboration across boundaries, and create footpaths showing where the formal organization may someday need to pave a way.

Reasons for informal organization

There are many different reasons for informal organization such as :
• Informal standards: personal goals and interests of workers differ from official organizational goals.

- Informal communication: changes of communication routes within an enterprise due to personal relations between coworkers.
- Informal group: certain groups of coworkers have the same interests, or (for example) the same origin.
- Informal leaders: due to charisma and general popularity, certain members of the organization win more influence than originally intended.
- Different interests and preferences of coworkers.
- Different status of coworkers.
- Difficult work requirements.
- Unpleasant conditions of work.

3.4 ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATION

Many organizations come into being, succeed or fail and often die quietly, without ever having been recognized as organizations, even by their members. However, within all these variety and complexity, there are two kinds of elements common to all organizations and these are: The Core Elements; and The Working Elements

A. THE CORE ELEMENTS

The core elements of any organization are persons i.e. the particular people whose interactions compose the organization. Every organization is constantly changing, hence the use of the term process in the definition of organization given above to convey the dynamic nature of organizations. The names or membership roll call may change but there are always some persons involved, whose relationships can be expressed in some sort of structure, or no organization exists. Interacting persons are the necessary and sufficient element, and therefore they constitute the core element of organizations.

The necessary condition for organization is interaction between two or more persons who perceive that their individual desires can best be satisfied through the combination of personally possessed capabilities or resources. The success or failure of any organization is basically determined by a quality of interactions among the core elements, its members. When persons interact in some structured way an organization exists. These interactions cannot take place without their objectives. Objectives come first both in the history of any organization and in the study of organizations as a whole. These objectives are both personal and organizational objectives.

i. Persons and their Personal Objectives

There are questions that persons ask, which are always a part of a person's decision to go into , remain in or stay out of any organization, for example, should I stay with this company or look for another job, should I stay outside of the student association, etc. An individual supports an organization if she or he believes that through it personal objectives are being attained; if not, the person loses interest.

Importance of Personal Objectives in Organizations
Not everyone is completely aware of personal objectives. A specific person may not even be aware that he or she has objectives. However, effective organizations exist in spite of these deficiencies. This brings us to the question, "why is it important for managers to recognize that the personal objectives of each member of an organization are related to that member's participation in the organization?" The answer to this question is that the effectiveness of the member's participation is directly related to that person's idea of how the organization helps to achieve one's individual objectives and if one believes that it does, a highly productive cycle can operate. The person works wholeheartedly towards achieving personal objectives, understanding they are most likely to be accomplished when she or he contributes to the organization. This helps move the organization toward the organizational objectives, which moves the organization closer and so on.

ii. Persons and their organizational Objectives
The effectiveness of a given organization is determined by how well the objectives of that organization are being achieved. An organization may not be fulfilling its objectives as well as it might, but it continues to exist, it is because some persons view it as at least partially effective. We speak of an organization as a thing unto itself, an entity with its own objectives, in terms of which its effectiveness can be measured. But within the organization are the members, each of whom has individual objectives. When we begin to speak of the objectives of the organization, does it mean we are ignoring the objectives of the individuals? Is there therefore a relationship between individual objectives and organizational objectives?. The following points below will answer these questions.
The relationship of individual and organizational objectives comes about in this ways:
• The objectives of the individuals lead to action by those individuals.
• When action by one individual involves another individual in some way, the second individual reacts, in accordance with individual objectives. This interchange of action and reaction constitutes interaction, which can be described as a structure. This interaction of persons makes up the productive part of an organization.
• The individual objectives that lie behind the actions and reactions thus are responsible for the existence of the organization.
• Each member of the organization has two sets of concepts about himself or herself and the organization which are: (a) the person's concept of personal objectives that are expected to be achieved by participating in organization; (b) the person's concept of the objectives of the organization. However, one does not think of them as "concept a" and "concept b"
• The most effective organizations are those in which, first, concepts a and b are complementary for all members; not only do the members think they might be, they are.

B. WORKING ELEMENTS: RESOURCES
The working elements of an organization are those resources within it that can determine whether or not it is effective. Since the manager is the person most responsible for making the organization effective, he or she must know what these resources are and how

they are available. The resources available to an organization fall into two broad categories namely: (a) non human and (b) human. They include everything, every person, every concept and every condition with which an organization has to work.

(a) Nonhuman Resources: Tangible Assets of organizations
Some human resources are free and easily accessible to organizations and others are not. Nature provides free goods in abundance, air, climate and in some cases even water. For example a fishing company has a free ocean in which to fish as well as free fish. On the other hand, most tangible resources are not free. The first problem for any organization is to provide itself with the materials and facilities that will be needed to accomplish its objectives.

(b) Human Resources
Humans, the core elements of the organization are also referred to as working elements. Persons within the organization utilize free resources and arrange for the organization to acquire other necessary resources. Without effective management, resources are likely to be wasted. If the organization's objectives are accomplished at all, they will be accomplished only accidentally. Resources should be managed and this is done by the manager and the manager needs to recognize that in their role as a working element, humans can bring to the organization three kinds of resources which include:
i. Their own ability to do – every organization needs some members who can themselves perform the activities needed to achieve its objectives.
ii. Their ability to influence others – there is the ability to influence others to do. A person's influence may be derived from economic power, social position, political power or individual personality. Ability to influence is essentially the same as power because power can be defined as the ability to alter the behaviour of others.
iii. Their ability to comprehend and use concepts – the manager needs both influence or power and the ability to use concepts to coordinate all the resources of the organization to direct them effectively toward accomplishing organizational objectives. The manager uses concepts as tools, which may be divided into the areas of planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling.

4.0 Conclusion
Organization is not an end it itself but a means to achieve an end. Seen from the lens of the types, principles and elements, one tends to see organization as an ideal thing to achieve objectives, despite that fact that some people think that an ideal organization does not exist. This is a wrong conception. An ideal organization is a reality which can be achieved through the active cooperation of all the members of an organization and also by following the principles of organization. Therefore, a sound organization is mainly based on the active cooperation of all the members of the organization and on certain principles but also it is based on the capabilities of the individuals available to work along with its simplicity and flexibility. Thus, a sound or good or ideal and result-oriented organisation must possess the above listed characteristics.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, we have been able to bring to the fore the very meaning of organizations. We further listed some definitions of organization given by authors. We also examined the principles and types of organizations and its element. The essence is to ensure that the students have rich knowledge of the concept of organizations.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Organization is used in four different senses; discuss.
2. State the principles of organization
3. State the elements of organsaiton
4. Discuss the types of organizations and state their differences

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UNIT 2:

PROCESS OF ORGANIZATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Every organization needs to function properly, and the norms for proper functioning of the organization are evolved through organizational processes. These relate to power, decision making, communication, motivation and leadership. Socialization also plays a significant role.

Many modern organizations are functional and hierarchical; they suffer from isolated departments, poor coordination, and limited lateral communication. All too often, work is fragmented and compartmentalized, and managers find it difficult to get things done. Scholars have faced similar problems in their research, struggling to describe organizational functioning in other than static, highly aggregated terms. For real progress to be made, the "proverbial 'black box,' the firm, has to be opened and studied from within."

Processes provide a likely solution. In the broadest sense, they can be defined as collections of tasks and activities that together — and only together — transform inputs into outputs. Within organizations, these inputs and outputs can be as varied as materials, information, and people. Common examples of processes include new product development, order fulfillment, and customer service; less obvious but equally legitimate candidates are resource allocation and decision making.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, students will be able to understand and appreciate:
1.   The Process of Organization
2.   Power in organization; and
3.   Communication in an organization.

3.0 Main Content
3.1 The Process of Organization

Many modern organizations are functional and hierarchical; they suffer from isolated departments, poor coordination, and limited lateral communication. All too often, work is fragmented and compartmentalized, and managers find it difficult to get things done. Scholars have faced similar problems in their research, struggling to describe organizational functioning in other than static, highly aggregated terms. For real progress to be made, the "proverbial 'black box,' the firm, has to be opened and studied from within (Chakravarthy and Dos, 1992)."

Processes provide a likely solution. In the broadest sense, they can be defined as collections of tasks and activities that together — and only together — transform inputs into outputs. Within organizations, these inputs and outputs can be as varied as materials, information, and people. Common examples of processes include new product development, order fulfillment, and customer service; less obvious but equally legitimate candidates are resource allocation and decision making.

Over the years, there have been a number of process theories in the academic literature, but seldom has anyone reviewed them systematically or in an integrated way. Process theories have appeared in organization theory, strategic management, operations management, group dynamics, and studies of managerial behavior. The few scholarly efforts to tackle processes as a collective phenomenon either have been tightly focused theoretical or methodological statements or have focused primarily on a single type of process theory (Mohr, 1982).

Yet when the theories are taken together, they provide a powerful lens for understanding organizations and management:

First, processes provide a convenient, intermediate level of analysis. Because they consist of diverse, interlinked tasks, they open up the black box of the firm without exposing analysts to the "part-whole" problems that have plagued earlier research (Van de Ven, 1986). Past studies have tended to focus on either the trees (individual tasks or activities) or the forest (the organization as a whole); they have not combined the two. A process perspective gives the needed integration, ensuring that the realities of work practice are linked explicitly to the firm's overall functioning (Sayles, 1989).

Second, a process lens provides new insights into managerial behavior. Most studies have been straightforward descriptions of time allocation, roles, and activity streams, with few attempts to integrate activities into a coherent whole (Hales, 1986). In fact, most past research has highlighted the fragmented quality of managers' jobs rather than their coherence. A process approach, by contrast, emphasizes the links among activities, showing that seemingly unrelated tasks — a telephone call, a brief hallway conversation, or an unscheduled meeting — are often part of a single, unfolding sequence. From this vantage point, managerial work becomes far more rational and orderly.

Scholars have developed three major approaches to organizational processes. They are best considered separate but related schools of thought because each focuses on a particular process and explores its distinctive characteristics and challenges. The three categories are (1) work processes, (2) behavioral processes, and (3) change processes

3.2 Work Processes

The work process approach, which has roots in industrial engineering and work measurement, focuses on accomplishing tasks. It starts with a simple but powerful idea: organizations accomplish their work through linked chains of activities cutting across departments and functional groups. These chains are called processes and can be conveniently grouped into two categories: (1) processes that create, produce, and deliver products and services that customers want, and (2) processes that do not produce outputs that customers want, but that are still necessary for running the business. I call the first group "operational processes" and the second group "administrative processes." New product development, manufacturing, and logistics and distribution are examples of operational processes, while strategic planning, budgeting, and performance measurement are examples of administrative processes.

Operational and administrative processes share several characteristics. Both involve sequences of linked, interdependent activities that together transform inputs into outputs. Both have beginnings and ends, with boundaries that can be defined with reasonable precision and minimal overlap. And both have customers, who may be internal or external to the organization. The primary differences between the two lie in the nature of their outputs. Typically, operational processes produce goods and services that external customers consume, while administrative processes generate information and plans that internal groups use. For this reason, the two are frequently considered independent, unrelated activities, even though they must usually be aligned and mutually supportive if the organization is to function effectively. Skilled supply chain management, for example, demands a seamless link between a company's forecasting and logistics processes, just as successful new product development rests on well-designed strategy formation and planning processes.

The work processes approach is probably most familiar to managers. It draws heavily on the principles of the quality movement and reengineering (Harrington, 1991). Both focus on the need to redesign processes to improve quality, cut costs, reduce cycle times, or otherwise enhance operating performance. Despite these shared goals, the two movements are strikingly similar on some points, but diverge on others.

The similarities begin with the belief that most existing work processes have grown unchecked, with little rationale or planning, and are therefore terribly inefficient. Hammer, for example, has observed: "Why did we design inefficient processes? In a way, we didn't. Many of our procedures were not designed at all; they just happened. …

The hodgepodge of special cases and quick fixes was passed from one generation of workers to the next." The result, according to one empirical study of white-collar processes, is that value-added time (the time in which a product or service has value added to it, as opposed to waiting in a queue or being reworked to fix problems caused earlier) is typically less than 5 percent of total processing time.

To eliminate inefficiencies, both movements suggest that work processes be redesigned. In fact, both implicitly equate process improvement with process management. They also suggest the use of similar tools, such as process mapping and data modeling, as well as common rules of thumb for identifying improvement opportunities. First, flow charts are developed to show all the steps in a process; the process is then made more efficient by eliminating multiple approvals and checkpoints, finding opportunities to reduce waiting time, smoothing the hand-offs between departments, and grouping related tasks and responsibilities. At some point, "process owners" with primary responsibility for leading the improvement effort are also deemed necessary. Their role is to ensure integration and overcome traditional functional loyalties; for this reason, relatively senior managers are usually assigned the task (Hammer and Champy 1993).

The differences between the two movements lie in their views about the underlying nature and sources of process change. The quality movement, for the most part, argues for incremental improvement. Existing work processes are assumed to have many desirable properties; the goal is to eliminate unnecessary steps and errors while preserving the basic structure of the process. Improvements are continuous and relatively small scale. Reengineering, by contrast, calls for radical change. Existing work processes are regarded as hopelessly outdated; they rely on work practices and a division of labor that take no account of modern information technology.

For example, the case management approach, in which "individuals or small teams … perform a series of tasks, such as the fulfillment of a customer order from beginning to end, often with the help of information systems that reach throughout the organization," was not economically viable until the arrival of powerful, inexpensive computers and innovative software. For this reason, reengineering focuses less on understanding the details of current work processes and more on "inventing a future" based on fundamentally new processes.

Perhaps the most dramatic difference between the two approaches lies in the importance they attach to control and measurement. Quality experts, drawing on their experience with statistical process control in manufacturing, argue that well-managed work processes must be fully documented, with clearly defined control points (Kane 1986). Managers can improve a process, they believe, only if they first measure it with accuracy and assure its stability. After improvement, continuous monitoring is required to maintain the gains and ensure that the process performs as planned. Reengineering experts, on the

other hand, are virtually silent about measurement and control. They draw on a different tradition, information technology, that emphasizes redesign rather than control.

3.3 Behavioral Processes

The behavioral process approach, which has roots in organization theory and group dynamics, focuses on ingrained behavior patterns. These patterns reflect an organization's characteristic ways of acting and interacting; decision-making and communication processes are examples. The underlying behavior patterns are normally so deeply embedded and recurrent that they are displayed by most organizational members. They also have enormous staying power. As Weick observed, behavioral processes are able to "withstand the turnover of personnel as well as some variation in the actual behaviors people contribute (Weick, 1979)."

All behavioral processes share several characteristics. They are generalizations, distilled from observations of everyday work and have no independent existence apart from the work processes in which they appear. This makes them difficult to identify but explains their importance. Behavioral processes profoundly affect the form, substance, and character of work processes by shaping how they are carried out. They are different, however, from organizational culture because they reflect more than values and beliefs. Behavioral processes are the sequences of steps used for accomplishing the cognitive and interpersonal aspects of work. New product development processes, for example, may have roughly similar work flows yet still involve radically different patterns of decision making and communication. Often, it is these underlying patterns that determine the operational process's ultimate success or failure (Wheelwright and Clark,1992).

Decision-Making Processes. Of all behavioral processes, decision making has been the most carefully studied. The roots go back to the research and writings of Chester Barnard and Herbert Simon, who argued that organizational decision making was a distributed activity, extending over time, involving a number of people (Barnard, 1938)). Because it was a process rather than a discrete event, a critical management task was shaping the environment of decision making to produce desired ends. This, in itself, is still a surprising insight for many managers. All too often, they see decision making as their personal responsibility, rather than as a shared, dispersed activity that they must orchestrate and lead.

These early writings spawned a vast outpouring of research on decision making; eventually they coalesced into the field of strategic process research. One group focused on the structure of decision-making processes: their primary stages, and whether stages followed one another logically and in sequence or varied over time with the type of decision. The goal was a model of the decision process, replete with flow charts and time lines, that mapped the sequence of steps in decision making and identified ideal types. For the most part, the results of these studies have been equivocal. Efforts to produce a

simple linear flow model of decision making — in the same way that work processes can be diagrammed using process flow charts — have had limited success. Witte, for example, studied the purchase process for new computers and found that very few decisions-4 of 233 — corresponded to a standard, five-phase, sequential process. He concluded that simultaneous rather than sequenced processes were the norm: "We believe that human beings cannot gather information without in some way developing alternatives. They cannot avoid evaluating these alternatives immediately, and in doing this, they are forced to a decision. This is a package of operations (Witte (1972)." Mintzberg et al. and Nutt, in their studies of strategic decision making, found it equally difficult to specify a simple sequence of steps (Mintzberg et al. (1976); and Nutt (1984). After developing general models of the process, they identified a number of distinct paths through them, each representing a different type or style of decision making.

A second group of scholars adopted a more focused approach. Each studied a particular kind of decision, usually involving large dollar investments, to identify the constituent activities, subprocesses, and associated management roles and responsibilities, as well as the contextual factors shaping the process. Much of this research has examined the resource allocation process, with studies of capital budgeting, foreign investments, strategic planning, internal corporate venturing, and business exit (Ackerman, 1970).This research has led to two important insights:

First, it has forced scholars to acknowledge the simultaneous, multilevel quality of decision processes. While sequential stages can be specified, they are incomplete as process theories and must be supplemented by detailed descriptions of the interaction of activities, via subprocesses, across organizational levels and through time. Bower, for example, identified three major components of the resource allocation process — definition (the development of financial goals, strategies, and product-market plans), impetus (the crafting, selling, and choice of projects), and determination of context (the creation of structures, systems, and incentives guiding the process) — and then went on to describe the linkage among these activities and the interdependent roles of corporate, divisional, and middle managers (Bower 1970). A simple stages model was unable to capture the richness of the process: the range of interlinked activities, with reciprocal impacts, that were unfolding at multiple organizational levels. This finding has obvious implications for managers because it suggests that effective resource allocation — as well as most other types of decision making — requires attention to the perspectives and actions that are unfolding simultaneously above and below one's level in the organization.

Second, this body of research focused attention on the way that managers shape and influence decision processes. By describing the structural and strategic context — the rules by which the game is played, including the organization's goals, values, and reward systems — and showing how it is formed through actions and policies, scholars have demonstrated how senior managers are able to have a pronounced impact on decisions

made elsewhere in the organization. While behavioral processes like decision making have great autonomy and persistence, they can, according to this line of research, be shaped and directed by managerial action.

Another stream of research has explored the quality of decision making. Scholars have studied flawed decisions to better understand their causes, examined the factors supporting speedy decision making, and contrasted the effectiveness of comprehensive and narrow decision processes (Allison, 1971). These studies have noted certain distinctive problems that arise because organizational decision making is a collective effort. Janis, for example, citing foreign policy debacles such as the Bay of Pigs, noted that when members of a decision-making group want to preserve social cohesion and strive for unanimity, they may engage in self-censorship, overoptimism, and stereotyped views of the enemy, causing them to override more realistic assessments of alternatives (Janis 1972). However, certain techniques that introduce conflict and dissent, such as devil's advocacy and dialectical inquiry, have been found to overcome these problems in both controlled experiments and real-world situations (Amason, 1996).

After the Bay of Pigs fiasco, President Kennedy explicitly reformed the national security decision-making process to include devil's advocacy and dialectical inquiry, and used both techniques to great effect during the Cuban Missile Crisis (Janis 1972). Similarly, Bourgeois and Eisenhardt found that successful, speedy decision making relied on rational approaches, the development of simultaneous multiple alternatives, and the use of up-to-date operating information to form judgments (Bourgeois and Eisenhardt (1988). For managers, the implications of this line of research should be obvious: the need to introduce healthy conflict and competing perspectives to ensure more effective, timely decision making.

Together, these studies have shown that decision-making processes are lengthy, complex, and slow to change. They involve multiple, often overlapping stages, engage large numbers of people at diverse levels, suffer from predictable biases and perceptual filters, and are shaped by the administrative, structural, and strategic context. Their effectiveness can be judged, using criteria such as speed, flexibility, range of alternatives considered, logical consistency, and results, and they are subject to managerial influence and control. Perhaps most important, these studies have shown that decision making, like other behavioral processes, can be characterized along a few simple dimensions that managers can review and alter if needed. A company's decision-making processes may be slow or fast, generate few or many alternatives, rely primarily on operating or financial data, engage few or many organizational levels, involve consensual or hierarchical resolution of conflicts, and be tolerant of or closed to divergent opinions.

Communication Processes. Social psychologists and sociologists have long studied communication processes, dating back to the original human relations experiments at the Hawthorne Works of Western Electric, the pioneering studies of Kurt Lewin, and the

efforts of the National Training Laboratories to establish the field of organizational development (Schein (1988). The field currently covers a broad array of processes and interactions, including face-to-face, within-group, and intergroup relationships.

The efficacy of these relationships invariably rests on the quality and richness of interpersonal communication and information processing activities: how individuals and groups share data, agree on agendas and goals, and iron out conflicts as they go about their work (Ancona and Nadler, 1989).These processes frequently become patterned and predictable. But because they are embedded in everyday work flows, they are not always immediately apparent. Like decision-making processes, they reflect unconscious assumptions and routines and can often be identified only after repeated observations of individuals and groups. Moreover, the underlying processes are quite subtle, as Schein has observed:

"Many formulations of communication depict it as a simple problem of transfer of information from one person to another. But … the process is anything but simple, and the information transferred is often highly variable and complex. We communicate facts, feelings, perceptions, innuendoes, and various other things all in the same 'simple' message. We communicate not only through the spoken and written word but through facial expressions, gestures, physical posture, tone of voice, timing of when we speak, what we do not say, and so on (Schein 1988)."

Because of these complexities, communication processes are best characterized along multiple dimensions. Schein has provided a relatively complete set of categories, including frequency and duration, direction, triggers and flow, style, and level and depth. Some patterns can be captured through the tools of communication engineering, which model communication networks and present a picture of a group's information linkages and flows in the same way that work processes are often mapped (Hauptman, 1992).

A few studies have pursued an intermediate level of analysis, combining activities into subprocesses. These subprocesses fall into two distinct categories: those needed for task management and work accomplishment and those for building the group and maintaining its relationships (Ancona and Nadler 1989). Examples of the first include information giving and seeking and opinion giving and seeking, and examples of the second include harmonizing and compromising. Several scholars have used these categories to develop simple self-assessment forms for evaluating group processes and have then linked the results to group effectiveness (McGregor, 1988).

Together, these studies provide a relatively complete set of categories for diagnosing and evaluating communication processes. Like decision-making processes, they can be characterized along a few simple dimensions. Here, too, managers can use the dimensions to profile their organizations and identify areas needing improvement. The nature, direction, and quality of discussion flows are important, as are the

interrelationships among group members, their stances toward one another, and the tenor and tone of group work.

3.4 Change Processes

The change process approach, which has roots in strategic management, organization theory, social psychology, and business history, focuses on sequences of events over time. These sequences, called processes, describe how individuals, groups, and organizations adapt, develop, and grow. Change processes are explicitly dynamic and intertemporal. Unlike the relatively static portraits of work and behavioral processes, they attempt "to catch reality in flight." Examples of change processes include the organizational life cycle and Darwinian evolution.

All change processes share several characteristics. They are longitudinal and dynamic, designed to capture action as it unfolds, with three components always present: "a set of starting conditions, a functional end-point, and an emergent process of change (Van de Ven 1992) Change processes therefore answer the question, "How did *x* get from here to there?" Often, a story or narrative is required to provide coherence and explain the underlying logic of the process (Van de Ven and Huber(1990). Most descriptions of change also divide time into broad stages or phases. Each stage consists of groups of activities aimed at roughly similar goals, and the transition between stages may be smooth or turbulent.

Studies of change have focused on four broad areas: creation, growth, transformation, and decline. Each period represents a critical stage in the individual or organizational life cycle, and, over time, the life cycle has become the organizing framework for the field. Scholars remain divided, however, about the pattern and flow of events over time. The primary question is whether change processes proceed through incremental steps - what Gersick has called "a slow stream of small mutations" — or through alternating periods of stability and revolutionary change (Gersick 1991). Ultimately, the choice is between traditional Darwinian theories and those based on a newer, punctuated equilibrium framework. While the subject is still under debate, evidence supporting the latter view is accumulating rapidly.

Whatever their focus, change processes fall into two broad categories: autonomous and induced. Autonomous processes have a life of their own; they proceed because of an internal dynamic. The entity or organism evolves naturally and of its own course. In some cases, the direction of change is preordained and inevitable. In others, transitional periods create flux, and the entity may evolve in multiple, unexpected ways. Processes in the former category include an organization's evolution from informal, entrepreneurial start-up to a more structured, professionally managed firm. Processes in the second category

include organizational and industry shifts that result from revolutionary changes in technology. In both cases, Selznick has observed, managers must be attentive to the path and timing of development: "Certain types of problems seem to characterize phases of an organization's life-history. As these problems emerge, the organization is confronted with critical policy decisions." Appropriate action depends, in large part, on fitting behavior to the conditions and requirements of the current stage (Tushman, Newman, and Romanelli, 1986). An obvious example is knowing when to introduce policies, procedures, and systems into a loosely knit, entrepreneurial firm. Too early, and growth may be stifled; too late, and the organization may already have spun out of control.

Unlike autonomous processes, induced processes do not occur naturally but must be created. All planned change efforts therefore fall into this category. While they are triggered in different ways, such efforts, once underway, unfold in a predictable sequence. Each step is accompanied by distinctive challenges and tasks, with striking parallels in different theorists' descriptions. Induced change processes are commonly divided into three basic stages (Kanter, Stein, and Jick, 1992). The first is a period of questioning, when the current state is assessed and energy applied to dislodge accepted patterns. The second stage is one of flux, when old ways are partially suspended and new approaches are tested and developed. The third is a period of consolidation, when new attitudes and behaviors become institutionalized and widely adopted. Again, it is critical that managers develop actions appropriate to the current stage and know when it is time to shift to a new stage. Examples of three-part theories include Beckhard and Harris's present state, transition state, and future state; Lewin's and Schein's unfreezing, changing, and refreezing; and Tichy and Devanna's awakening, mobilizing, and reinforcing (Beckhard & Harris, 1987).

We can thus classify change processes on a few simple dimensions: they may be autonomous or induced, and involve slow increment al evolution or alternating periods of stability and revolutionary change. Complete process descriptions also include the precise sequence, duration, and timing of stages, as well as the nature and number of activities and participants at each stage (Abbott, 1990).

4.0 Conclusion

A process view of organizations offers several advantages. First, it provides a disaggregated model of the firm, but does so in ways that make the analysis of implementation more tractable and explicit. Put another way, if organizations are "systems for getting work done," processes provide a fine-grained description of the means. Second, the diagram suggests the intimate connections among different types of processes and the futility of analyzing them in isolation. It is extraordinarily difficult — and, at times, impossible — to understand or alter a single process without first taking account of others on which it depends.

Perhaps most important for managers, a process view of organizations changes the focus of both analysis and action. All too often, managers' first response to problems is to pin responsibility on an individual or department. Yet because processes shape the vast majority of organizational activities, they are frequently the true sources of difficulty. Accountability must therefore shift to a higher level: to those with wide enough spans of control to oversee entire processes. This principle has long been a staple of the quality movement, where it has been applied to operational processes. The preceding arguments suggest that managers need to be equally attentive to administrative, behavioral, and change processes. As a general rule, responsibility for these processes must shift to senior members of the firm.

Approaches to organization design must change as well. Most texts on the subject focus on tasks and structures, with detailed discussions of roles, positions, levels, and reporting relationships. They say relatively little about processes or about how the work actually gets done. The implicit argument seems to be that organization design is largely a matter of architecture: drawing the right boxes and connecting them appropriately. A process perspective suggests that far more attention should be paid to organizational functioning, and that design efforts should begin by attending to processes and only later should shift to the structures needed to accommodate them.

Finally, this approach suggests that managers are continually enmeshed in organizational processes. The result is a delicate balancing act. On the one hand, managers are constrained by the processes they face, forced to work within their boundaries and preestab-lished steps to get things done. On the other hand, they try to influence and alter these processes to gain advantage. This continual shifting from "statesman" to "gamesman" is what makes management such a challenging task. It also suggests another, quite different use of the word *processes.*

5.0 Summary
The three major approaches to organizational processes have much in common (see "An Organizational Processes Framework"). Each views processes as collections of activities, involving many people that unfold over time. Each involves repeated, predictable sequences or patterns. And each takes a holistic approach, grouping individual activities and decisions in coherent, logical ways. The latter quality is especially important because it suggests that processes provide managers with a powerful integrating device, a way of meshing specialized, segmented tasks with larger organizational needs. Despite these similarities, the three types of processes capture different organizational phenomena and are best viewed as complementary pieces of a larger puzzle. They can, in fact, be combined into a single framework that includes both cross-sectional and dynamic elements

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
1. Expatiate on the process of organization

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<p style="text-align:center">UNIT 3
THEORIES OF ORGANIZATION</p>

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

As people implemented organizations over time, many researchers have experimented as to which organizational theory fits them best. Ordinarily, scholars have asserted that the theories of organizations include Bureaucracy, Rationalization (Scientific Management), and the Division of Labor. Each theory provides distinct advantages and disadvantages when implemented, however, in this unit, we shall look at the theories of organization in three different epochs- the classical, neoclassical and modern. In the course of this unit, many theories will be unfolded and discussed.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will firmly discuss
i. the various theories of organization

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Theories of Organization

Organizational theories which explain the organization and its structure can be broadly classified as classical or modern.

3.2 The Classical organization theory

Classical organization theories (Taylor, 1947; Weber, 1947; Fayol, 1949) deal with the formal organization and concepts to increase management efficiency. Taylor presented scientific management concepts, Weber gave the bureaucratic approach, and Fayol developed the administrative theory of the organization. They all contributed significantly to the development of classical organization theory.

Taylor's scientific management approach

The scientific management approach developed by Taylor is based on the concept of planning of work to achieve efficiency, standardization, specialization and simplification. Acknowledging that the approach to increased productivity was through mutual trust between management and workers, Taylor suggested that, to increase this level of trust,

☐ the advantages of productivity improvement should go to workers,
☐ physical stress and anxiety should be eliminated as much as possible,
☐ capabilities of workers should be developed through training, and
☐ the traditional 'boss' concept should be eliminated.

Taylor developed the following four principles of scientific management for improving productivity:

☐ *Science, not rule-of-thumb* Old rules-of-thumb should be supplanted by a scientific approach to each element of a person's work.

☐ *Scientific selection of the worker* Organizational members should be selected based on some analysis, and then trained, taught and developed.

☐ *Management and labour cooperation rather than conflict* Management should collaborate with all organizational members so that all work can be done in conformity with the scientific principles developed.

☐ *Scientific training of the worker* Workers should be trained by experts, using scientific methods.

Weber's bureaucratic approach

Considering the organization as a segment of broader society, Weber (1947) based the concept of the formal organization on the following principles:

☐ *Structure* In the organization, positions should be arranged in a hierarchy, each with a particular, established amount of responsibility and authority.

☐ *Specialization* Tasks should be distinguished on a functional basis, and then separated according to specialization, each having a separate chain of command.

☐ *Predictability and stability* The organization should operate according to a system of procedures consisting of formal rules and regulations.

☐ *Rationality* Recruitment and selection of personnel should be impartial.

☐ *Democracy* Responsibility and authority should be recognized by designations and not by persons.

Weber's theory is infirm on account of dysfunctions (Hicks and Gullett, 1975) such as rigidity, impersonality, displacement of objectives, limitation of categorization, self-perpetuation and empire building, cost of controls, and anxiety to improve status.

Administrative theory

The elements of administrative theory (Fayol, 1949) relate to accomplishment of tasks, and include principles of management, the concept of line and staff, committees and functions of management.

☐ **Division of work or specialization:** This increases productivity in both technical and managerial work.

☐ *Authority and responsibility:* These are imperative for an organizational member to accomplish the organizational objectives.

☐ **Discipline***:* Members of the organization should honour the objectives of the organization. They should also comply with the rules and regulations of the organization.

☐ **Unity of command***:* This means taking orders from and being responsible to only one superior.

☐ **Unity of direction:** Members of the organization should jointly work toward the same goals.

☐ **Subordination of individual interest to general interest:** The interest of the organization should not become subservient to individual interests or the interest of a group of employees.

☐ **Remuneration of personnel**: This can be based on diverse factors such as time, job, piece rates, bonuses, profit-sharing or non-financial rewards.

☐ **Centralization***:* Management should use an appropriate blend of both centralization and de-centralization of authority and decision making.

☐ **Scalar chain:** If two members who are on the same level of hierarchy have to work together to accomplish a project, they need not follow the hierarchy level, but can interact with each other on a 'gang plank' if acceptable to the higher officials.

Order: The organization has a place for everything and everyone who ought to be so engaged.

 Equity Fairness, justice and equity should prevail in the organization.

 Stability of tenure of personnel: Job security improves performance. An employee requires some time to get used to new work and do it well.

 Initiative: This should be encouraged and stimulated.

 Esprit de corps: Pride, allegiance and a sense of belonging are essential for good performance. Union is strength.

 The concept of line and staff: The concept of line and staff is relevant in organizations which are large and require specialization of skill to achieve organizational goals. Line personnel are those who work directly to achieve organizational goals. Staff personnel include those whose basic function is to support and help line personnel.

 Committees: Committees are part of the organization. Members from the same or different hierarchical levels from different departments can form committees around a common goal. They can be given different functions, such as managerial, decision making, recommending or policy formulation. Committees can take diverse forms, such as boards, commissions, task groups or *ad hoc* committees. Committees can be further divided according to their functions. In agricultural research organizations, committees are formed for research, staff evaluation or even allocation of land for experiments.

 Functions of management: Fayol (1949) considered management as a set of planning, organizing, training, commanding and coordinating functions. Gulick and Urwick (1937) also considered organization in terms of management functions such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

3.3 The Neoclassical theory

Neoclassical theorists recognized the importance of individual or group behaviour and emphasized human relations. Based on the Hawthorne experiments, the neoclassical approach emphasized social or human relationships among the operators, researchers and supervisors (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1943). It was argued that these considerations were more consequential in determining productivity than mere changes in working conditions. Productivity increases were achieved as a result of high morale, which was influenced by the amount of individual, personal and intimate attention workers received.

Principles of the neoclassical approach

The classical approach stressed the formal organization. It was mechanistic and ignored major aspects of human nature. In contrast, the neoclassical approach introduced an informal organization structure and emphasized the following principles:

□ *The individual* An individual is not a mechanical tool but a distinct social being, with aspirations beyond mere fulfilment of a few economic and security works. Individuals differ from each other in pursuing these desires. Thus, an individual should be recognized as interacting with social and economic factors.

□ *The work group* The neoclassical approach highlighted the social facets of work groups or informal organizations that operate within a formal organization. The concept of 'group' and its synergistic benefits were considered important.

□ *Participative management* Participative management or decision making permits workers to participate in the decision making process. This was a new form of management to ensure increases in productivity.

Note the difference between Taylor's 'scientific management' - which focuses on work - and the neoclassical approach - which focuses on workers.

3.4 The Modern theories

Modern theories tend to be based on the concept that the organization is a system which has to adapt to changes in its environment. In modern theory, an organization is defined as a designed and structured process in which individuals interact for objectives (Hicks and Gullet, 1975). The contemporary approach to the organization is multidisciplinary, as many scientists from different fields have contributed to its development, emphasizing the dynamic nature of communication and importance of integration of individual and organizational interests. These were subsequently re-emphasized by Bernard (1938) who gave the first modern and comprehensive view of management. Subsequently, conclusions on systems control gave insight into application of cybernetics. The operation research approach was suggested in 1940. It utilized the contributions of several disciplines in problem solving. Von Bertalanffy (1951) made a significant contribution by suggesting a component of general systems theory which is accepted as a basic premise of modern theory.

Some of the notable characteristics of the modern approaches to the organization are:

□ a systems viewpoint,
□ a dynamic process of interaction,
□ multilevelled and multidimensional,
□ multimotivated,

☐ probabilistic,
☐ multidisciplinary,
☐ descriptive,
☐ multivariable, and
☐ adaptive.

Modern understandings of the organization can be broadly classified into:

☐ the systems approach,
☐ socio-technical theory, and
☐ a contingency or situational approach.

The systems approach

The systems approach views organization as a system composed of interconnected - and thus mutually dependent - sub-systems. These sub-systems can have their own sub-sub-systems. A system can be perceived as composed of some components, functions and processes (Albrecht, 1983). Thus, the organization consists of the following three basic elements (Bakke, 1959):

(i) *Components* There are five basic, interdependent parts of the organizing system, namely:

☐ the individual,
☐ the formal and informal organization,
☐ patterns of behaviour emerging from role demands of the organization,
☐ role comprehension of the individual, and
☐ the physical environment in which individuals work.

(ii) *Linking processes* The different components of an organization are required to operate in an organized and correlated manner. The interaction between them is contingent upon the linking processes, which consist of communication, balance and decision making.

☐ *Communication* is a means for eliciting action, exerting control and effecting coordination to link decision centres in the system in a composite form.

☐ *Balance* is the equilibrium between different parts of the system so that they keep a harmoniously structured relationship with one another.

Decision analysis is also considered to be a linking process in the systems approach. Decisions may be to produce or participate in the system. Decision to produce depends upon the attitude of the individual and the demands of the organization. Decision to participate refers to the individual's decisions to engross themselves in the organization process. That depends on what they get and what they are expected to do in participative decision making.

(iii) *Goals of organization* The goals of an organization may be growth, stability and interaction. Interaction implies how best the members of an organization can interact with one another to their mutual advantage.

Socio-technical approach

It is not just job enlargement and enrichment which is important, but also transforming technology into a meaningful tool in the hands of the users. The socio-technical systems approach is based on the premise that every organization consists of the people, the technical system and the environment (Pasmore, 1988). People (the social system) use tools, techniques and knowledge (the technical system) to produce goods or services valued by consumers or users (who are part of the organization's external environment). Therefore, an equilibrium among the social system, the technical system and the environment is necessary to make the organization more effective.

The contingency or situational approach

The situational approach (Selznick, 1949; Burns and Stalker, 1961; Woodward, 1965; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) is based on the belief that there cannot be universal guidelines which are suitable for all situations. Organizational systems are inter-related with the environment. The contingency approach (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1973) suggests that different environments require different organizational relationships for optimum effectiveness, taking into consideration various social, legal, political, technical and economic factors.

4.0 Conclusion
Any discourse on the theories of organization is usually critical because scholars have hardly agreed on what constitute the theories of organization. This is why we find the epochal grouping approach appealing and thus adopted it for this unit, with every conviction that it is for the best of the students.

5.0 Summary
In this unit, we examined many ways of studying an organization, especially the formal organization. But to be scholarly, we looked at it from the three epoch perspective of classical, neoclassical and modern theories of organization.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
1. Discuss the theories of organizations under the classical epoch
2. Discuss the theories of organizations under the neoclassical era
3. What are the modern theories of organization?

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UNIT 4
THE CONCEPT OF MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Public Administration, management has acquired a distinct conceptual significance. Management is a cooperative endeavour for achieving a particular objective. It implies, therefore, that every organisation, public or private, governmental or business which aims at achieving a particular objective must have a well established management. In the modern welfare state, the government undertakes several activities for achieving the greatest good of the greatest number, and as such, its managerial field is constantly on the increase. The success or failure of administration depends largely on how well the government is in a position to manage programmes of public welfare. In the words of Dr. Appleby, "The heart of administration is the management of programmes designed to serve the general welfare." Dr. Appleby's contention is correct particularly in a developing democracy like Nigeria, where planned economy has been geared up to attain our cherished goal of becoming amongst the world best economies by the year 2020.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to explain the:
• Meaning of management
• Nature of management
• Task of management
• Value of management
• Test of good management
• Type of management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 The Meaning of Management

The term Management is applied in different ways and to a number of important ideas vital to the study of business administration. Management is a difficult concept to define. It is a concept so exceedingly complex that writers often define the term on a working basis, according to their own needs and purposes. However, in public administration the term has acquired a distinct conceptual importance. It is considered complementary to organization – the anatomy of administration. In this sense, it represents the physiology of administration. If organization represents the static or structural aspects of administration, the management represents its dynamic aspects.

The two words, are therefore, used in combination – organisation and Management. In fact both are complementary to each other. Neither of the two exits in isolation. If organisation is the apparatus of administration, management signifies the running of it. If organisation signifies the overall structure, management is the process for achieving the goal of the structure. Seckler Hudson has correctly portrayed the distinction between these words, "In this volume organisation will be regarded as the division and unification of effort towards some goal or policy. Management will be regarded as the collective utilisation of human resources and material in an effort to reach the known goal".

Millett defines management as "The process of directing and facilitating the work of people organised in formal groups to achieve a desired goal". In essence management is the means of ensuring performance of any undertaking. It aims at utilising limited resources to accomplish maximum output with speed and efficiency. Millet is of the opinion that "Public Administration is an instrument for the exercise of political power". In the words of Terry, "Management is the accomplishment of predetermined objective through the efforts of other people". A manager should therefore, possess the qualities of putting things together and getting the work done rather than having the capacity to do it him/herself. If he/she has it, it is good but it is not a substitute for his/her techniques of getting the work done especially as management is a process of achieving a desired goal.

It is not the doing of things but getting them done. In the above concept of management, the following characteristics may be noted:
i. Management is a process of organised activities.
ii. The organised activities are directed towards an objective or set of objective.
iii. The goal-oriented organised activities establish relationships among the available resources which include materials, money and people in the organisation.
iv. Management involves working through other to accomplish the desired objectives.
v. Management involves decisions to get things done by others.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
1 Explain what management means.

3.2 The Nature of Management
In a large-scale organisation hierarchical pattern is adopted. At the top management is run by an elite termed as managers or directors. Hence, it is called top-management while the

middle management and rank and file constitute the next rung of the hierarchical ladder. Some of the main features of management reflecting its nature are:

i. University of Management Process This means that the functions of management are common to all types of administration, public or private, large scale or small scale. Management is that type of skill which can be changed from one field of administration to another. It is on this belief that there is a growing trend towards the transfer of personal from public to private field, from one country to another, one department to another. The long-held concept of **POSDCORB** is equally applicable to all the administrative system, and *vice-versa.*

ii. Management is a Collective Activity/Team-Work
Management is not the task of one person. It is a collective endeavour of so many persons. It is a group of persons who exercise jointly the authority and the responsibility for group activity. It exists in the whole of organisation. In the words of Fayal 1949, management is neither an exclusive privilege nor a particular responsibility of the head of senior members of the business; it is an activity spread, like all other activities, between head and members of the corporate body. It is thus, present at different hierarchical levels of authorities with different and responsibilities.

iii. Management as a Profession Management has been described as a profession. A profession has been defined as "a call in which one professes to have acquired specialised knowledge which is used in instructing, guiding or advising others. At present, the managerial class fulfills these conditions. However, full professionalism is impossible.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
2 What are the main features of management?

3.3 The Tasks of Management
It is very difficult to exactly state the tasks of management. Gullick summed up the task of management in his snappy anagram or acronym thus, **POSDCORB** – planning, organising, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. According to Terry, the four fundamental function of management are: planning, organising, actuating and controlling. To Fayal, this process involves planning, organising co-coordinating and controlling. Seckler Hudson on the other hand has a more comprehensive view which includes in this process policy formation, locating and utilizing authority, planning, organisation, budgeting, staging, operating, reporting, leading, directing and controlling.

Millett divides the function of management into two forms. In the first comes a function which is the peculiar problems of the organization of which the management has to direct. He called this function, "the substantive tasks of Management". For example, the substantive tasks of the Finance department are to prepare budget and present it before the legislature. The second functions, according to Millett, are technical in nature and are common to all administration, for instance, planning, operating, staffing and directing. Millett classifies the technical functions into the following three heads:

(i) Work direction, which includes the problem of leadership, supervision, planning and public relations.

(ii) Work operation, in which he puts organization, human relations, budget, fiscal control, essentials of personnel policy, etc.

(iii) Internal service, which includes problems of capital, plant, supply and disposals. The best way to sum up the task of management is to confine our attention on leadership, policy formation, decision-making, planning, supervision, communication, delegation, co-ordination and public Relation.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
3 Explain the tasks of management according to Gullick, Terry, Fayal, Seckler Hudson, and Millet.

3.4 The Values of Management
To a few people, the principal concern of management is effectiveness, or efficiency, in the operation of an enterprise. Lather Gullick has spoken of efficiency as "the single ultimate value in administration". Herbert Simon has been much concerned to demonstrate that rational behaviour in administration is primarily a calculative means reasonably expected to realise a given end. Waldo has pointed out that economy and efficiency have been the twin beacons which have guided administrative reformers and writers in America. But what is this term except that in scientific analysis, efficiency is measured in terms of output in proportion to input. But what is input in management? In brief, we can say that input in management is the quantity of men, money and material applied in the working of an organisation. If these factors are out together in the right proportions, efficiency of an organisation is ensured. Management, therefore, aims at fixing the right proportions of these factors with a view to better production.

But can we regard efficiency in its most wooden form as the basic value of management? Should we agree with Simon that knowledge of administration, like all knowledge, is a moral? Waldo has been critical of this view putting his objective succinctly through arguing, "We hold that efficiency cannot itself be a value" but pointed out that efficiency is concerned with relationships and that it must therefore be defined in terms of some purpose or end. Dahl has argued that the "Student of Public administration cannot avoid a concern with ends". He claimed that no science of administration could be possible until the place of normative values was made clear.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
4 What is input in management?

3.5 Tests of Good Management According to Gullick, the true goals of management are to make the conduct of affairs technically sound, politically responsible, publicly acceptable, progressively approved, and socially constructive. Millett postulates the following test of management:

i. **Satisfactory service:** This means fair and equitable service, i.e. equal treatment to citizens of the administration.
ii. **Timely Service:** This indicates that for service to be effective, it must be well timed.
iii. **Ample Service:** It indicates the right quantity at the right time and at the right place.
iv. **Continued Service:** That is, service unobstructed by rain, snow, sunshine or nocturnal darkness.
v. **Progressive Service:** it means a service which improves in quality and performance.
vi. **Responsible Performance:** That is the management provides direction for administrative effort by working with and through those institutional devices which exists to express the will of a democratic society.
vii. **Participative Management:** Participative Management is the current phrase used in management circles. It means participation of the employees in decision-making. It is a part of democratic leadership in organisation and human factor in administration.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
5 Explain the true goals of management according to Gulick.

3.6 Types of Management
The organisation of a large-scale body falls into three well defined zones:
1. Top management
2. Middle management, and
3. The rank and file.
In fact, no hard and fast line of demarcation can be drawn between them. However, their levels of work and responsibility are well marked atleast in Great Britain and in Nigeria. In Great Britain for instance, administrative service constitutes the top management, the executive service comprises the middle management and the clerical service forms the rank and file. In Nigeria too, the demarcation is not so well defined yet it may be said that the Nigerian Administrative and class/service constitute the top and the class II and other field officers comprises the middle management.

1. Top Management Top management comprises of political and administrative personal. In Nigeria, for example, political top management is represented by ministers, ministers of state and deputy ministers. Administrative top management is composed of secretaries, joint secretaries and deputy secretaries.
Functions of Top Management Top management is mainly concerned with direction and control. Direction means providing for the right kind of action. Control means looking towards the attainment of accountability for and execution of a policy. These two simple words are, in fact, meaningful; Direction includes planning, co-coordinating, and

programming. Control involves organisation, supervision, documentation, and reporting. Certain functions entrusted to top management involve both direction and control.

The Following are Some of the Important Functions of the Top Management

(i)   It performs managerial functions of direction and control.

(ii)   It prepares notes, reports and information required for the press, the public and the legislature.

(iii)   It furnishes the minister with all sorts of information required or likely to be required by him/her.

(iv)   It provides the legislative information asked by it through interpellations, short notice questions and its committees

(v)   It is to gather information which ministers require to supply to the legislature, the pressure groups, his/her party men/women and the constituency. Such information appears in the form of press communiqués, reports and circulars.

(vi)   It has to supply information regarding legal matters pending in the law courts. Questions of legal authority, cases before the courts, perplexities of inter-agency co-ordination and problems of public opinion all complicate the task"

(vii)   It serves as a coordinating body for inter or intra-departmental agencies.

(viii) It serves as a link between the cabinet and the civil services.

(ix)   It coordinates the activities of the various departments, commissions, boards and divisions.

(x)   It has to assimilate the activities and energies of various technical agencies into general administrative business of the state.

(xi)   It shares with the political head the functions of thinking and planning.

(xii)   It pays attention to such requirements of effective public management as cannot be attended to by political leadership, viz, preservation and continuity of administration and the recognition of administrative principles.

Qualities of Top Management

The top management which is required to perform such important functions is expected to be an embodiment of the following:

i. Open mindedness, with the ability to see all sides of a question

ii. Vision

iii. Imagination and drive

iv. A capacious intellect

v. A wide experience of men and affairs

B. Middle Management and Structure

Middle Management, with a few exceptions covers bureau chiefs division and section heads and other intermediate grades and the departmental auxiliary agencies. Thus budget and accounting officers, purchasing officers, personnel officers, procedures experts, public relation officers, liaison officers, the managers of public institutions and their subordinate staff, etc, comprise middle management. In Nigeria there is not even one service performing middle managerial functions. Each ministry is manned by it's own service recruited on different principles and under different conditions. Despite such

diversity, there is one common factor to be traced in all such services, for example, they are recruited by the civil service commissions under specific rules and set standards. Branch officers commonly known as under secretaries, section officers, heads of attached and subordinate offices of field establishments, head of departmental auxiliary agencies constitute middle management in Nigeria.

Functions of Middle Management

Dr. White well described the main functions of middle management in this word. "The normal task of middle management is to supervise, direct, and control the performance of business within the scope of law, policy and regulations already established". These are matters vital to good administration. However, the functions of middle management can be broken down as:

i. Advice: The main function of the middle management is to render advice to the political head as the middle managers have the substantial knowledge of their organisation. The mass of information transmitted to the head of department is the production of the middle management. As such, the middle management gives advice on policy and management. Middle managers have the primary duty to assist their principals to work out programmes and to advice them on various problems that may arise in the course of practical application.

ii. Programme Planning: Another function of middle management is programming. Though middle management is not responsible for the information of administrative policy – the task of top management, yet it is directly concerned with the programmes and departmental planning. In the process, it modifies the details to make the policy formulated workable. Hence, F.M Marx remarks, "The middle manager is always a policy maker". To this end, he conceives the middle manager as someone who "Not only takes part in policy formulation by translating strategy into tactics, but also tracks out top determination into line activities. He frames the operating policies under his/her own responsibility. He/she is also a policy maker indirectly, implicitly or explicitly".

iii. Policy Making: Besides giving advice to top level executives, and programme planning, the middle manager also plays an important role in policy making, he/she modifies the details, if not the principles of the policy, to make it practical and workable.

iv. Control and Direction of Operations: Another main concern of the middle management is the control and direction of operation to get the job. Control and direction of operations extend all the way from the beginning, i.e., planning stage to the completion point. In the control and direction of operations the middle managers remain very alert and have to use different tactics.

v. Supervision: Skillful supervision runs through the entire organisation. Each superior supervisor supervises his/her immediate subordinates. The middle managers have to be skillful supervisors. The lower levels supervise the rank and file while the higher supervise the lower levels and assist them in their supervising duties. Here the art of supervision finds its natural home. The burdens of specific supervision increase from level to level downwards.

C. Rank and File Management:
Included among the rank and file management is the clerical service which forms the operative part of an organisation. This service is classified into different groups and classes such as lower division clerk, upper division clerk, assistant, deputy superintendent, superintendent. etc. They initiate a file, make a summary of the case, i.e. rules, and put up the file to the middle management for necessary action.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What are the types of management that constitute the Nigerian administrative hierarchy?

4.0 CONCLUSION
Management is applied in different ways and to a number of important ideas vital to the study of business administration. Management is a difficult concept to define. It is a concept so exceedingly complex that writers often define the term on a working basis, according to their own needs and purposes. Also discussed in this unit is the meaning of Management as well as the distinction between the meaning and relationship of public administration. The nature and functions of management have been looked into as well, etc. therefore, given the above; it is obvious that middle management is very important. Therefore, more attention should be given to it especially now that the political command of the country depends upon it.

5.0 SUMMARY
Paul H. Appleby had summed up the whole analysis in these words, "The heart of administration is the management of programmes designed to serve the general welfare". His contention is correct particularly for a developing democracy like Nigeria where planned economy has been geared up to attain our cherished vision of becoming economically vibrant by the year 2020.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Define Management, and Make a distinction between Management and Organisation.
2. Define 'Efficiency. 3. Write on the nature of Management.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
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UNIT 5
PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

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CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 The nature of Management Principles
3.2 The Principles of Management
3.3 Validity of Principles of Management
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 Introduction
Having discussed the meaning, nature, task, value and types of management in the preceding unit, we have watered the ground for enhanced comprehensibility of the principles of management, bearing in mind that these principle serve as guide to managerial actions.

2.0 Objectives
At the end of this unit, the students are expected to appreciate
  i.   The nature of management principles
  ii. The principles of Management
  iii. The validity of the principles of management

3.0 Main Content
3.1 The nature of Management Principles
As stated earlier, principles of management are guides for managerial actions. A management principle is a statement of a general truth about organizations or management. Principles of management may be thought of as the laws of fundamental truths of organizations and management. Principles usually prescribe a particular course of managerial action.
Inherent in a principle of management is the implication that if the principle is followed, improved organizational performance will likely result. Similarly, a management principle implies that if the principle is not followed, organizational performance probably will suffer.

Although management principles are generally valid, they sometimes fail to indicate the best course of managerial action. Principles of management are not so exact or infallible like the principles of physical sciences because they have to do with human behaviour

3.2 The Principles of Management
The Principles of Management are the essential, underlying factors that form the foundations of successful management. The first principles of management were offered by Henri Fayol, a French industrialist, in 1916. Fayol offered fourteen principles of management that he had found useful in his career as an executive hence a managing director of a large mining and steel company for many years. Below is the summary of Henri Fayol's 14 principles of management:

1. Division of Work
In practice, employees are specialized in different areas and they have different skills. Different levels of expertise can be distinguished within the knowledge areas (from generalist to specialist). Personal and professional developments support this. According to Henri Fayol specialization promotes efficiency of the workforce and increases productivity. In addition, the specialization of the workforce increases their accuracy and speed. This management principle of the 14 principles of management is applicable to both technical and managerial activities.

2. Authority and Responsibility
In order to get things done in an organization, management has the authority to give orders to the employees. Of course with this authority comes responsibility. According to Henri Fayol, the accompanying power or authority gives the management the right to give orders to the subordinates. The responsibility can be traced back from performance and it is therefore necessary to make agreements about this. In other words, authority and responsibility go together and they are two sides of the same coin.

3. Discipline
This third principle of the 14 principles of management is about obedience. It is often a part of the core values of a mission and vision in the form of good conduct and respectful interactions. This management principle is essential and is seen as the oil to make the engine of an organization run smoothly.

4. Unity of Command
The management principle 'Unity of command' means that an individual employee should receive orders from one manager and that the employee is answerable to that manager. If tasks and related responsibilities are given to the employee by more than one manager, this may lead to confusion which may lead to possible conflicts for employees. By using this principle, the responsibility for mistakes can be established more easily.

5. Unity of Direction
This management principle of the 14 principles of management is all about focus and unity. All employees deliver the same activities that can be linked to the same objectives. All activities must be carried out by one group that forms a team. These activities must be described in a plan of action. The manager is ultimately responsible for this plan and he

monitors the progress of the defined and planned activities. Focus areas are the efforts made by the employees and coordination.

6. Subordination of Individual Interest

There are always all kinds of interests in an organization. In order to have an organization function well, Henri Fayol indicated that personal interests are subordinate to the interests of the organization (ethics). The primary focus is on the organizational objectives and not on those of the individual. This applies to all levels of the entire organization, including the managers.

7. Remuneration

Motivation and productivity are close to one another as far as the smooth running of an organization is concerned. This management principle of the 14 principles of management argues that the remuneration should be sufficient to keep employees motivated and productive. There are two types of remuneration namely non-monetary (a compliment, more responsibilities, credits) and monetary (compensation, bonus or other financial compensation). Ultimately, it is about rewarding the efforts that have been made.

8. The Degree of Centralization

Management and authority for decision-making process must be properly balanced in an organization. This depends on the volume and size of an organization including its hierarchy. Centralization implies the concentration of decision making authority at the top management (executive board). Sharing of authorities for the decision-making process with lower levels (middle and lower management), is referred to as decentralization by Henri Fayol. Henri Fayol indicated that an organization should strive for a good balance in this.

9. Scalar Chain

Hierarchy presents itself in any given organization. This varies from senior management (executive board) to the lowest levels in the organization. Henri Fayol 's "hierarchy" management principle states that there should be a clear line in the area of authority (from top to bottom and all managers at all levels). This can be seen as a type of management structure. Each employee can contact a manager or a superior in an emergency situation without challenging the hierarchy. Especially, when it concerns reports about calamities to the immediate managers/superiors.

10. Order

According to this principle of the 14 principles of management, employees in an organization must have the right resources at their disposal so that they can function properly in an organization. In addition to social order (responsibility of the managers) the work environment must be safe, clean and tidy.

11. Equity

The management principle of equity often occurs in the core values of an organization.

According to Henri Fayol, employees must be treated kindly and equally. Employees must be in the right place in the organization to do things right. Managers should supervise and monitor this process and they should treat employees fairly and impartially.

12. Stability of Tenure of Personnel
This management principle of the 14 principles of management represents deployment and managing of personnel and this should be in balance with the service that is provided from the organization. Management strives to minimize employee turnover and to have the right staff in the right place. Focus areas such as frequent change of position and sufficient development must be managed well.

13. Initiative
Henri Fayol argued that with this management principle employees should be allowed to express new ideas. This encourages interest and involvement and creates added value for the company. Employee initiatives are a source of strength for the organization according to Henri Fayol. This encourages the employees to be involved and interested.

14. Esprit de Corps
The management principle 'esprit de corps' of the 14 principles of management stands for striving for the involvement and unity of the employees. Managers are responsible for the development of morale in the workplace; individually and in the area of communication. Esprit de corps contributes to the development of the culture and creates an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding.

Management and organization since the day of Henri Fayol have greatly evolved such that couple of these principles that served great organizational efficiency purposes then may no longer sustain such tempo if they have not lost value entirely, thus, other principles of management have emerged to complement those of Heri Fayol. Thus, Hicks and Gullet (1981) present what they termed "other principles of management:
  i. **Harmony of Objective:** the most effective organizational performance is attained when all persons or units of the organization work towards an objective that is harmonious.
  ii. **Universality:** The functions of management are essentially the same regardless of the tasks of the organization or the level of management. It follows that managerial skills are transferable from one organization to another
  iii. **Primacy of Objective and Planning:** Formulation of objectives is a prerequisite step if the organization is to accomplish its goals in an orderly, rational manner. Planning is the process by which objectives are formulated and approaches are selected for accomplishing objectives. Planning must precede organizing, motivating, and controlling in the sequence of management functions. Therefore, objectives and planning are primary concepts for rational management.

iv. **Control by exception:** management supervision and correction control are concentrated on the exceptional activities which are not operating according to plans. Activities performing as planned are handled routinely by subordinates.

v. **Decision by exception:** a manager should make decisions on all matters except those which he/she does not have sufficient authority. Matters for which the manager does not have sufficient authority are decided upon by committee or higher management.

vi. **Balance:** Stability in the organization requires that authority, power, responsibility, and accountability be balanced. If any of these factors is out of balance with respect to others, the organiastion will be under pressure to restore the balances. Continued imbalance will cause resentment, hostility, friction, and strife. Serious imbalance can threaten the continued existence of the organization.

vii. **Coordination:** the principle of coordination explains that effective organizational performance is achieved when all persons and resources are synchronized, balanced and given direction. Without coordination, nonproductive random activity will result. Thus, one of the primary duties of the manager is to achieve coordination in the organization.

3.3 Validity of Principles of Management

Proper use of management principles probably improves organizational performance. In other words, a manager who correctly employs available principles has a relatively high likelihood of realizing effective or improved organizational performance. On the other hand, the manager might fail to take advantage of accumulated knowledge about organizations and management, as expressed in statements of principles. This manager will be at disadvantage when compared with a manager who is expert in applying management principles. The uninformed manager, if successful, must overcome these deficiencies through excellence in other areas.

Management principles should be viewed as being valid for most organizations under most circumstances. The principles used in the field of management generally are not comparable to the principles used in the field of physical sciences. In the physical science field, for practical purposes, principles are almost always valid. But even in the physical sciences, principles are often not universally meaningful. For example, it was thought for many years that the laws of motion developed by Isaac Newton were "the last word". However, Eisntein later showed that Newton's law were not valid for describing some important motions of the body moving through space.

But it is not necessary that a principle be valid for every conceivable circumstance every time. It is quite enough that a principle be valid most of the time, and for most circumstances. Because the principles described in the chapter satisfy the condition of being valid most of the time, they are valuable aids for managerial use. It remains the

manager's job to use judgment in determining when to apply a certain principle. And the odds are favourable when pertinent principles of management are included in the managerial tool kit.

4.0 Conclusion
The principles of management can be used to manage organizations and are useful tools for forecasting, planning, process management, organization management, decision-making, coordination and control. Although they are obvious, many of these matters are still used based on common sense in current management practices in organizations. It remains a practical list with focus areas that are based on Henri Fayol 's research which still applies today due to a number of logical principles. An addition of those of Hicks and Gullet will make a formidable list of principles of management.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, we have shown how important the principles of management are as Henri Fayol developed 14 of them as far back as 1916 and Hicks and Gullet equally added their to the list in 1981. Therefore, this unit reveals an exhausted list on the principles of management from the very best in the field.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
1. Discuss the 14 principles of management by Henri Fayol
2. Discuss the other principles of management by Hicks and Gullet
3. Discuss the validity of management principles

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MODULE 5
Unit 1 -Evolution of Public Administration in Nigeria
Unit 2 -Ecology of the Nigerian Public Administration
Unit 3 -The Nigerian Civil Service
Unit 4 -Public Service Reforms in Nigeria
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UNIT 1
EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA
CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
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3.1 Administration in Traditional Society
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1.0 INTRODUCTION
In this unit, you will come to know about how public administration in Nigeria evolved and how it has developed overtime. Recall some of those basics of public administration you came across in previous units, some of the concepts will be applied in your understanding of the development of public administration in Nigeria. What we shall be doing in this unit therefore is an examination of public administration in traditional society in Nigeria. You will also learn about the history and development of modern civil service in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss the evolution of public administration in Nigeria
• examine the development of modern Nigerian Civil Service.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Administration in Traditional Society
Public administration existed in traditional society in Nigeria although in a limited scope. Goals were identified, human and material resources were allocated, and policy objectives were pursued. The function of administration then were simple, e.g. the declaration of wars (especially

inter-tribal wars); the taking and implementing of decisions on the migration and resettlement of tribesmen; the coordination of hunting and pastoral activities; the construction of shrines, palaces and communal wells; the exaction and collection of tributes; the construction of fortresses and embankments; the maintenance of public order; and the settlement of family and other disputes (Balogun, 1983).

According to Balogun (1983) except in societies wholly governed by Islamic religious and political doctrine, in no other society in Nigeria did emerge a coherent philosophy of government and public administration.

There were forces that shape traditional public administration and give it a distinctive character of its own. Balogun identified at least five such forces.

Let us examine them one after the other.

The Ritualistic Feature
Ritualistic feature may be found in a society where the rationalist or empiricist tradition in science governs behavior, decisions, even in a situation of uncertainty, will tend to be based on formal, deductive reasoning or on observed facts. Where religion and rituals colour a people's view of the world, decisions are likely to be left in the hands of supernatural agents. This was the case in many traditional societies of Nigeria. Thus a decision concerning guilt or innocence, at a time when the facts are not clear, is left to an oracle, a powerful spirit. At another time, a decision may be left in abeyance in the hope that some ancestral or other spirits will exact the necessary retribution.

The role of ceremonies and rituals in traditional systems of cooperative action is reflected in matters pertaining to the investiture and coronation of important traditional rulers. When a ruler departs to join his ancestors, this event is marked by sacrifices of various kinds and by incantations aimed at propitiating the departed soul and the ancestral spirits. The same process of offering sacrifices and reciting incantations is repeated when a new ruler is about to ascend the throne, the idea being to ensure a joyous and trouble free reign. If on assumption of office, a disaster looms on the horizon, the ruler and his subjects have an obligation to carry out necessary ceremonies and offer whatever sacrifices are prescribed by the priests. If, in spite of all these, a calamity actually befalls the society, the ritualistic process is either repeated or speeded up, or the 'good fortune' of the ruler is called into question. More often than not, what tend to come up for review in the event of a persistent wave of disaster are the adequacy of the offerings and/or the comprehensiveness of the ritual.

The ritualistic orientation may not be appropriate to the needs and challenges of a technological age, but it certainly served the purposes of traditional societies. Thus by 'canonising' certain social customs, mores and beliefs, and by making these collective values part of the traditional man's personality, the rituals sustained traditional authority and held together what would have been anarchic societies (Balogun, 1983:60).

The Existential-Terrestrial Pull

Existential-terrestrial pull traditional society is the one in which both terrestrial and extra-terrestrial forces collide. The point made above under the ritualistic feature that if sacrifices were offered to inanimate objects it is because they had material impact on the lives of the people concerned. This means that structures and institutions exist in traditional societies to perform particular functions and fulfill certain obligations.

Such obligations and functions might be simple, and might not involve bringing about radical social change. All the same, the obligations had to be fulfilled and the functions performed, otherwise the legitimacy of traditional governmental institutions would be challenged.

The Moralistic Orientation

Moralistic orientation behavior in the traditional society is scarcely classified as 'rational' or 'irrational'. These two terms are alien to the moralistic spirit of the traditional society. The guide to behavior in the society is frequently laid down by religious injunctions and superstitious beliefs. Any behavior that conforms to the socially accepted norms is 'pious' and 'godly' while deviant behavior is not simply heretical but 'sinful' in view of the fact that 'sinful' behavior makes the gods 'angry', society is not likely to compromise with the sinners, but is in fact prone
to prescribe the stiffest punishment.

The Consanguinity Factor

Consanguinity factor in traditional society, kinship (or relationship based on descent, filiations and marriage) plays a vital role in structuring patterns of interpersonal behavior. It serves as an important agent of social control and provides a basis for leadership. Consequently, instead of secondary organisations based on the criteria of 'achievement 'universalism' and 'collectivity orientation', the traditional society tackles the problems confronting it with the aid of primary organizations based on 'astrictive' particularistic' and 'sectional' criteria. While there are few 'craft associations' which specialise in certain occupational areas (e.g. age-grades, secret societies, herbalist associations), the organisation of economic activities in the traditional society is most frequently based on the principle of division of labour according to sex, and according to kinship and blood ties.

The Autocratic Tendencies

An autocratic tendency is the definition of areas of authority and responsibility impose checks and balances within organisations, and therefore helps in structuring the behavior of members. Where the sphere of influence is not clearly defined, only the position-holder's good sense and the occasional challenge to his authority will prevent him from taking autocratic and arbitrary decisions (Balogun, 1983).

Balogun concludes that, the authoritarian tendencies in traditional public administration have a direct bearing on the organisation and functioning of the public service in Nigeria today.

3.2 Development of Modern Nigerian Civil Service

The Nigerian civil service has its remote origin in the amalgamation of the colony and protectorate of northern and southern Nigeria to form the colony and protectorate of Nigeria in 1914. But before the amalgamation of the northern and southern protectorates in 1914 some of administration existed.

According to Maduabum (2006), the roots of the early Nigerian civil service could be traced to 1847 when J. Beecroft was appointed Consul for the Bight of Bonny and Biafra with headquarters in Fernando Po.

The responsibilities of the Consul then were essentially to prosecute legitimate commercial activities and observing commercial treaties.

However, by 1863, the consular jurisdiction of Beecroft and Campbell was exercised over the British subjects through the use of protection of the crown.

Below are the highlights of the evolution of administrative machinery of the Nigerian civil service:

• From 1866 to 1874, the central administration for Lagos, Gold Coast, the Gambia and Sierra Leone was transferred to Freetown, Sierra Leone.

• From 1874 to 1886, Lagos and colony was administered from Gold Coast.

• In 1886, Moloney was appointed Governor of Lagos.

• In 1889, the Niger Coast Protectorate was merged with the territories of the Royal Niger Company.

• On January 1, 1900, the protectorate of southern and northern Nigeria was created.

• In 1906, Lagos Colony was merged with southern Nigeria.

• In 1914, Lagos colony and the southern protectorate were merged with the northern protectorate to form an amalgamated territory called Nigeria. A Governor-General, Sir Frederick Lugard, was thereafter appointed for the amalgamated territory. He was to be assisted by all European Executive Council that had been in existence since 1862 (Maduabum, 2008: 151-152).

• A single civil service was not immediately established for the entire country, rather, the northern and southern segments for the new state continued to be administered separately as before. The administration of northern and southern Nigeria were still placed under two Lieutenant-Governors, each with a secretariat and departmental organisation of its own. The only unifying force was that all the officers were colonial civil servants. It was not until the 1920s that a Nigerian civil service emerged.

• Before 1954, there was only a single civil service in Nigeria as the country was operating a unitary system of government at that time. However, with the introduction of federal constitution in 1954, greater autonomy was conferred on the regions. On the 1st of October, 1954, three regional civil services for the northern, eastern and western regions were created in addition to the federal civil service. When the mid-western region was carved out of the western region on the 9th of August, 1963, a new civil service was also established for the newly created region (Ayeni, 2007:32).

• The creation of twelve states in May, 1967 by the Gowon administration led to the emergence of thirteen civil services in Nigeria.

• In 1976, more states were created by the Murtala/Obasanjo government bringing the states to nineteen states and consequently twenty civil services.
• Twenty-one states and thirty states were created respectively in 1987 and 1991 by Babangida regime and thus leading to the emergence of twenty-two and thirty-one civil services respectively.
• In 1996, the Abacha regime further divided the states into thirty-six and consequently thirty-seven civil services emerged. This has lasted till date.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Discuss the evolution of the Nigerian Civil Service.

4.0 CONCLUSION
From our discussion, we can see that the Nigerian Civil Service is not a creation of modern times but has its roots in the British colonial administration. From the era of colonial tutelage up to the present time, the Nigerian Civil Service has continued to evolve especially with states creation by different administrations.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, we have discussed the evolution of the Nigerian Civil Service. We examined the forms of administration in traditional society and their influences. We then observed the development of the Nigerian civil service and reached the conclusion that Nigerian civil service is not the creation of modern influences but has its roots in the British colonial administration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Examine the development of the Nigerian Civil Service
2. Discuss the moralistic orientation and the ritualistic feature of the traditional public administration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
Adebayo, A. (1997). *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
Ayeni, J. (2007). *Perspectives and Reflections on Nigerian Civil Service Reforms*. Abuja: SSC Publishers.
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UNIT 2
ECOLOGY OF NIGERIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 Ecology of Nigerian Administration
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Public administration does not exist in a vacuum. There are a number a number of environmental factors affecting public administration. Public administration cannot be separated from environmental factors which determine how they function. Differences in social, cultural, historical affect the way administration is conducted. This unit discusses the ecology of Nigerian public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss factors that influenced the growth and development of public administration in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Ecology of the Nigerian Public Administration

The first influence on Nigerian public administration arose from British colonialism. The British colonised Nigeria and established British public service structure and procedures in the administration of the colonial territory. This however, influenced the growth and development of public administration in Nigeria.

The colonial public administration managed the colonial territory (Nigeria) from about 1861 to 1954 when regional governments were created, and made the territory to operate federal structure. Thus, the public services of the then regional governments from 1954 to 1960, and up to 1966, were direct offshoots of the early British colonial public service administrative structure in terms of ethics or values, culture and tradition, training, procedures and spirit de corps associated with the public service (Onuoha, 1999).

Nigeria's socio cultural conditions or the social setting made up of very many ethnic and cultural groups. And numerous languages also were influences on the growth and development of public administration in Nigeria.

Another influence on the public administration is Nigeria's federal structure adopted in the 1954 Lyttleton Constitution. The constitution was largely responsible for the regionally oriented development of the public service administrative structure. The federal structure enabled the creation of federal and regional services.

The civil war of 1967 to 1970 was another significant influence on public administration in Nigeria. At the end of the war the military apparently had such power and authority in the federation which could not be easily challenged by any of the constitution of the federation.

That enabled the military to establish what was called a result-oriented and unified grade structure public service for the entire country through the recommendations of the 1974 Public Service Review Commission (Udoji Commission). That public service reform has continued influence on the structure and procedures of public administration in Nigeria till date (Onuoha, 1999).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Discuss the factors that influenced the growth and development of public administration in Nigeria.

4.0 CONCLUSION
Every administration has its own ecology i.e. various factors that shape its evolution, growth and development. Many factors have shaped and influenced the growth and development of public administration in Nigeria. From factors of colonial experience to socio cultural and political development, Nigerian public administration has been influenced greatly.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, we have discussed various factors that influenced the growth and development of public administration on Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
Examine factors that influenced and shaped the development of public administration in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
Adebayo, A. (1997). *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
Onuoha, B. (1999). *Public Administration: Basic Principles, Techniques and Processes*. *in Anifowose*, R. & Enemuo, F.C. (Ed.). *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd. pp 263-280.

UNIT 3
THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 The Civil Service
3.2 Characteristics of Career Civil Service
3.3 Composition of the Nigerian Civil service
3.4 Functional Responsibilities of the Civil Servants
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION
In this unit, you will gain general knowledge about the nature of the civil service. The unit also discusses the Nigerian civil service, its composition and the role the career civil servant is expected to perform.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss the nature of the civil service
• examine the main characteristics of the civil service
• examine the composition of the Nigerian civil service
• discuss the functional responsibilities of the civil servants.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 The Civil Service
The civil service is "a complex organization with a body of permanent officials appointed in a civil capacity to assist the political executives in the formulation, execution and implementation of government policies in ministries, departments and agencies within which specific government works are carried out… This excludes the Judiciary, Police, Armed forces, Local Government Services, research institutions and Universities. The officials whose remunerations are paid wholly out of monies voted and approved by the national assembly are called civil servants. The civil service which possesses a status of neutrality among other public service organizations within the broad canopy of the public service has as its objectives specifically to ensure:

a)   The attainment of government objectives, aims and policy;
b)   The promotion of a better execution of the laws and programmes of the government;
c)   An efficient and expeditious administration of government business;

d) The reduction of expenditure and improvement of economy to the fullest extent consistent with efficiency in the operation of government; and

e) Increased efficiency in the implementation of government policies and programmes to the fullest extent practicable through the encouragement of specialisation of personnel and through other measures.

With the evolution of modern state and the adoption of the concept of separation of powers, the civil service emerged as an organ of the executive responsible for advising the executive on policy directions and implementation of decisions (Ayeni, 2008: 2-3).

3.2 Characteristics of Career Civil Service
The main characteristics of the concept of career civil service are:

a) Permanence of tenure and stability of service,

b) Equal opportunity of competing for government service,

c) Merit to be the sole criteria of recruitment and due recognition to ability and personal efficiency in a sound promotion system

d) The extent of territorial jurisdiction of public employees is fairly large. This not only enlarges their scope of activity but also improves their avenues of promotion; and

e) Adequate steps are taken to provide in-service training to the civil servants to keep them in touch with the latest trends and developments in administrative theory and practice (Basu, 1994).

3.3   Composition of the Nigerian Civil Service
The Nigerian Civil Service comprises the civil service at the centre, that is, the Federal Civil Service and a civil service in each of the thirty-six states of the federation. Each of these comprises ministries and extraministerial departments or offices. The composition as compiled
by the Ayida Panel in its report of 1994 is as follows:

a) General Services and Administration (Office of the Vice- President).

b) State and Local Government Affairs Office (office of the Vice-President)

c) In the Office of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation are the following:
     i.   Cabinet Secretariat
     ii.   Political Affairs Office
     iii. General Services Office
     iv. Special Services Office
     v.   Economic Services Office
     vi. Special Duties
     vii. Ecological Funds Office
     viii. Police Affairs Office

ix.   National Assembly
d)   In the Office of Head of Service of the Federation are the following:
     i.   Establishment and Management Services
     ii.   Public Service Office
     iii.   Service Welfare Office
     iv.   Manpower Development Office
e)   Federal Ministries
     i.   Ministry of Agriculture
     ii.   Ministry of Aviation
     iii.   Ministry of Commerce and Tourism
     iv.   Ministry of Communication
     v.   Ministry of Defence
     vi.   Ministry of Education
     vii.   Ministry of Federal Capital Territory
     viii.   Ministry of Finance
     ix.   Ministry of Health
     x.   Ministry of Industry
     xi.   Ministry of Information
     xii.   Ministry of Internal Affairs
     xiii.   Ministry of Justice
     xiv.   Ministry of Labour and Productivity
     xv.   National Planning Commission
     xvi.   Ministry of Petroleum Resources
     xvii.   Ministry of Power and Steel
     xviii.   Ministry of Science and Technology
     xix.   Ministry of Solid Minerals Development
     xx.   Ministry of Transport
     xxi.   Ministry of Water Resources and Rural Development
     xxii.   Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development
     xxiii.   Ministry of Works and Housing
     xxiv.   Ministry of Youth and Sports
     xxv.   Ministry of Culture and Tourism
     xxvi.   Federal Civil Service Commission (Maduabum, 2008).

All the offices and ministries have permanent secretaries as accounting officers. Each of them bears the overall responsibility for policy, programme and project implementation in its sector.

3.4 Functional Responsibilities of the Civil Servants
These functions include:

i.   Render professional and technical advice based on the totality of knowledge, experience available within the various ministries and departments.

ii.   Contribute to the effective and realistic implementation of the declared objectives, policies and programmes of government through careful analysis of the issues, identification of constraints and suggestion of the most appropriate strategies for project implementation, having regard to the available resources.

iii.   Contribute to the formulation of policy and carry out approved programme faithfully.

iv.   Give honest and impartial advice on matters of public interest without fear of being regarded as disloyal to the cause of the administration.

v.   Sustain the oath for public officers which requires them in essence:
    a.   To be faithful and bear true allegiance to the Federal Republic of Nigeria at all times;
    b.   Not to discriminate on the basis of religion, tribe, cult, or status etc.
    c.   To place service to the public above selfish interest; and
    d.   To perform their official duties diligently and efficiently.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Discuss the functional responsibilities of the civil servants in Nigeria.

4.0 CONCLUSION
As we can see, the civil service is an organ of the executive. It is responsible for advising the executive on policy directions and implementation of policy decisions. The civil service exists to implement governmental policy for the fulfillment or the achievement of governmental goals.

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, we discussed the nature of the civil service including its characteristics. The composition and the functional responsibilities of the Nigerian civil servants were also examined.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. What are the objectives of the civil service?
2. Discuss the main characteristics of the civil service.
3. Highlight the ministries listed under the federal ministry.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ayeni, J. (2007). *Perspectives and Reflections on Nigerian Civil Service Reforms*. Abuja: SSC Publishers.

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UNIT 4
PUBLIC SERVICE REFORMS IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main Content
       3.1 Public Service Reform
       3.2 Salient Features of Public Service Reforms in Nigeria
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we are focusing on the reforms of the public service in Nigeria. The search for a more responsive public service has led to the setting up of various commissions and review panels at various times in the history of the Nigerian public service to suggest ways for the improvement of the service. This unit therefore presents various administrative reforms since 1945 and the focus of their objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• examine the various reforms that have taken place in Nigeria since 1945.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Public Service Reform

Essentially, reform connotes a deliberate and planned change. Any intervention which fails to produce fundamental change in the way the public service operates and conducts its business is not a reform. Examples of such an intervention are administrative actions. Public service is a systematic intervention aimed at improving the structure, operations, systems and procedures of the public service to enable its transformation as a multi-faceted agent of change, and as in the cases in Nigeria, as a veritable instrument of national cohesion and socioeconomic development. Reform is neither a quick fix nor a random injection of solutions.

Reform is a sustained process that is people- focused based on the realisation that while its target is the people; its tool for achieving the desired change is also the people. Reforms involve changes in bureaucratic structures, techniques, practices, procedures and behaviours. But the changes are in relation specifically to certain goals.

The key goal is often administrative improvement.
The goals may relate to four areas enumerated below:
i. Reform may be undertaken to improve administrative effectiveness in response to functions and pathologies of the bureaucracy or public criticisms;
ii. Reform could also be undertaken to accommodate new ideas, values, principles, techniques and modes of behaviours;
iii. Reform may be institutionalised at any point in time purposely to reorient the bureaucracy towards national goals and aspirations or in relation to changes in the political and economic environment as perceived by the government of the day.
iv. Reform may also be constituted to improve personnel management principles and techniques (Ayeni, 2007).

The principles underlying the on-going reform of the public service are that:
a) The Nigerian public Service is crucial but deficient;
b) The public service faces enormous problem and challenges in the 21st century;
c) A reformed service is key to meeting the development challenges of the 21st century;
d) Nigeria's dream of a better future can only be realised by modernising the machinery of government- the Public service; and
e) Reform provides the platform for applying a combination of strategies and approaches to resolve the crisis of governance and underdevelopment.

3.2 Salient Features of Public Service Reforms in Nigeria (1945 – 1995)

Administrative Review/ Reform	Focus
Tudor Davis Commission, 1945	Reviewed wages and general conditions of service
Harragin Salary Review Commission, 1946	Reviewed wages and general conditions of service; and -Divided the civil service into "senior service and junior service' (2 distinct compartments)
Gorsuch Commission, 1951	Reviewed remuneration and structure of the service, noted absence of viable middle category and created 5 main grades.
Hewn Committee, 1959	-Proposed integration of ministries and departments. -Defined the roles and functions of permanent secretaries.
Mbanefo Salaries and Wages Commission, 1959	-Reviewed salaries wages
Morgan Commission, 1963	-Reviewed salaries/ wages of junior staff of federal governments and private establishments
Elwood Grading Team 1966	-Examined anomalies in the grading of posts to proposed uniform salaries for officers performing

	identical duties.
Adebo salaries/wages Commission, 1971	-Proposed establishments of a public service review commission to examine: the role of the public service commission; structure of the civil service; conditions of service; and training arrangements.
Udoji Commission, 1972	-Focus on the issue of increasing efficiency and effectiveness with the context of meeting the challenges of a development oriented society. -Introduced a new conception of management which is results oriented, concentrating attention and resources on identified priorities for action. -Introduced open reporting system for performance evaluation; -Established a unified grading and salary structure covering all post service; and -Created a unified senior management group for administrative and professional cadres for central management of career. -Recommended and officers possessing the requisite skills and knowledge who can apply the acquired skills and knowledge in establishing goals and achieving targets. -Underscore the need for every public manager to be trained in projects managements, management by objectives and programme budgeting. -Recommended the adoption of project management as a tool for inter-ministerial task execution for broadening of skills and competencies and ensuring better integration of government services. Recommended more delegation of human resource management functions to ministries, departments and agencies. -Recommended decentralisation of machinery for staff consultation and negotiation. -Recommended speedy treatment of disciplinary cases arising in the face of complicated disciplinary procedures and canvassed for the recognition civil services rules as part of contract of service. -Recommended the institution of an ombudsman at federal and state levels for reviewing administrative decisions which are considered unjust.
Dotun Phillips, 1988	-Came into effect through the civil service

	reorganization decree No.43 of 1988; -Recommended the abolition of the office of the head of civil service and a new administrative dispensation whereby ministers rather than permanent secretaries would serve as chief executives and accounting officers of ministries; -Recommended the abolition of the post of permanent secretary. In its place, a new political post of director general was created which was to be held at the pleasure of the president and be vacated after the expiration of the tenure of the appointing administration unless such officers were reappointed by the new government. -The civil service was professionalised in order to stimulate specialisation and expertise. In this regard, an officer was expected to make a career in a particular ministry or department. -Each ministry was restructured along departmental lines to reflect the basic functions and areas of concern of the ministry; -Each department was subdivided into divisions, each division was subdivided into branches, and branches were subdivided into sections; -Each ministry was empowered to undertake the appointment, promotion and discipline of its staff under the general and uniform guidelines provided by the federal civil service commission; -Each ministry or extra-ministerial department was allowed to have three common services departments, viz: finance and supplies and departments of planning, research and statistics, and not more than five operations departments.
Ayida Review Panel, 1994	-Recommended abrogation of the civil service reorganization decree No.43 of 1888 and a return to the status quo.

Adapted from Ayeni (2008). Reforming Public Service in Nigeria: A Collective Responsibility.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Examine the salient features of Udoji Commission of 1972.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Public service reform is expected to re-engineer and streamline government machinery, so that a significant quantity, quality and cost effectiveness of public service can be achieved. The efforts of various reforms although their focus might differ were geared towards enhancing efficiency of the public service.

5.0 SUMMARY
This unit has examined various reforms commissions set up to review the operations and challenges of the public service in Nigeria since 1945.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Discuss the salient features of Dotun Phillips Commission of 1988.
2. What is reform? Highlight the underlying principles of reform.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
Ayeni, J. (2008). *Reforming Public Service in Nigeria: A Collective Responsibility*. Abuja: SSC Publishers.
Onah. E. I. (2012). *Public Personnel Management and Administrative Practice in Nigeria.* Lagos: Concept Publications.

UNIT 5
PLANNING AND BUDGETING IN THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 Planning and Budgeting –Definitions and Meaning
3.2 Steps in Systematic Planning
3.3 General Purpose of Planning and Budgeting
3.4 Fundamental Principles Governing the Operations of a
Government Planning and Budget
3.5 Planning and Budgeting in the Nigerian Civil Service
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, students will be introduced to the concepts of planning and budgeting (two functions that are essential in administration). The unit will discuss the steps in systematic planning, the general purposes of planning and budgeting and the principles governing the operations of a governmental planning and budget.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• discuss an idea of what planning and budgeting connote
• discuss the steps in systematic planning
• identify the general process of planning and budgeting
• discuss the principles governing the operations of a government planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Planning and Budgeting – Meaning and Definitions
What is Planning?

Planning is simply deciding in advance what is to be done. It comprises the selection of objectives, policies, procedures and programmes from among alternatives. Planning is a conscious effort on the part of the government to mobilise and direct the utilisation of the resources in the economy for the production of goods and services in a prescribed form, purposely in accordance with set priorities (Ayeni, 2007).

Budgeting

A budget is a financial plan summarising the financial experience of the past stating a current plan and projecting it over a specified period of time in future – Dimock (1937). Budgeting which is a financial plan is also a conscious and deliberate effort aimed at

packaging a "budget" which is a financial plan embodying an estimate of proposed expenditures for a given period and the proposed means of financing them. According to Dimock (1937), the important budget principles are: publicity, clarity, comprehensiveness, unity, periodicity, accuracy, and integrity.

The following are the elements of budget:
• It is a statement of expected revenue and proposed expenditure;
• It requires some authority to sanction it;
• It is for a limited period, generally it is annual;
• It also sets forth the procedure and manner in which the collection of revenue and the administration of expenditures is to be executed (Bhagwan and Bhushan, 2006).

3.2 Steps in Systematic Planning
1.   A careful definition and limitation of the problem as far as possible;
2.   The exploration of all available information pertaining to the problems;
3.   The posing of possible alternative solutions or methods of solving the problems;
4.   The experimenting of one or more tentative solutions through actual operations;
5.   The evaluations of results in the light of new developments, research and experience; and
6.   Reconsideration of the problems and the results, and re-decision, if justified.

3.3 General Purpose of Planning and Budgeting
The general purpose of planning and budgeting are described as follows:
i.   Planning and budgeting as s short-term calculation;
ii.   Political, economic and social document couched in figures;
iii.   Management tool used for control, monitoring and coordination;
iv.   Agent that enables government to anticipate change and adapt to it accordingly;
v.   Device for ensuring a continuous monitoring procedure, and reviewing and evaluating performance with a reference to previously established standards.
vi.   Overall method for improving operations.

3.4 Fundamental Principles Governing the Operations of a Government Planning and Budget

This is done through the Ministry of Finance, Economics, Planning and Central Bank of Nigeria includes the following:

Public revenue levied is based on financial act, and no monies can be spent without authority of the national assembly or the legislature; Expenditure on government activities are always made only for the purposes authorised by the national assembly, and as provided for in the constitution; There is consolidated fund into which all revenues of the government collected under the authority of the national assembly are paid and from which all funds for expenditure purposes are usually paid as provided for in the constitution and in other relevant audit act and financial statues of the government;

All monies spent out of the consolidated fund of the government are usually accounted for, audited by the auditor-general, whose report must be presented to the national assembly quarterly, annually or periodically (Ayeni, 2007:148-149).

3.5 Planning and Budgeting in the Nigerian Civil Service
The process of planning and budgeting in the Nigerian civil service involves certain actors, and this includes the executive arm of government as the head of government, ministers, advisers, permanent secretaries etc. in the civil service. These people work together through the instrumentality of the civil service to ensure effective and efficient planning and budgeting considered critical to the success of economic and socio-political objectives of the government.

The execution of government's plan and budget is carried out within an established legal framework for the management of public finances as enshrined in the constitution and further elaborated in other statutes. The legislative framework contained in the statues is usually put in place in order to ensure that the government has access at all times to financial resources to defray approved public expenditures.

The legislative framework also ensures that the government's access to financial resources other than tax revenues is not utilised beyond certain set limits which, if exceeded would compromise the government's ability to finance its operation in the years ahead and could cause inflation, thereby causing fiscal imbalances and dislocation in the economy. The statute usually vests in the Honorable Minister of Finance and his officials the power of control and supervision of the finances of the government in order to ensure that full account is made to the National assembly. According to the statute, every person responsible for the collection, receipt, custody, issue or payment of public monies shall obey all such instructions that may from time to time be issued by the Ministry in respect of custody, handling and accounting for such public monies (Ayeni, 2007:144).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What is planning? Discuss the general purpose of planning and budgeting

4.0 CONCLUSION
Planning and budgeting as we can see are essential to the functioning of the government. For effective administration and efficient service delivery on the part of government, there is the need for adequate planning and committing resources to plan objectives for effective implementation and consequently desirable outcomes. Without adequate planning and budgeting procedure, this task may not be achievable.

5.0 SUMMARY
What we have done in this unit is to examine the planning and budgeting process in the Nigerian civil service. The unit started by discussing the concepts of planning and

budgeting. Steps in systematic planning, purpose of planning and budgeting are also considered. We also discussed the fundamental principles governing the operations of a government planning and budget

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. Discuss the process of planning and budgeting in the Nigerian civil service.
2. What are the basic steps in systematic planning?
3. Examine the general purpose of planning and budgeting.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
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MODULE 6 OTHER ASPECTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Unit 1- Public Personnel Administration
Unit 2- Public Financial Administration
Unit 3- Development Administration
Unit 4- Local Government Administration
Unir 5- Comparative Public Administration

Unit 1-
Public Personnel Administration

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1.0 INTRODUCTION
Having gone through the course guide, this unit will introduce you to Public Personnel Management; you will be exposed to the meaning of Public Personnel Management, some definitions by various scholars on Personnel Management, aims and objectives of Personnel Management, the Essentials Qualities of Public Personnel Management, as well as the Significance of Management to any organization or establishment.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
i) Define Public Personnel Management.
ii) Identify aims and objectives of Personnel Management
iii) Examine the various contributions of Eminent Scholars to Personnel Management.
iv) Determine the essentials qualities of Personnel Management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning And Characteristics Of Personnel Administration
The terms Personnel Management, Personnel Administration and Human Resources Management are similar and used interchangeably mean the same. They all mean the activities of group of persons, each cooperating to achieve common interest (Mbieli, 2006). The term personnel refer to workers, employees or labour on one hand while management on the other hand means the act of blending human and material resources to make things happen. In organisational setting, resources have to be considered before making any meaningful planning, budgeting and recruitment. In many establishments, the techniques of personnel selection are used not only in the hiring of new employees but also in connection with promotions, disciplines, discharges, transfers, and others personnel decisions. Personnel Management centred on employment, education and training, wages and salaries, industrial relations, health and safety, and also on the welfare of employees.

From the above, we can deduce the personnel management is therefore that specialist department (Mbieli, 2006) responsible for following functions:
i) Recruitment;
ii) Selection;
iii) Placement;
iv) Induction;
v) Compensation;
vi) Motivation;
vii) Training;
viii) Transfer;
ix) Promotion;
x) Discipline (e.g., demotion, termination, dismissal etc);
xi) Provision of safety against hazards and
xii) Serves as a link between employees and management.

Towel, Schoen and Hilgant, (2009), believe that personnel management function focuses upon planning, organising, staffing, directing and co-ordinating the activities of human resources, the personnel in a working organisation. From the above definition, we can deduce that personnel management consist of those management functions and activities related to the acquisition, development, and maintenance of human resources in a working organisation. You will discover in the course of your programme that many concepts and terms used in management sciences have slightly varying definitions depending upon who is defining them.

Personnel management, which is our concern here, takes place in differing organisations or establishments. Our focus here is concerned with personnel management in the public sector such as the environment of government organizations and institutions. The

processes of Personnel Management in the public organisations may virtually be the same with that of the private sector, but with little modification and concession. Private organisations which are the direct opposite of public organizations are organisations not owned by the government, e.g., the Lever Brothers Plc. Cadbury Nigeria Plc., Nestle Food Plc. etc. However, Personnel Management means that part of the process of management that is concerned itself with the maintenance relations and ensuring the physical wellbeing of employees so that they give their maximum contributions for an effective and efficient working co-existence of the organisation.

Personnel administration is intimately involved with the environment in general and certain trends are noticeable. However, we can say that Personnel Management is the management process that is concerned with maintenance of human relations, the physical wellbeing of employees, and man power planning of personnel. Personnel Management can also be defined as the process of obtaining and maintaining a satisfactory and a satisfied work force. However, from the above definition we can deduce two essentials key word which are; the process of obtaining a *satisfactory work force* and the process of *maintaining a satisfied work force*. Each of these sub-packages has many functions, and will be well examined in details in our subsequent units.

For example, the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force starts with the process of man power planning: - recruitment, selection, placement, training and retraining for better performance and bigger responsibilities in the organization, etc. The sub-package which we have identified as maintaining a satisfied work force also has its own numerous functions e.g. education and training, payment of salaries and wages, the provision of houses or allowances, health and safety measures, staff advancement or promotion and motivation, that is the energizing force that induces or compels and maintains behaviour etc. However, a combination of these terms is what personnel management is all about.
The following are the Characteristics of Personnel Management:
i)   Ability to select the right person for the right job
ii)   Motivate them to happily contribute for the success of the organisation
iii)   Guarantee efficient employees and effective organisation and;
iv)   Proper care to the serving and retired employees as both are duty bound to
        contribute for progress of the organisation. Mbieli, (2006:257)

3.2 Aims and Objectives of Personnel Administration
The aims and objectives of personnel management are the same all organizations. For the purpose of this study, we shall focus our concern on the aims and objectives of personnel management in public organizations.

The following are aims and objectives of personnel management.
1   To recognize and satisfy individual needs and group goals by offering an adequate
        and equitable remuneration, economic and social security and protection against
        hazards of life e.g. Old age, Disability, Death, Unemployment, etc.

2.   To help the organization to secure the right type of staff, through recruitment, selection, placement, training and development of personnel.
3.   To help the organization meet its social and legal responsibilities as well as ensure its survival.

3.3 Contributions of Various Scholars to Public Personnel Administration
Different scholars have different views and perceptions about what public personnel Administration is. In the language of most schools of thought; personnel administration is the planning, organising, directing, and controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration and maintenance of people for the purpose of contributing to organisational goals. Filippo (1984), believed that personnel administration as the process of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration maintenance, and separation of human resource to the end that individual, organizational and societal objectives are accomplished.
Ojo (1986), was of the opinion that personnel administration as an approach to administration that helps an organization to meet its social and legal responsibilities while ensuring its own survival. Jacious (1970), states that personnel administration is that field of administration which has to do with planning, organizing and controlling various operative, functions of pre-occurring, developing, maintaining and utilizing the labour force in such a way that the objectives of personnel administration are maintained.
Mbieli (2006), believes that any organisations that is engaged in the practices of bringing together and continues to take proper care of both in and off services men and women enabling them to become progressive work partner are involved in the personnel administration or management. Taylor (1917), believed that personnel administration is that servicing section of an organisation to other managers and the department has functional responsibility for personnel matters.

The Institute of Personnel Management of the United Kingdom is of the opinion that Personnel Management as a part of management that is concerned with people at work and their relationships within the enterprise seeking to bring together into an effective organization of staff, enabling each to make his own best contribution to the success of the organization. The Nigerian Institutes of Personnel Management states that personnel management is concerned with people at work and their relationship within an enterprise. The body further states that personnel management aim is to bring together and develop into an effective organisation the men and women who make up an enterprise and having regard for the well being of the individuals and the working groups to enable them make their contribution to its success.
The term Personnel Management as a professional and academic discipline got its foundations from the social sciences. Notable disciplines that have made sizeable contribution to the study of personnel management are Physiology, Industrial Sociology, Labour Economics, Political science and Cultural Anthropology. Management experts have developed some techniques of personnel management practices in industry, governmental organizations and consulting firms. The techniques of personnel selection

are used in the hiring of new employees and in connection with promotions, discharges, transfers and other personnel decisions.

Personnel management is that part of management that concerns itself with the maintenance of human relationships, ensuring the physical wellbeing of employees and to ensure maximum contributions to organisation. However, Flippo (1984), further stated that personnel management performed two main functions. These are Managerial such as (planning, controlling, co-ordinating, and organising), and Operational such as (recruitment, selection and placement, human resource, compensation/wage and salaries administration, training and manpower development, staff performances appraisal, discipline, promotion and transfer, communication, and industrial and labour relations). Details of some these functions will discussed in unit four (4).The managerial and operational functions of personnel management contributes in no small ways to the goals and establishment for the organisation.

3.4 Essentials Qualities of Personnel Management
The person anchoring the personnel management department must be well grounded with the acquisition of basic knowledge of certain disciplines such as Physiology, Industrial Sociology, Labour Economics, Political Science, Public Administration, and Cultural Anthropology and living condition of staff, and also the understanding human behaviour, with more emphasis on social physiological problems of human nature, friendly, firm patient and impartial of employers. Managers of these departments at the various levels should have vast knowledge about effective leadership skills, ensures that personnel policy is adhered to, and department activities are successfully carried out. Every manager and supervisor should be aware of the principles of personnel management and to maintain a close link. Personnel managers have to advise Managing Directors on the formulation of personnel policy and ensure that the procedures to carry them out are effective.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What are the aims and objectives of personnel management?

4.0 CONCLUSION
In this unit, we have learnt that the study of personnel management is similar to all other forms of management and that its practice has been with us since human history. The practice was used in the building of the pyramids in Egypt and other similar ancient works. We have also learned that personnel management has evolved from antecedents of periods of slavery and to the present stage it is today. The definitions, functions, processes of personnel management are virtually the same in all establishments even with slight variations.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has covered the definitions of personnel management, the characteristics, and essential qualities of personnel management. Scholars have diverse views about the definitions. The functions and processes of personnel management have been outlined.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT
1. What is Personnel Management?
2. Determine the main functions and characteristics of personnel management.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2-
PUBLIC FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

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        3.2 Scope of Public Financial Management

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5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

The course "Public Financial administration" has been designed to expose you to the fundamentals of public financial administration. It teaches you financial management in the public sector. It exposes you to the rudiments of public financial administration. The essence is found that finance is the livewire of every organization, without which the life of organizations will come to a halt. Adequate funding and management are vital to an organization for survival and sustainability.

2.0 Objective

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to:

1. explain the concept of Public financial administration
2. explain the aims and objectives of Public Financial Administration
3. explain the scope of public financial administration

3.0   Main content

3.1   Basics of Public Financial administration

Public financial management has been variously described as cluster of core financial activities. It is an indispensable tool in the management of a nation's resources because; it is mainly involved with resource mobilization and expenditure-management in the public sector. Edam (2001), Agu (2002), see public financial management as the flow of money or financial resources through an organization. It concerns itself with the actual flow of money or financial resources as well as claims against money in a more judicious way. Lawson (2015) defines Public Financial Management (PFM) as set of laws, rules, system and processes used by sovereign nations and sub-national governments to mobilize revenue, allocate public funds, undertake public spending, and account for funds and audit results. According to Lawson, PFM encourages a broader set of functions than

financial management and is commonly conceived as a cycle of six phases, beginning with policy design and ending with external audit and evaluation. The essence of PFM is to ensure accountability which by implication involves effective and transparent operation

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Define public financial administration

3.2   Scope of Public Financial Administration
The main objective of financial management is to arrange sufficient finance for meeting short term and long-term needs. The main work of the financial manager is acquisition/mobilization of resources geared towards attainment of short term and long term needs. In all organizations, public financial management is very important. The reason is because money/finance is the livewire of every organization. Bearing this in mind the financial manager's scope includes:
(1) Estimation of financial requirements:
The first and foremost duty of the financial manager is to estimate the resources required on the short term and long term. His estimates should be based on sound financial principles which will further lead to stability/equilibrium. The funds so estimated should be adequate to cover all expenditures to avoid extravagant spending and the business of the organization coming to a halt.

(2) Capital Structures: The financial manager decides on the quantum of fund to mobilize and then how and where to spend these resources to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. He has to decide on the type of securities to invest in and the kind of debts and funds to use in financing these securities. It is a wise decision to finance fixed assets through long term debts. If one decides to raise funds, then the cost of raising such funds is very important. If the cost of raising funds to sponsor a project is viewed to be high, then such sources may not be useful as the enterprise/organization runs for profit motive. Therefore, the financial manager should check the various options available and choose the least cost terms. Longer funds should be employed to finance working capital. In addition, to use overdrafts and cash credits for meeting working capital needs may not be suitable.

(3) Selecting the Sources of Funds: This is the next step after preparing a capital structure. He has to decide on the sources of finance to embark on in order to finance the project. The various sources include share capital, debentures, financial institutions, commercial banks, public deposit, finance houses, etc. Short term projects could be financed through bank loans, public deposits and financial institutions while long term projects may be financed through share capital and debentures or public deposits. The factors that would determine the sources of funding are the need, purpose, object and cost involved.

(4) Pattern of Investment: Procurement and use of funds are very vital and related to investment pattern. It is the duty of the financial manager to decide on the assets to procure, depending on the available resources and the priority needs of the organization. There are categories of expenditures and assets (fixed and current assets). The financial manager should select the pattern of investment in relation to the cost of funding. For instance, funds have to be spent first on fixed assets and then an appropriate portion will be retained for working capital.

(5) Proper Cash Management: Proper cash management must be embarked upon by the finance manager. He has to assess the various cash needs at different times and then make arrangements for cash backing. Cash may be required to:
* purchase raw materials
* make payments to creditors
* meet wage bills
* meet day to day expenses.
The usual sources of cash many be (a) cash sales (b) collection of debts (c) short term or through arrangements with banks. He should be very careful and prudent in his management to avoid shortage or idle cash. Idle cash indicates improper use of resources while shortage of cash will damage the credit worthiness of the enterprise. A better approach will be to have a cash flow statement proposed regularly.

(6) Implementing Financial Controls: It is the duty of the finance manager to use the various control techniques to evaluate the performance of the organization in various areas and take corrective measures when needed. This guarantees an effective system of financial management. The various control techniques widely used in organizations including public sector organizations are Return on Investment (ROI), Budgetary Control (BC), and Breakeven Analysis (BEA), Cost control (CC), Ratio Analysis (RA), Cost and Internal Audit (CIA). ROI is the best control device to evaluate performance of various financial policies.

3.3   Aims/Objectives of Public Financial Administration
The aims/objectives of public financial Administration cannot be over-emphasized. A sound public financial administration is critical to the achievement of the aims of the public sector through its role in enhancing the quality of public service outcomes; etc. Public financial administration improves the management of the flow of resources through government and its agencies. ACCA identified four key objectives of effective public financial administration.
   i. **Aggregate Financial Administration:** a state by right acquires revenue from natural resources under its control, ensures prompt collection of taxes, borrows and embarks on other revenue collection due to it. These resources are than allocated according to priority to the different sectors in the state as agreed by the stakeholders. Public financial management, in spite of the judicious

allocation and control functions, also aids government in setting future priorities and ensuring fiscal sustainability.

ii. **Operational Administration:** if financial administration is well operated, it has a positive impact on short term and long term decision-making, performance management, strategic planning and management of public services. According to ACCA some operational aspects that are directly affected through financial administration are;

iii. **Asset Acquisition and Disposal:** the acquisition and disposal of capital assets are some of the key decisions in the administration of financial resources because they involve huge capital outflow. Therefore, in an efficient financial system, alternative options are explored to finance capital assets in such a way that liquidity is maintained in the successful pursuit of long term objectives.

iv. **Treasury Management:** one of the aims of public financial management is operational management which can be achieved through sound treasury management, which balances the value maximization objectives of the government with the need to maintain liquidity for the discharge of institutional liabilities.

v. **Review and Performance Evaluation:** when review is undertaken and performance evaluated, it aids in identifying and understanding previous mistakes and the taking of corrective measures in the future.

3.4   Reporting to Stakeholders

Public financial administration shows how the financial managers of the public sector discharge their financial administration responsibilities. The Finance manager prepares and publishes annual audited financial statements in entities' annual reports. The financial statement presents a true and fair view of the financial performance, position and cash flows of entities. It is believed that the timely finalization of the financial statement and the expressed opinion of an independent auditor are important indicators of the effectiveness of an entity's financial management performance. Sound financial management shows that the entity is using public funds efficiently to provide value for money.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Briefly discuss the objectives of public financial management in government organizations.

Conclusion
Public financial management is concerned with the management and control of the flow of income and expenditure of public funds. However, policies of government influence the goal of public financial management in all government activities.

Summary

In this unit, we have defined and discussed public financial management, the scope and objectives.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(i) Define public financial administration

(ii) Briefly discuss the scope of public financial administration

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UNIT 3-
DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION?

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3.0 Main Content
       3.1 Meaning of Development Administration
       3.2 Development Administration and Public Administration
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit attempts to define and explore the concept of development administration as a field of study and as a system of action in order to make a clear distinction between it and public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:
1. define development administration
2. explain the differences between development administration and public administration using the criteria of objective, scope, history and ideology.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Development Administration

The task of development in the developing countries is said to be a most challenging one for a variety of reasons: first, because, unlike in the advanced countries where the pressure on the government is for more social services for a society already at an advanced stage of development in which most of its members possess and enjoy the basic necessities for a decent life, in the new nations even those basic necessities are either non-existent or minimal for the vast majority of the population.

Moreover, the task of development was an urgent one since upon it depended the very survival or nation itself. The people had also been made to expect that independence would bring about an immediate improvement in their conditions. It was therefore, felt that the traditional model of public administration would be inadequate in providing guidelines for building a nation-state out of traditional society.

Thus, a new model of administration termed development administration– a especially within the broader field of public administration was adopted in the new nations to 'modernize' their economies, accelerate development to be equivalent, eventually, to the advanced countries. It was reasoned that a technocratic bureaucracy following rational-legal principles as set out by Max Weber would be all that was needed to overcome tribal

authority and superstition, combined with the application of technical expertise to agriculture and industry.

Basically development administration can therefore be defined as a system of administration geared towards development. It initiates and manages innovation-political, social and economic. Development administration is characterized by innovation and social engineering.
Explaining development administration, Fainsod (1963: 1-5) says:
> *It is a carrier of innovation values. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialization. Development administration ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth and mobilizing and allocating resources to expand national income.*

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1
Identify the attributes of development administration.

3.2 Development Administration and Public Administration
Traditionally, public administration is concerned with maintaining law and order. So is development administration but the latter is geared towards development. Traditional model of public administration emphasizes the extraction of resources in the form of tax or from petroleum (as in Nigeria) and depositing this money with the central bank. This money is used for maintaining a strong police force and the army to provide security while economic and social activities are substantially left in the hands of the private individuals and companies.
Development administration extracts these resources and uses the proceeds to build concrete structures like roads, pipe borne water, power generating plants, schools, hospitals and other social amenities.

In Nigeria, most of the known hospitals were built by governments (Federal and State). The roads are constructed and maintained by the governments. Despite the privatisation and commercialisation policy of the country, governments still have commanding shares in corporations like railway, National Electric Power Authority and in many other public corporations hence Nigeria is still practicing development administration.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2
Answer the following questions.
A. For each item, determine whether the statement is true (T) or False (F).
1. Development administration is dynamic
2. Development administration emphasizes fence-sitting attitude
3. The difference between public administration and development administration is in kind.
B. Complete the following choosing the correct word/words given in brackets.

1. Development administration is characterized by… (dynamism/orthodoxy)
2. Public administration is characherised by …(laissez faire attitude/social engineering)
3. Nigeria…(still practices/no longer practices) development administration.

4.0 CONCLUSION
In essence, development administration is a especially within the broader field of public administration. Whereas public administration is concerned with the maintenance of law and order, development administration is gead more towards development. In the final analysis one may say that administration stems from capitalism while development administration stems from socialism.

5.0 SUMMARY
The task of development in the developing countries was considered an urgent one. It was felt that the traditional model of public administration would be inadequate in providing guidelines for building a nation-state out of traditional society. Thus, a new model of administration termed development administration which was geared towards development was adopted in the nations to modernize their economic and accelerate development. The different between development administration and public administration is only degree or emphasis as both maintain law and order.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
Define and explore the concept of development administration as a field of study and as a system of action in such a way as to make a clear distinction between it and public administration.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING
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UNIT 4-
LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

Table of Content

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last section, you had an idea about what the types, styles and process of planning and decision-making are all about. This unit will take you a step further into the Introduction to Local Government Administration. In this unit, the focus is on Introduction to Local Government administration, we shall be looking at the meaning and evolution of Local84

government institutions, in pre and post-colonial era, the Principle underlying the creation, as well as the Legal Framework of Local Government administration in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
1. Explain the evolution of Local government administration in Nigeria.
2. Identify the Legal Framework and principles underlying the creation of Local government institutions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 EVOLUTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION
3.1.1 Meaning of Local Government Administration
The Nigeria system of Local Government administration started with the British system and later change to the American's System of administration. This is to achieve efficiency of service delivery. Local Governments are semi-autonomy in their votes and powers allocated to them. Local government as a tier of government has generated much interest globally. It is seen as a sub-organ of the state or central government at the Local level where government administration is practiced at the grass-root and closer to the people.

A Local government institution is a subordinate existence to a State which derives its powers from the general laws made by the state. Usually, it has a less complete governmental framework. In some Francophone countries of the World, e.g. France, Local governments' administration is rigidly supervised by the central government. In the Anglophone countries e.g. U.S.A., Local government are autonomous except where they are subordinate to the state, Local government administration in Nigeria fall within this group.

Orewa and Adewumi, (1992) points that Local government is a system of Local communities and towns which are organized to maintain law and order provide some limited range of social services and co-operation of the inhabitants in join endeavours towards the improvements of their conditions of living. From the foregoing definitions on Local government, one can deduce that Local government provides the community with a formal organizational framework which enables them conduct their affairs effectively and regulates the actions of their members for the general public.

The Federal Republic of Nigeria guidelines for Local government reforms of 1976, defines Local government councils as government exercised through representative councils established by law to excise specific powers within defined areas.

3.1.1 History of Local Government Administration in Nigeria
For the purpose of clarity, the Evolution of the modern Local government system in Nigeria shall be discussed in six (6) analytical phases, which are:
a. The Pre-Colonial Period. b. Post-Colonial Period.
c. Early Military Era (1967 – 1976).

d. Late Military Era (1976 – 1979).
e. The Second Republic 1979.
f. The Second Military Era.

3.1.2.1 The Pre-Colonial Period
This period marked the beginning of modern Local government system in the country. Prior to this period; the traditional institutions were at liberty to practice any system of administration that suits their environment. This period saw the establishment of the native administration or native authorities, where the people were enlightened on political and administrative education. This system of administration allowed the traditional authorities to flourish under the closer supervision of the resident who introduce the indirect rule system. However, under this system, the British were able to penetrate and exploit the vast territory of Nigeria prior to the indirect rule system. The traditional institutions were inferior before the colonial authorities did not accept of parity of status between the Local chiefs or traditional rulers and the Resident Officers. Oyediran (1988), states that, the structure of Local government administration is described as a military-like chain of responsibility extending from the Governor and Lieutenant Governor down to the Resident, District Officer, Chief Emir, District Head, Chief and Village Head.
In summary, authorities of Local government administration during this period where centralized but despite the advent of indirect rule system, the traditional native authorities were still able to carry out Legislative, Executive and Judicial functions. The problem during these periods was corruption of the chiefs and Oba's. They were arrogant and over bearing, making Local government administration during this era a failure.

3.1.2.2 Post-Colonial Period
Local Government Administration in Nigeria during the post-colonial period was essentially the responsibility of the regions or what is termed as regionalization or Localization of Local governments in Nigeria. The system of administration varies slightly from one region to another. In the Northern region, they adopted and retained the status as it was under the colonial master, which was the native authority system. The emirs adopted and retained the enormous powers, influence and prestige of the colonial masters to have a stronghold and control of the political will of the region. In the Eastern region, they practiced a two tiered system; District and Local Council System in the Local areas and a three tiered system compose of an all-purpose municipal, urban county and county councils. During this period, members of the various councils were mostly elected. These councils were supposed to be autonomous since the members were elected representatives of the people. The control over the councils was from the Ministry for Local government Inspectorate and the Local Government Service Board (Obiajulu and Obi, 2004). In the western Region, the Local government administrative system was similar to that of the Eastern region in terms of administration and elections. Three tiered structure was in operation, the municipal, urban county and county councils. The councils were thus seen and used as avenues from planting the coalition's surrogates at the grass-roots. The major achievements in the three regions during the post-colonial era were

primarily to maintain laws and order, prevention of crime etc. The institutions were poorly financed and over staffed; there was no proper election into key positions.

3.1.2.3 Early Military Era (1967 – 1976)
This era witnessed a period of great political instability and all efforts were geared towards maintaining stability and combating the Biafran treat of succession. The entry of the military did witness some changes in the councils as the Local government administrations were dissolved and new care-taker imposed on them. The nature of military regime which was usually centralized and authoritarian affected the Council since the various regional governments made no pretence of allowing the Councils a semblance of authority. Nothing really remarkable happened at the Local government councils during this period.

3.1.2.4 Late Military Era (1976 – 1979)
This period was a watershed of the evolution of the Local government administration in Nigeria; it witnessed remarkable reforms of the Local government system in Nigeria. The main thrust of the reform was the standardization of the Councils nationwide.

The objectives of the reform were:
1. To bring even and rapid development of Local government administration at all levels throughout the country.
2. To facilitate the exercise of democratic self-government at the Local levels and to encourage initiative and leadership potentials.
3. To mobilize human and natural resources through the involvement of members in Local development.
4. To appropriate serious and development activities responsible to Local wishes and initiative by developing or delegating them to Local representative bodies.
5. To provide a two way channel of communication between the Local communities and the government.

However, some scholars have argued that the changes induced by the reform were not as far-reaching as it ought to be. To this group, they believed that the changes induced were more apparent than real. Egwurube (1991), states that the reform was more symbolic than real and that the changes it introduced were cosmetic.

3.1.2.5 The Second Republic (1979)
This period is tagged to be the anti-climax in the evolution of Local government administration in Nigeria. The Councils were empowered with avenues for rewarding their political allies. Appointments were made into the Councils on partisan patronage, thereby employing corrupt and unqualified personnel to man the affairs of Local governments. This period did not record any remarkable achievement in the evolution process. Local government administration during this period was highly ineffective, unnoticed and made little or no significant impact on the lives of the people.

3.1.2.6 The Second Military Era (1984 – 1999)
The second military era, led to the present status and transformation of the Local government system in Nigeria. The military were quite unsatisfied with the state of the Local governments. The Dansuki Panel (1984), was set up to look into the affairs of the Councils and stipulate guidelines for operation and efficient administration. The Committee, in its report attributed the problems of Local government as operational factors arising directly from the behaviour and attitude of the persons who operated the system.

Some of the recommendations of Alhaji Ibrahim Dasuki Panel were as follows:
1. The councils should be directly funded and granted autonomy status.
2. The abolition of the Local Government Ministries.
3. Decentralization of the services provided by Local Governments.

However, these recommendations of the Committee could not be implemented as Buhari's administration was overthrown in a palace coup by General Babangida in 1985.

Self-Assessment Exercise:
1. Explain the phases of Local Government System in Nigeria
2. What are the main objectives of the reforms on Local Government System in the late Military era (1976-1979)

3.2 THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE CREATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.
The need for Local government institutions emanated from the facts that different geographical areas have diverse people, visions, and potentials. The vision and potentials of the people to a great extent influence in the creation of Local government institutions. In establishing Local government institutions and in assigning powers to them to be autonomous the state should put the following into considerations.

1. The State should attempt to set Local units that are homogenous in nature and whose affairs need Local management. Two un-identical communities cannot stay together under the umbrella of one Local government. During the 2nd military era, General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida delineated Ife and Modakeke into two different Local Government Councils because of uncommon interest. However, a measure can be achieved if only the boundaries are shifted or adjusted to enable peace to reign.

2. The State should guide against designating on excessive number of units as councils as would result in overlapping powers, duplication of functions and consequent wastage of public funds.

3. The State government should properly supervise on exercise of power within Local units; they should work towards the prevention of dishonesty and inefficiency of officers.

The State should reserve the executive power to appoint and remove officers entrusted with the administration of state laws.

3.2.1 The Legal Framework of the Local Government.

Local government institutions are ''corporations with perpetual succession'' (Bello et al 2004). They have legal – existence like an ordinary individual, they are legal entitles which can sue and be sued in the court. The Local institutions once established can never die; they are continually in existence as far as the state provides them with the necessary allocations.

The Local government institutions can only act within the framework of the law in which it was established. Unlike an ordinary individual who can do anything against the law forbid him to do. The Local government institutions may only do those things which the law specifically order or permit them to do. The Local government will not for any reason assist the State in carrying out or to maintain its responsibilities. Any contrary action would infringe the doctrine of ultra-vires, which means acting beyond the powers given to it.

The law which binds Local government institutions may be either mandatory or permissive. A mandatory law is one which orders Local government institutions to do something e.g. the provision of schools markets etc. while a permissive law is that which permits the council to establish a rural health service centre within its jurisdiction. However, Local government institutions may pass bye-laws, which is the power and authorities to enable them to carry out their responsibilities.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the foregoing discussion on, Local government administration is a sub-organ entity of the state, where government administration are practiced at the grass-root areas and closer to the people. The evolution of Local government system in Nigeria could be traced back to the colonial era of the British administration. There are six analytical phases of Local government administration in Nigeria, the colonial, the past colonial, the early military era, late military era, the second republic and the second military era and all recorded remarkable achievements in the history of Nigeria. The essentials of Local government administration cannot be ignored because it brings the government closer to the people.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about the evolution of Local government administration in Nigeria. The powers of the Local government institutions are derived from the State. The underlying principles for the creation of Local government institutions vary in geographical areas and diversity of people and culture.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT Question:

1. Define Local Government Administration?
2. Explain the Evolution of Local Government in Nigeria.

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UNIT 5-
COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main content
3.1 Definition and Meaning of Comparative Public Administration
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The emphasis on the shift from the traditional Public administration to comparative Public Administration was heralded after the Second World War because hitherto to that period, literatures on Comparative Public Administration were sketchy. However, 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. It was the turn of events during and after World War II that influenced or changed the state of literature on Comparative Public Administration. Therefore, this unit focuses on the meaning of Comparative Public Administration, the trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration and the factors that influenced the development of Comparative Public Administration as a sub-field of public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, student should be able to:
   (a) Understand the conceptual and operationalmeaning of Comparative Public Administration
   (b) Trace the origin and evolutionary trends of comparative public administration
   (c) Identify the factors that influenced the development or evolution of comparative public administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 Definition and Meaning of Comparative Public Administration

The concept of Comparative public administration has been defined in various ways. It is regarded as a sub-field of Public Administration. According to Comparative Administrative Group (CAG),"Comparative public administration is *a theory of public administration applied to the diverse cultures and national settings and the body of factual data by which it can be examined and tested*. "In his own view, Jong S. Jun

stated that "Comparative public administration has been predominantly cross-cultural or cross-national in orientation."

Nimrod Raphaeli defined "Comparative public administrative as a study of public administration on a comparative basis." He traced the origin of comparative public administration to the 1952 Conference on Administration held at Princeton University in USA. He said, "Comparative public administration is a new corner to the community of academic instruction and research.

Riggs (1973) noted in his definition, that the term "Comparative" should be used only for *empirical, nomothetic and ecological studies.* However, Marume (1976)is of the opinion that comparative public administration is that method of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous systematic cross-cultural comparisons of the structures, institutions actions and processes involved in the activity of running the public affairs.

According to Woodrow Wilson (1887), Of ourselves, so long as we know only ourselves, we know nothing. Thus, Comparative public administration (CPA) is the study of administrative institutions, processes, and behaviors across organizational, national, and cultural boundaries. The CPA is a method of investigation and analysis that compares attributes and performance of administrative systems and subsystems as well as individuals or groups in positions of decision making to generate knowledge and enhance understanding of public management. Comparison recognizes similarities and differences and underscores successful practices, thus, expanding options and alternative strategies for improving the performance of public institutions.

Comparative Public Administration deals with administrative organizations or systems pertaining with different cultures and settings whose similar or dissimilar features or characteristics are studies and compared in order to find out "causes" or "reasons" for efficient or effective performance or behaviour of administrators, civil servants or bureaucrats.

This comparison can be cross-national, namely –the comparison of municipal administration in Ceylon and India. Intra-national like the comparison of Rajasthan and U.P. Secretariat, it can be cross-cultural such as the comparison of budget administration of Nepal and Russia and cross-temporal, such as the comparison of administration of Chandra Gupta Maurya and Akbar or comparison of pre-colonial and post-colonial era/period in Nigeria or Africa in general.

The context (environment) of public administration consists of various external factors that exert significant influences on management action and behavior through different means and channels. External factors include societal values, legal norms, politics, international-global accords, culture, and the state of the economy. Together, these diverse external factors have considerable impact on public management, stimulating or stifling systemic traits and performance.

Consistently, the CPA seeks discovery of patterns and regularities of administrative action and behavior to produce new knowledge and insights and to affirm and refine existing information. The outcome, whether comparative research discovers new knowledge or validates existing information, is that public administration scholars and practitioners are better able to sort out and to adopt most worthy practices. "Comparison is so central to good analysis that the scientific method is unavoidably comparative" (Collier 1991: 7). Similarly, social scientists regard the comparative approach as "the methodological core of the humanistic and scientific methods" (Almond et al. 2000: 33). As a requirement of the scientific investigative process, the comparative approach has frequently been noted and emphasized in public administration literature since Woodrow Wilson's famous article in 1887. After many decades, Dahl's (1947: 8) widely quoted declaration remains true. Namely, as long as the study of public administration is not comparative, "claims of a science of public administration" sound rather hollow.

Dahl concluded that the development of an American, British, or French science of public administration is feasible. But he also inquired: can there be "a science of public administration" in the sense of a body of generalized principles, independent of their peculiar national setting? Comparative studies of organizations and institutions also reinforce under- standing of global influences while expanding the domain of intellectual inquiry beyond traditional, parochial tendencies.

Therefore, comparative public administration can be regarded as the study of public administration on comparative basis, in order to trace any regularities or otherwise in administrative patterns. It is mainly cross-cultural or cross-national, that is , it is not culture bound.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What do you understand by Comparative Public Administration?

3.2 Trends in the Emergence of Comparative Public Administration
Demand for Relevance Comparative studies have been conducted for centuries, producing broad comparative surveys leading to broad generalizations. Most of these cross-state comparisons have been cross-disciplinary (Deutsch 1987: 7). Perhaps the most prominent early user of such comparisons is Aristotle, who combined the Platonic methods of abstraction with the study of concrete cases. Aristotle sent his assistants around the Mediterranean to collect the constitutions of 128 city-states. The result was Aristotle's Politics, a valuable piece of theory which has endured over the centuries, and generating many important cross-disciplinary generalizations (Deutsch 1987: 7).

Although students of comparative administration may consider their subject a product of the post WW II era, actually a strong call for a comparative orientation of public administration goes back to much earlier time. Woodrow Wilson's famous article often referred to as the first articulation of public administration as a field of study, repeatedly

emphasized the comparative approach as the foundation of developing administrative principles. Wilson believed that it is possible, indeed desirable, that we find the regularities and the principles of public administration through comparisons.

In 1887, Wilson wrote that "nowhere else in the whole field of politics, it would seem, can we make use of the historical, comparative method more safely than in this province of administration" (Wilson in Shafritz and Hyde 1997: 25). Profusion of systematic comparative public administration is a fairly recent activity, imprecisely linked to the downfall of colonialism. Scholars who bridged the interests of administration and politics took the lead in the early phase.

In 1953, the American Political Science Association had a committee on comparative administration, before the American Society for Public Administration created the Comparative Administration Group (CAG). During the 1960s, the CAG expanded its activities and attracted over 500 members that included academicians, students, management consultants, and operatives of technical assistance programs to developing countries. Subsequently, the CAG was merged to become the first section of ASPA that subsequently was named Section on International and Comparative Administration (SICA). Fred W. Riggs provided intellectual and organizational leadership to the CAG during its early days. He managed the group, attracted more members, and contributed significant writings that set new directions in comparative studies.

Other names that have been prominently involved during the early years of the comparative enterprise include Dwight Waldo, Milton Esman, Ferrel Heady, Frank Sherwood, Ralph Braibanti, John Montgomery, William Siffin, and others. In a report to the annual meeting of ASPA, April 1961, Fred Riggs specified three emerging trends in the comparative study of public administration: (1) a trend from normative toward more empirical approaches, (2) a shift from idio- graphic (distinct cases) toward nomothetic approaches (studies that seek explicitly to formulate and test propositions), and (3) a shift from predominantly non- ecological to an ecological basis of comparative study (Heady 1962: 2).

3.2   Factors that influenced the Development/evolution of Comparative Public Administration

From the foregoing analysis on the trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration, the specific factors that contributed to the raise and development of comparative public administration were inter alia:
(1)   The revisionist movement in comparative politics due to dissatisfaction with the traditional approaches.
(2)   The dissatisfaction with traditional public administration which was culture-bound.
(3)   Intellectually oriented catalysts, that is, to develop universally relevant theoretical models.

(4) Exposure of American scholars and administrators to the new features of the administrative systems of developing countries during the World War II period.

(5) The emergence of newly independent Third World countries which attempted to achieve rapid socio-economic development, creating opportunities for scientific investigation.

(6) Policy oriented catalysts, that is, to develop the practical knowledge to make policy-formulation and policy-execution more effective.

(7) The scientific, technological and theoretical development which have influenced the forms of administrative structures.

(8) The extension of American foreign aid programme (both political and economic) to newly emerged developing countries.

(9) The rise of behavioural approach in public administration as a reaction to the classical structural approach. However, the behaviour movement in Social Sciences led the students of Public Administration to move away from the traditional legal formal approach and to concentrate on the facts of actual behaviour of human beings in an administrative organization (Bhagwan and Bhushan, 2006:58)

(10) The Comparative studies in sociology, anthropology and other areas.

(11) New scientific, theoretical and technological development that affect the nature of administration

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Briefly trace the evolution of Comparative Public Administration and identify any five factors that influenced its growth

4.0 CONCLUSION
In conclusion, it is the belief that generalizations relating to administrative structures and behaviour, emerging out of comparative studies in different nations and cultures can help to formulate theoretical constructs, which can provide a scientific basis to the study of public administration which according to Dahl is the only basis of regarding public administration as a science. Therefore, comparative public administration is a major shift from the traditional public administration which is culture-bound.

5.0 SUMMARY
The unit attempted a conceptual clarification of the subject matter of Comparative public Administration which is defined by different scholars and groups like Comparative Administration Group (CAG) etc. However, Comparative Public administration is the study of public administration across border that paves way for the universal application of a theory in different settings or cultures, it is cross-cultural study of the administration of various countries in the world, it is the shift towards empiricism, nomothetic and ecological studies.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Discuss the Concept of Comparative Public Administration
Q2. Trace the origin of Comparative Public Administration and
Q3. Briefly discuss any six factors responsible for it development as a specialized field of study

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