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FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION

COURSE GUIDE

Course Code: PAD 868

Course Title: COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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Introduction

PAD 868, Comparative Public Administration is a 3 credit – post graduate level course is designed to enable students acquire knowledge on comparative public administration in the context of developed and developing countries.

The Course Aim

The course is intended to equip students with the concept of comparative administration and assist them appreciate the various systems of administration in developed and developing countries. To achieve this objective, important information are outlined and discussed on the following:

Major concepts in comparative public administration
Differences between public and private administration
Influence of management on public administration
Concept, scope, usefulness and problems of comparative public administration
Theoretical perspectives and models of comparative public administration
Context of Administrative Systems
A Comparative Study of the Pattern of Administration in Traditional and Colonial Africa
Political and Policy Roles of Bureaucracies
Relationship between Interests and Public Agencies
Problems of Bureaucratic Accountability of Political Accessory

COURSE OBJECTIVES

By the end of the course you should be able to:

1. Describe major concepts central to the understanding of comparative administration
2. Discuss the meaning, scope, usefulness, and problems of comparative public administration
3. Explain the theoretical perspectives in comparative public administration
4. Discuss various contexts of administrative systems
5. Describe patterns of administration in traditional and colonial Africa in comparative perspective
6. Identify and explain the roles and problems of bureaucracy in Third World development
7. Define interest groups and outline their relationship with political institutions in different countries
8. Understand the meaning of bureaucratic accountability and highlight its problems

Course Material

The course material package is composed of:

The Course Guide

The Study Units

Self-Assessment Exercises

Tutor-Marked Assignments

References/Further Reading/Further Reading/Further Readings

Study Units

The study units are as listed below:

Unit 1	Conceptual Issues in Comparative Public Administration
Unit 2	Comparative Public Administration: Concept, Focus, Usefulness and Problems
Unit 3	Comparative Public Administration: A Theoretical Perspective
Unit 4	Administrative Systems: Early Administrative Practices
Unit 5	A Comparative Study of the Pattern of Administration in Traditional and Colonial Africa
Unit 6	Political and Policy Roles of Bureaucracies
Unit 7	Relationship between organized Interests and public agencies
Unit 8	Problems of Bureaucratic Accountability

Assignments

Each unit of the course has a self assessment exercise. You will be expected to attempt them as this will enable you understand the content of the unit.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

The Tutor-Marked Assignments at the end of each unit are designed to test your understanding and application of the concepts learned. It is important that these assignments are submitted to your facilitators for assessments. They make up 30 percent of the total score for the course.

Final Examination and Grading

At the end of the course, you will be expected to participate in the final examinations as scheduled. The final examination constitutes 70 percent of the total score for the course.

Summary

This course, **PAD 868, Comparative Public Administration** is designed to equip the students with knowledge, theoretical perspectives for understanding patterns of public administration in the context of developing and developed countries.

UNIT 1 CONCEPTUAL ISSUES IN COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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 - 3.1.4 Influence of Management on Public Administration
 - 3.1.5 Public and Private Administration
 - 3.1.6 Organization
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading/Further Reading/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, attempt is made to clarify some major concepts central to the understanding of comparative public administration such as administration, management, and organization. It also examines the politics-administration dichotomy, public administration as an art or science, and the distinction between public and private administration. In addition, it outlines the influence of management on public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The objective of this unit is to at the end understand:

- the various perspectives on meaning of administration
- the various perspectives on the meaning of organization
- Public administration: as art or science
- Politics – administration dichotomy thesis
- Influence of Management on Public Administration
- Public and Private Administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conceptual Issues In Comparative Public Administration

3.1.1 Administration

For analytical convenience administration can be defined in three perspectives, namely; as course of study, as a practice, and senior personnel of the executive branch of government. As a practice, administration exists when people act together to achieve the goals of their groups through planning, organization, command, cooperation and control. This involves the deployment of men and material resources to achieve set goal. As practice administration is not new. Right from the ancient times, through the medieval to modern age, administration as practice existed across the world. It existed in virtually all human organizations such as the family, association, schools, government agencies, communities, local, state and national government.

As senior personnel of the executive branch, administration is talked about as Balewa administration, Ironsi administration, Gowon administration, Shagari administration, Babangida administration, Abacha administration, Abubakar administration, Obasanjo administration, Yar'Adua administration, Jonathan administration and Buhari administration.

As a field of study, public administration is concerned with the examination of concepts, theories, principles, techniques and processes of administration in public sector organization. Woodrow Wilson pioneered the study which his publication of an article titled the study of administration in Political Science Quarterly in July 1887 in America. Since then public administration is studied in tertiary institutions in many countries of the world including Nigeria. In Nigeria, public administration is the universities, colleges of education, and institute of science and technology.

Public administration covers a range of governmental activities in states. This encapsulates the public service organizations such the federal and state civil services, local government, military and para-military organizations as well as government owned statutory corporation, public enterprises, specialized agencies, independent boards and commission societies. It also covers managerial functions, Luther Gullick and Lyndrall Urwick represented by the acronym planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (POSCORB).

3.1.2 Public administration: an Art or Science

Art is skillful and it involves systematic practice, which is partly inborn, partly acquired. Every art expresses itself through certain avenue. Public administration is an art to the

extent it reflects those attributes of being systematic in practice, inborn and acquired and expressed through certain avenues.

Public administration is like other disciplines in social and management sciences. The subject matter is articulated through data collected and analyzed with the aid of scientific techniques. In public administration, rules and principles have been developed that enable administrators to construct explanations and make prediction based to empirical observation. In sum public administration is both an art and science.

3.1.3 Politics – administration dichotomy thesis

There are two arguments on the relationship between politics and administration. On the one hand, scholars such as Woodrow Wilson, Frank J. Goodnow and Leonard White have argued that politics and administration are separate, distinct or dichotomous. They claimed that politics is concerned with policy making, which is the job of statesmen (elected public officials) while administration has to do with policy execution or implementation which is the responsibility of bureaucrats (career or permanent government officials). To them, public administration is more of business and business methods than politics. According to Leonard White “the mission of administration is economy and efficiency. Also, Frank Goodnow who is credited as the foremost author of a textbook in public administration published in 1900 focused on structures of administration, organization in government and management services such personnel and financial administration.

On the other side of the divide, scholars such as Paul Appleby have held that there is no strict separation between politics and administration. According to Appleby public administration is policy making –public administration is one of the numbers of basic political processes by which people achieve and control government”. Marshal E. Dimock noted that it was unrealistic to say that the field of administration is the field of business and that there is no scope for politics. Politics and administration being sequential parts of the same process that are actually inseparable.

It is instructive to note that these arguments have been laid to rest. Even Woodrow Wilson slightly modified his view on the politics – administration dichotomy and to certain extent accepted that there is no scope for public administration devoid of the influence of politics in democratic system. Arguably, the thought of the early administrative thinkers that politics and administration were distinct was perhaps informed by the fact that public administration was at germinal form which they interpreted differently. The concern of the early administrative thinkers was to create a professionally trained, hierarchical bureaucracy that could be responsible for a united political system. Such division is neither good for public administration nor can it serve the best interest of democratic polity.

3.1.4 Influence of Management on Public Administration

As the politic-administration dichotomy thesis range, some scholars such as K.M. Henderson, J.G. Marchand, Herbert Simon and J.D. Thompson have suggested that public administration is more of management science than political science. These scholars present theoretical reasons for choosing management with emphasis on organization theory as the thrust of public administration. The trend of thought in this debate has reflected in the shifting or dynamic focus in the evolution and development of public administration from 1900.

Between 1900 and 1926, administrative thinkers such as Woodrow Wilson held that politics and public administration were distinct and dichotomous. Between 1927 and 1937, administrative management scholars were concerned with the discovery of scientific principles and how administrators could correctly apply those principles. During this period, Luther Gullick and Lyndall Urwick coined and introduced POSCORB, which stands for Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting.

Subsequently, another school of thought emerged which produced scholars such as Herbert Simon, Robert Dahl and Dwight Waldo. This school of thought questioned the politics-administration dichotomy, and claimed that both cannot really be separated. Scholars of this school of thought also faulted the development of universal principles of administration as infeasible, controversial, inconsistent and contradictory. Thus, the school of school instead of principles of administration advocated for the study of administrative policy making and communication.

This school of thought overlapped with the behavioural era in political science, 1950 and 1970, when comparative and development administration became the focus of public administration. The essence of the deployment of comparative and development administration to the field to according to Fred Riggs is to strength public administration theory.

From 1970 to date, the discipline of public administration as management moved to what is characterized by some scholars to what is characterized as a new public administration. The new public administration scholars seek to make the study and practice of government more relevant to the needs of post-industrial society. These scholars assert that public administration should be more interests in client-focused administration, de-bureaucratization, democratic decision-making and decentralization of administrative process for the interest of more effective and human delivery of public services. The new public administration era also emphasizes the deployment of interdisciplinary programmes in science, technology and public policy.

To conclude, one can assert that management combined with politics is a major influence on the stages of development of public administration. In the current stage, public administration is heavily dominated by concerns for information science and organization theory with reference to the state, local government, executive management, and administrative law.

3.1.5 Public and Private Administration

It has been the concern of some management writers to draw a line of demarcation between the nature of management in the public sector and that obtainable in the private sector. Some areas of differences have been identified. We shall look at the major ones. The primary goal of management in the private sector is maximization of profit. This is a natural consequence of the fact firms are usually set up to make profit. It may be observed however that many modern management writers identify a goal which is usually taken to attract greater priority than profit maximization in the private sector. This goal is the survival of the firm. In the public sector on the other hand the primary goal of administration is service to the society. It therefore emphasizes meeting the needs of the people as politically determined.

In the private sector productivity of factors of production attracts a high priority as an instrument for efficient goals attainment. So the relevance of every factors or action is determined by its contribution to the goal of profit maximization. So there is much room for flexibility and initiative in the administration of firms in the private sector. Even discretion itself has to be used strictly in accordance with rules and regulations.

In the private sector what determines how long an employee stays on the job is his marginal productivity. It follows therefore that an employee's appointment depends on his contribution towards profit maximization. In the public sector on the hand the public servants are usually on tenure or permanent appointment. This is probably because there are always works to be done for the purpose of meeting the needs of the society.

Usually even a situation where an organization in the public services folds up the public servants on tenure appointment get posted to other state positions. It may be observed however that successive military rulers in nigeria have carried out retrenchment of public servants undermining the tradition and rules adopted in termination of appointment of public servants in the public sector.

In the private sector management is ultimately answerable to the shareholders through the board of directors. In the public sector management is ultimately answerable to the people through the government. This arrangement for responsibility to the people was undermined in the various military dictatorships we have had in Nigeria. this is because

in a military rulership political office holders and public servants are answerable to the military dictator in power.

In the private sector the work of the employee can be measured through productivity and efficiency. In the public sector on the other hand it is usually difficult to quantify productivity. So the work of the public servant is measured through performance.

3.1.6 Organization

Organization has been denoted as a social device containing people who operate in interactive situations through framework of formal and informal relationships. People interact horizontally and vertically. Horizontal interaction is with people at the same level of the organization structure. They interact vertically either with their superiors or their subordinates (Osisioma and Osisioma 1999).

Organization can be categorized as either private or public sector organization. Public sector organizations are establishments and institutions that essentially public oriented. They are established by the state through Acts of Parliament (Azelama, 1995; Onimawo, 2017). Examples of public sector organizations include all government ministries, departments and agencies such as the Nigerian Television Authority, local government councils, and government-owned educational institutions like Ambrose Alli University.

In organizations, there are established formal structure and network of social interactions that are not specified. The formal structure provides a framework within which management can adequately control, supervise, delegate and assign responsibilities and synchronize the work done by administrative units and individuals. The informal organization has the potentials for improving the efficiency of disrupting organizational process (Osisioma and Osisioma 1999).

4.0 CONCLUSION

Several concepts are central to comparative administration. The major concepts include administration, public administration, organization and management. Adequate scholarship on the course cannot be achieved without deep appreciation of these concepts.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit provided background information on the concepts of administration, management, organization and public administration. Specifically, it distinguished between public and private administration, the politics-administration dichotomy and the influence of management on administration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Distinguish between public and private administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING/FURTHER READING/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: CONCEPT, FOCUS, USEFULNESS AND PROBLEMS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of comparative public administration
 - 3.2 Distinctions between comparative public administration and traditional public administration
 - 3.3 Areas of Comparison
 - 3.4 Usefulness of Comparative Public Administration
 - 3.5 Problems of Comparative Public Administration
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Comparative public administration is an approach in public administration which emerged after the second world war. it has attracted great intellectual concerns. The areas of comparative public administration can be delineated. As an approach, comparative public administration has some usefulness and problems.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this units, students would be familiar with

- the various meaning of comparative public administration
- distinctions between Comparative public administration and traditional public administration
- areas of Comparison
- the usefulness of public administration
- problems of comparative public administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of comparative public administration

Comparative public administration has been variously defined. Some of the definitions of different scholars are presented hereunder

1. **Nimrod Raphaeli:** "Comparative public administrative is 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."
2. **Robert H. Jackson:** "Comparative public administration is that facet of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous cross-cultural comparisons of the structures and processes involved in the activity of administering public affairs."
3. **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."
4. **Jong S. Jun:** "Comparative public administration has been predominantly cross-cultural or cross-national in orientation."
5. **S.B.M Marume (1976):** 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.

Comparative public administration basically concerns it self with a study of administrative systems to identify commonalties and contrasts in principles, concepts, structures, process, components and environment of admanistration. The idea of comparative public administration presupposes the feasibility of scientific approach to the study of public administration. In line with this argument William .J. Jiffin (1977) argued that

No science of public adminstration is possible unless..... there is a body of comparative studies from which it may be possible to discover principles and generalities that transcend national boundaries and peculiar historical experience

Comparative public administration may be referred to in two major related senses. These are comparative public administration as an aproach and as a field of study. As an

approach comparative public administration is a method in political science and public administration.

As a method it is behavioural in nature and emphasizes extraction, collection and analysis of data on the various aspects of administrative systems in order to establish a pattern which can be adopted for generalization and identification of deviations. As a field of study comparative public administration also as a discipline.

3.2 Distinctions between comparative public administration and traditional public administration

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

- (a) Public administration is 'culture-bound' (ethnocentric) while comparative public administration is 'cross-cultural' in its orientation and thrust. In 1936, L.D. White observed that a principle of administration is as useful a guide to action in the public administration of Russia as of Great Britain, of Iraq as of United States. But later Robert Dahl (in 1947) and Dwight Waldo (in 1948) pointed out that cultural factors could make public administration on one part of the globe quite a different animal from public administration on the other part.
- (b) Public administration is „practitioner-oriented“ and involves the „real world“, whereas comparative public administration attempts to the “theory-building” and “seeks knowledge for the sake of knowledge.” In brief, the comparative public administration has a purely scholarly thrust, as opposed to professional. It addresses itself will require increasing communication between scholars and practitioners in all countries. The American dimension will be viewed as a sub-field or a practical aspect of the broader subject.”

3.3 Areas of Comparison

When carrying out comparative study of public administration one needs to know what constitute the units of analysis. In other words, what are do you study? It may be observed that many new comers into the comparative study of public administration may be of opinion that such a study entails entirely a study of public administration across states or political system. It becomes useful therefore to identify the various areas on which our focus can be directed in comparative study of public administration.

1. Inter state comparison, which refers to a study of administration systems across states. State as used here refers to an independent political unit recognized internally as exercising sovereignty over a particular area of the earth surface.

Adoption of this approach is based on the assumption that there is a uniform administrative system in a particular state at a particular time.

This assumption is not a holistic truth. There are situations where in a particular state, there are different administrative systems put in place. An example is local government administration in Nigeria before the 1976 reforms. The areas of difference which may exist notwithstanding, it is usually rewarding to carry out a comparative study of administrative systems across states. Adopted this method one can study the public administrative systems in states like Nigeria, Ghana, India, China, USA, France, Germany, etc.

2. Intra-state Comparison, by which public administrative system obtainable in the same state at a particular time can be studied comparatively. This kind of study becomes particularly relevant when there are differences in the administrative systems adopted. Even where there is a uniform administrative system adopted in the state the method still becomes relevant where there are major differences in the ecology or environment of administration within the political system. Such differences within the environment may lead to different results emanating from the same administrative system adopted.
3. Development stages as an area of comparison is another area. A comparative study of public administration can be done across political system or within a state. In adopting this method there can be study of public administration in the traditional system, the transitional system and the modern system. It may be noted that these three simple stages are perhaps the most commonly adopted.

W.W. Reston's stages of economic development. These stages are the traditional stage, the pre-condition for take-off, the take off, the drive towards maturity and the stage of high mass consumption.

Almond and Powell in their work "the developmental approach to the political system"² identified the stage of state building, nation building or integration and the stage of the problem of high demand for participation. There are many other stages identified by different writers. In carrying out a comparative study of public administration in the political system or systems the nature of the administrative system in one stage can be studied in comparison to that in another stage.

4. A comparative study of administrative system may be based on periods. So in a particular political system chosen particular periods can be identified. Then a comparative study of public administration in those periods is carried out. Usually in identification of period for study there are instruments adopted to identify considerable variables which would have dictated differences either in the nature of

the administrative system or in the environment of the administration. So there can be short period with remarkable differences. There can also be long periods with negligible differences.

5. Ideological instrument has been adopted. A comparative study of political systems operating different ideologies or similar ideologies can be carried out. For instance, administrative systems in capitalist states, socialist states, communist states, etc, can be studied. There can also be a comparative study of different states adopting the same ideology at a particular time. For instance, the public administrative systems in communist China and former USSR within a particular period or across periods can be studied.
6. Theories can be the basis for comparative study: Different political systems where the same administrative theories have been adopted may be studied in relation to one another. Also different administrative systems where similar administrative theories have been adopted may also be studied. The purpose is to identify the impact of such theories on the administrative systems.
7. Peculiar challenges are a basis for comparative study: Political systems which have experienced similar crises or challenges can be studied. The purpose is to analyze the nature of administrative system adopted in an attempt to provide solution to the problem. Such challenges may be war, economic recession, frequent internal insurrection, etc.
8. There can be a comparative study of the theories of public administration. Such a study is a natural consequence of the fact that even theories which are grouped together because they focus on the same aspect of administrative system may have differences. For example there are areas of difference between the classical theories. These are the Weberian bureaucracy, Frederick Taylor's Scientific management and Henri Fayol principles of administration.

Also in theories of organizational behaviour there are basic differences. Such differences are identifiable in McGregor's theory X and theory Y, Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two factor theory, etc. Even when a particular theory is studied there are usually differences in the way it is adopted across administrative systems.

There are other bases of comparison of administrative systems. They include democratic and non-democratic systems, religious and secular systems, military and non-military system, etc.

3.4 Usefulness of Comparative Public Administration

Some scholars, mainly of the normative persuasion, have argued that comparative administration effort does not worth the rigour associate with it. They emphasize that data derived from such an exercise do not always have a high analytical and empirical utility. This is because, they argue, it is difficult to understand the value and other factors which influence the establishment of a particular administrative process or structure.

This argument notwithstanding there are benefits derivable from comparative public administration which cannot be ignored. We shall identify the major ones.

1. Comparative administration is indispensable in scientific study of public administration. Scientific study of public administration cannot exist without theories. Theory building requires data on the phenomena studied to be empirical. Comparative public administration offers an opportunity for data to be collected on units of analysis of the administrative system of systems studied. Such data are required for establishment of principles generalization etc required for theory building. Robert Dahl recognized the indispensability of the comparative approach to the study of public administration if it must be scientific. So he argued that:

The comparative aspects of public administration have been ignored and as long as the study of public administration is not comparative claims for “a science of public administration sound rather hollow. Conceivably there might be a science of American public administration and a science of British public administration and a science of French public administration but can there be a science of public administration in the sense of a body of generalized principle independent of their peculiar national setting?”³

2. Comparative public administration may lead to adoption of an administrative system or a part of it that has worked elsewhere. It has led to new states adopting administrative systems obtainable in the industrialized nations. There have also been situations where industrialized nations have borrowed a leaf from the third world countries in providing solutions to their problems of public administration. In relation to this argument Ferrel Heady argument that:

The influence of western pattern of administration in the newly independent countries is well-known and easily understandable. Less obvious is the growing interest in larger countries concerning administrative machinery originated in the new nations.

3. A comparative approach to the study of public administration leads to an in-depth understanding of the administrative systems studied. When an entity is studied in

relation to another there is a tendency of a rigorous analysis to be carried out. A vivid examination of various facets is done either in an attempt to identify similarities or to establish dissimilarities. This aids added understanding of the phenomena.

4. As a result of comparative public administration data on administrative systems are produced. This leads to available information, check list or data which can be obtained and utilized for various purposes. This same advantage is derived from comparative politics. So across the globe the information is made available in a processed form and presented in a manner people can easily have access to like diary etc.
5. A political system encountering particular problems especially relating to its public administrative system may study the administrative systems of other political systems that have had similar problems in the past. Such a study may lead to identification of how the particular problems can be provided solutions to through the instrumentality of public administration.
6. Comparative public administration may lead to improved efficiency in the administrative system of some states. This happens when a particular state identifies aspects of the administrative system of another which when adopted may lead to an improvement or increased efficiency. It has been argued for instance that in adopting the indirect rule system in the northern part of Nigeria Lord Lugard utilized the idea which he had seen working in Uganda. He adapted it for adoption in the Nigerian environment.
7. Comparative public administration offers an opportunity for theory testing. There can be a comparative study of the impact of administrative theories adopted either across political systems or at different periods in political systems. Such a study could lead to identification of the areas of imperfection of the theory. Where efforts are consequently geared towards a modification of the theory, it becomes further enriched and more relevant.

3.5 Problems of Comparative Public Administration

There are certain problems associated with comparative public administration both as an approach and as a field of specialization within political science or public administration. We are going to pay attention to the major ones.

One of the problems is that of resistance by scholars who continue to be skeptical about the feasibility of the scientific or behavioural approach to the study of social phenomena among which are public administration and political science. Such scholars mostly of the

normative persuasion regard collection of data, analysis of data and consequent theory building in the area of comparative public administration as unrealistic. Their major area of criticism therefore is the doubt about the science of public administration.

A second problem associated with a comparative study of public administration is the indispensability of sufficient knowledge of the political system studies for adequate knowledge of the administrative system.

In every political system the public administrative system is a subsystem of the whole. A claim of isolating the administrative system for study would amount to unrealistic oversimplification. So to carry out a meaningful study of an administrative system there is a need to understand the environment where the system grew. It may be observed that this need is not peculiar to comparative study of administration alone. Rather it is required in the study of any component or sub-system of an entity in social and management sciences.

A third problem of the comparative study of public administration is that of the value of the investigator. It is difficult to completely prevent the value of a scholar from colouring his perception of the administrative phenomena studied. This may lead to collection of data the empirical utility of which is reduced by the bias of the researcher. It may be observed that this problem is also not restricted to comparative public administration. Rather it is associated with the study of every aspect of social science.

There is also the problem of conflicting data emanating from the study of the same administrative phenomenon at the same time by different social scientists. Such a problem does not necessarily suggest that the studies have presented comparative public administration as unrealistic. Rather such conflicts, where detected, are pointing at the need for further investigation into the administrative phenomena. Such further study would add to the body of knowledge available on the phenomena studied.

There is a fifth problem detected. This relates to the tendency of over-mathematization for the purpose of establishing a relationship between variables or demolishing an already established one between variables. A researcher may choose particular statistical methods and techniques which can help him to play on figures or to control information to arrive at a conclusion which supports his/her bias.

It has been observed that in some social science disciplines, like economics, presentation of complex statistical calculations may wrongly be viewed as a value and evidence of rigorous work. It can therefore lead to an unrealistic work getting viewed as a great.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are different definitional perspectives of comparative public administration. Also comparative public administration is different from traditional public administration. There are delineated areas of comparison in comparative public administration. Comparative public administration serves various useful purposes but suffers from certain limitations.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit outlined various definitions of comparative public administration. It distinguished between comparative public administration and traditional public administration. It further identifies areas of comparison, usefulness and problems of comparative public administration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Outline and discuss the usefulness and problems of comparative public administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

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 - 3.1 The Traditional Model
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 - 3.3 Structural-Functionalism
 - 3.4 The System Theory
 - 3.5 The Elite Model
 - 3.6 Development Theories
 - 3.7 The Bureaucratic Model
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses theories of comparative public administration. There is a corollary of the fact that public administration as a discipline has political sciences as its parent discipline. It is that there is an area of great similarities between theories of comparative politics and comparative public administration. We shall present an overview of the theories selected.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At end of this unit, the students would be familiar with

- theories of comparative public administration
- similarities between theories of comparative public administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Comparative Public Administration: A Theoretical Perspective

3.1 THE TRADITIONAL MODEL

As in every aspect of political science the traditional model in the study of comparative public administration draws heavily on the normative or stipulative ideas about the management of the society. There is an emphasis on custom, ideals, history, laws, institutions, primitive empiricism etc, which are closely related to political philosophy and philosophy of administration.

So the work of many political philosophers on how to order the society to attain certain goals were basic political ideas among which comparison could be made. Prominent among these political philosophers are Plato, St. Augustine, Hegel, St. Thomas Aquinas, St. Thomas Moore, Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, etc. These writers were preoccupied with value positions relating to what ought to be; what should be the purpose of the organized society; how the society should be organized to meet its identified purpose,¹ etc. Purposes of successfully organized societies were also identified, analyzed and compared. Common among them were liberty, peace, freedom, right, justice, equality, love, in some cases, even attainment of heaven.

It may be observed however that political philosophy especially in the area of organization and ordering of the state was not completely devoid of empiricism. Many of the thinkers were concerned with empirical problems in the area of organization of the state. This is what has led to describing such ideas as based on empiricism, but at a lower level, when compared to what is obtainable in positive science or behavioural theories. The traditional approach also concerned itself with political history. Efforts were made to find out how societies were organized in the past. There was an emphasis on the types of organization of the state that led to problems and those that were solutions to problems. So prominent among the phenomena studied were dynasties, kings, parliaments, courts, wars, crises, property, regime change, development, stability, etc.

The traditional model also emphasized the study of law. It concerned itself with the institutions that made the law, executed the law and interpreted the law. This made the approach institutional. This is because state structures or institutions put in place for the purpose of performing the identified functions of the state were studied.

The traditional approach has been associated with many weaknesses. We shall look at the major ones.

1. The method was accused of being stipulative. They took a normative position and established the value position as what had to be. They allowed little room for contesting their value of position.
2. As a result of the stipulative nature, little attention was paid to empiricism. It led to a tenacity in preserving and sustaining an idea not because the idea was found to be empirical, but because it emanated from a person regarded as an authority in the area.
3. The method did not pay a meaningful attention to informal structures, processes and actors. They were duly concerned with the formal position. In line with this argument the classical organization theorists like Max Weber, Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol did not only fail to analyze the informal structure of the organization they regarded them as aspects which should not be encouraged.
4. The traditional approach was basically interested in describing the features or characteristics of structure and therefore paid inadequate attention to identifying and analyzing regularities, commonalities, peculiarities, deviations and the variables to which they could be traced.
5. There was also little attention paid to the interaction between the administrative structures and their environment. This reduced the utility of their findings especially in the area of adopting them in societies with different ecology.
6. The emphasis on value in the traditional method and the frustration which followed failed attempt to transplant the institutions, principles and processes to different environments instigated ethno-centrism. This was the case especially when Western scholars attempted to study the organizations of the societies in the third world adopting the principles developed in their societies.
7. The traditional approach led to a low pace of development of comparative politics and comparative public administration. Emphasis on authority, value tenacity, etc. gave little room for investigations into what was already preserved as the final truth which was in any case inadequate.

As a result of these weaknesses some scholars started becoming impatient with the traditional method in the 20th century. There was also the irresistible need to make the study of politics scientific. In the area of public administration there were new management principles coming up. These led to adopting a behavioural approach or modes in the comparative study of public administration.

Enduring Principles

It may be observed however that there are some principles, concepts, theories in management and comparative public administration which have endured up to the behavioural and post behavioural periods. This is because such principles are so useful in management of societies that they cannot be ignored. Referring to this work Harold Kootz, Cyril O. Donnell and Heinz Wehrich argued that:

Many records and ideas relating to management date from antiquity. Among these are records of Egyptians, the early Greeks and the ancient Romans. In addition, there have been the experience and administrative practices of the Catholic Church, Military organization, and the cameralists of the sixteen to the eighteenth centuries.²

Referring to management principles adopted in organization of societies developed by the Catholic Church these writers observed.

Striking examples of these techniques are the development of hierarchy of authority with scalar territorial organization, the specialization of activities along functional lines and early intelligent use of staff device.³

Another scholar expressed a surprise over the protracted delay many organizations to copy form the management principles developed and utilized by the Catholic Church. This management writer attributed the failure and neglect of these principles by many organizations of the world to what he called “nothing but the general neglect of the study of organization”⁴.

3.2 Behavioural Theories

The scientific theories adopted in the study of comparative politics and public administration are also referred to as the behavioural theories. The scientific approach to the study of the society, an epistemology otherwise known as positive science is based on some major assumption. These are:

1. There is regularity in nature. This same assumption forms the foundation for classification in nature sciences. So matter can be classified into plants and animals etc. similarly, there is regularity in administrative systems, administrative behaviour, administrative processes, etc, across states.
2. The human mind can study nature. This means that man is capable of understanding the working of nature including the arrangement and relationships in the human societies.
3. Relativity of Knowledge. This means that knowledge is not static. It is dynamic. So what was regarded as the truth and therefore formed a body of knowledge yesteryears may be found not to be true in the past may be incorporated into the body of knowledge as truth today.
4. Nothing is self evident. Knowledge or an aspect of it should not be regarded as complete as the fact just because it is taken as self evident or apparent. Researches have to be conducted to establish the knowledge empirically.

5. Every natural phenomenon has a natural cause. So there must be an explanation behind every human behaviour whether the behaviour is negative or positive. Such explanations may be adapted through an interdisciplinary approach.
6. Statistical calculations aid in establishing a relationship between variables of the phenomenon studied. The level of precision attainable in soft science is adequate study of social phenomena.

Factors Which Gave Rise To Behavioural Approach

Certain factors gave rise to the behavioural approach to the comparative study of public administration and politics. One of them is the failure of the traditional approach in the study of the new states. The traditional model ran into problems when they were adopted to study the administrative systems in the third world countries. This was a result of differences in the environment historical experiences and aspirations between these new nations and those of the west. There was a need for development of techniques which would be suitable for universal application.

There were remarkable achievements made in the fields of psychology, sociology etc. where the behavioural methods had been adopted. So there was a compelling desire for it to be adopted in the study of politics and public administration.

Thirdly there was a need for theory building. In areas where the scientific methods had been adopted theories had been built. These theories or models raised the level of generalization, universal applicability and empiricism of the study.

Behaviouralism can be regarded as a method and as a movement. As a method it entails the following stages. The phenomenon to be studied must be early defined. The expectations or the theoretical statements which may be in form of research questions or hypotheses must be clearly stated as tentative or expected relationships between the variables. There must be observation. The observation or data are then related to the hypotheses. There is a clear statement of the result.

As a movement behaviouralism is propagated by social science scholars who believe that scientific study of public administration and politics is possible. The need for this propagation arises from a resistance put in place by other scholars in the study of human behaviour who are skeptical about the application of the scientific methods to the study of human behaviour and societies. We shall now direct our focus on some behavioural theories adopted in the comparative study of politics and public administration. Some of these theories are normative while others are behavioural.

3.3 Structural-Functionalism

Talcot Parsons is perhaps the most frequently mentioned writer among others in a systematic arrangement of the structural functional analysis. According to the theory one important approach which can be adopted in the study of the society and the political system is the structural functional approach. The theory emphasizes that if a system is to be maintained adequately there are requisite structures which must perform indisciplined functions. So if a political system is to be maintained adequately, or attain its goals efficiently functions could be regarded as interest articulation, these aggregation, political recruitment, political education political socialization, system maintenance, order, political development, law making, law implementation, adjudication, international relation e.t.c this theory recognizes the need for structures to be put in place to perform these functions adequately. So in adopting this theory in political system requisite functions must be identified. Then structures which perform these functions adequately. So in adopting this theory in political system requisite functions must be identified. Then structures which perform these functions are located. So function can be traced to the structure while structures can be located first then an attempt is made to identify the function they perform.

One other important aspect of the structural functional analysis is the emphasis on adequate maintenance of the system. So where the system is seen not to be adequately maintained you can identify the structures which are not performed adequately and detect the structure which are not performing their function adequately. Here lies the utility of the structural functional model as a tool for comparative political analysis. It can therefore be adopted for a comparative study of political systems, aspects of a political system, administrative systems, etc.

Structural functionalism can also be adopted for comparative public administration. In the first place a public administration system. So it becomes a structure which has to be adequately maintained.

Also the public administrative system is made up of structures which perform various functions. These functions are stimulation, identification and communication of policy formulation, implementation and monitoring of policy output. If the public administration system is to be maintained adequately, there must be structures performing these functions adequately.

It may be observed that a public administrative system is to the political system what the blood circulatory system is to the human biological system. This is because the public administrative system serves every facet of the political system and even the society. Public servants serve in the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. They also minister to the press, political parties, interest groups, families, etc.

Structural functionalism can be adopted as a tool for a comparative study of public administration. This is done when it serves as an analytical tool for the study of administrative functions and the structures that perform them. This can be done within a component of an administrative system in a state; between administrative systems among states and at different periods. It can also be adopted to identify the impact of other theories on a public administrative system or systems, etc.

3.4 The System Theory

The system theory can be traced to the work of microbiologists. It has however been adopted in every science discipline both social sciences and natural science. David Easton is one of the leading scholars in application of the system approach to the study of the political system. The system model as a tool of political analysis is characterized by certain elements. One of them is that a political system is an entity made up of identifiable boundaries. The boundaries demarcate the political system from other political systems and its environment. The second element is that the relationship between the political system and its environment is that of interaction. The political system is influenced by the political system.

The third element is that every political system is an entity made up of smaller entities, component parts or subsystems which are interdependent and interrelated. So when one component has a problem the other components and the entire system would be affected. The fourth characteristic of a political system is that it takes demand inputs from the environment which it processes into output. This activity involves preparing demand inputs in the environment pressing the demand inputs on the conversion box which is the body that makes laws and policy and processing the demand inputs into output. This output is in the form of law and policy which is expected to provide a solution to the problem in the environment that led the affected persons to prepare the demand inputs in the first place.

The output may be accepted by the persons in the environment in which case it is positive. It may be rejected in the environment either by those from whom the demand input emanated or those who are adversely affected by the resultant output. In this case the output is negative. It then leads to further demands which are pressed on the conversion box.

Like a biological system, a political system can be given birth to. It grows. It develops. It can be healthy in which case it is adequately maintained and plays its role efficiently. It can be pathological or sick or unhealthy. This happens when there is no sufficient interaction between the system and its environment. This may be a result of the environment not interacting.

It can also happen when there is too much gate-keeping. This means that the conversion box puts obstacles in the way of those pressing demand inputs on it. The political system can also be pathological when conversion of demand inputs into evasive. So laws and politics made are done in such a way that they are not a reflection of the solutions to the problems in the environment which led to the demand input. The political system is then regarded as suffering from input overload either because it fails to process many important demand inputs into output or the output is at variance with the expectation of the members of the environment who press the demand inputs on the conversion box.

The system approach has also been adopted in analysis in management science which public administration is a part of by some prominent scholars. Among these scholars are E. Kast and E. Rosenzweig in their work, organization and management system approach.⁵ Their work recognizes the fact that the work management is carried out within an organization.

Adoption of the system approach to the analysis of an organization leads to its perception as an organizational system. The system approach is also adopted in analysis of management itself. An organizational system is an entity with identifiable boundaries, it is an open system. This means that there are interactions between the environment and the system. So the organizational system influences its environment and get influenced by the environment.

The organizational system is an entity made up of component parts or subsystems which are interdependent and interrelated. It takes in input from the environment. These inputs are in form of human and non-human resources. These inputs are processed and released into the environment in form of goods and services. An organizational system can be given birth to. It can develop. It can be sick or pathological. It can die, all depending on what happens between it and the environment in their interactions.

When the system approach is adopted in the analysis of management, management is perceived as a systematized process. It is made up of components like input determination and procurement, task determination and accomplishment co-ordination, output control, etc.

Where the system approach is adopted in analysis either of organization or management it is a relevant tool in comparative study of public administration. When the method of organizational system is adopted in a comparative analysis of administrative systems can be done. There can also be a comparative analysis of components or subsystems of administrative systems.

The approach may be adopted for a comparative analysis of impacts of a policy or a theory on administrative systems. This may be done through a comparative study of the

administrative system before the policy or adoption of the theory or after it. The system approach may also be adopted to study the impact of different environments on administrative systems. Where a system approach to analysis of management is adopted it can be utilized for a comparative study of the various stages or activities in the management either in an administrative system or across administrative systems.

3.5 The Elite Model

The elite theory is associated with many writers prominent among whom are David Apter, Rothwell F. and Lester Seligamen. Elite means the privileged few. So in every society, group, organization or association there are different types of elite. So we can talk about educational elite, economic elite, religious elite etc.

The main argument of the elite theory can be summarized as follows:-

1. it is the elites that rule in every society. The implication of this argument is that no matter the effort geared towards democracy, whether it is based on the western democratic philosophy or the Eastern democratic socialism or the African democratic centralism or even the Arabian Islamic democracy, in the final analysis it is the privileged few or the elites that rule.
2. The Interest of the elites is antagonistic to the interest of the masses. There are certain privileges which the elites enjoy in every society which they would not allow to go round. Also they struggle to differ from the masses and remain in the upper part of the social ladder.

The masses on their own struggle to move up and join the elite in the upper rung of the social ladder. As a result of this struggle there are usually conflicting interests between the elites and the masses. The elites would adopt various strategies to rationalize and justify their privileges. The masses usually frown at such privileges.

3. The elite rule according to their own interest. No matter the efforts and strategies adopted aimed at democratization of the interest aggregation, interest articulation, political communication etc., societies and groups are usually arranged in such a way that the interest of the elite attracts higher priority than that of the masses. In fact, in most cases the elites focus on protecting the interest of the masses when they identify that they endanger their own interest if they do not.

The elite theory is a natural consequence of social stratification. It is based on the recognition that in every human collectivity people belong to different strata. We can therefore talk about different levels in the categorization. This suggests that

the elites do not belong to a uniform group. Yet they often identify their areas of common interests and seek to protect them.

Basically emphasis on justice equality, freedom, etc, would lead to perception of elite as the privileged few from who the masses struggle to get liberty, equality, justice, etc. where the ideas of group theory, games theory and the Marxian class struggle are introduced, then the elites would be seen as the selfish group which exploit the masses

for their own benefit.

There is however a different facet in which the elites can be perceived. They can be studied as the group which mid-wife development in various societies. For instance Lester Seligson⁶ looked at the role of elites in relation to recruitment and political development.

In adopting the elite theory in comparative studies on political science and public administration, the emphasis can be on the comparative contributions of the various forms of elite to development across political systems. In relation to the third world countries, for instance, there have been comparative contributions of elites, the military, etc. towards modernization.

One important element often identified in such comparative studies is that there are situations where the particular elite that is expected to lead in bringing about modernization turns out not to be the one that plays the role. It may be observed that it is difficult to understand political and administrative issues in the third world countries when an attempt is made to study them in isolation. The control of these countries by the powerful developed nations is so much that they usually are not allowed to take their destiny in their hands.

One other area where the elite theory becomes useful in the comparative study of public administration is to look at the influence of the elite on the role of the public servants across political systems or within a particular political system. Across political systems bureaucrats have become so powerful elites that they can determine success or failure of policies. Bureaucrats may also identify their own interest. So any policy that fundamentally negates this interest can be frustrated at the level of implementation. This power is prominently referred to as the concept of administrative state.

Also adopting the elite model the nature of stratification in a particular public administrative system can be studied. In this case an attempt can be made to identify the degree of influence which various groups or actors in the public service have on the third world what such studies have revealed is that study of the formal administrative systems does not show much about power relation within the bureaucracy. In varied degrees,

factors like ethnicity, primordial ties, feudalism, associations, etc have been found to be vary important in determining the degree of influence in these countries.

3.6 Development Theories

These are theories that look at different aspects of development. The theories have to be many because of two major reasons. One is that development as a concept has a philosophical aspect. This means that there is no agreement among scholars on what constitutes development and how to go about developing a given society. Secondly even where some persons accept a particular meaning of development and how to go about developing there are various aspects of the society to be developed. So scholars are attracted by different facets of development, social development, political development, and the relationship between them.

Many scholars look at the major stages in the development of the society. Some have three stages. There are the traditional society, the transitional society and the modern society. Even where this categorization is adopted it is difficult to have water-tight distinguishing characteristics especially when a comparative study is carried out. Prominent among the scholars who have attempted to classify societies according to their levels of development are Talcott Pasons, Fred Riggs, Marning Nash, Karl Marx, Bert Hoselitz, W.W Rostow, Almond and Rowell, Max Weber, etc.

Marx Weber and Talcott Parsons for example were interested in economic development and cultural changes. They looked at the cultural dichotomies obtainable in underdeveloped and developed socio-economic systems so they presented these features on the left for the developed societies and those on the right for developing societies.

Developed Societies

Universalism
Achievement
Specificity
Self Orientation

Underdeveloped Societies

Particularism
Ascription
Diffusion
Collectivity Orientation

The last two dichotomies were added by Hoselitz in his book, Social Structure and Economic Growth.

Manning Nash also presented a dichotomy of cultural variables identifiable in developed and developing nations.

This approach is often adopted to support the argument of some scholars, bureaucrats, political leaders, etc. who support the idea of technical assistance, technology transfer for the purpose of development of the underdeveloped nations. W.W Rostow wrote on the

stages of economic growth. The stages he identified are; the traditional stage, the pre-condition for take-off, the take off, drive towards maturity and high mass consumption. Criticism often raised against many theories of development especially those propounded by the western scholars is that they take their society as a model which the third world countries must copy from. They therefore assume that the stages which they have identified in the western societies in their process of growth are the same stages which must be passed by the third world countries.

In adopting the development theories in comparative public administration any of the theories can be picked. The society where it had been applied is identified. The nature of the public administration in the society during its application can be compared to the public administration in another society. The role of the administrative system in adoption of the theory can be compared across political systems. The administrative system in different stages of the process of development can be compared.

3.7 The Bureaucratic Model

The theory of bureaucratic organization as put in place by Marx Weber is one of the classical designs or classical organization design or classical organization theories. It, to that extent, does not come under the behavioural theories. Like other classical design theories the bureaucratic organization model adopts a mechanistic approach to the perception of an organization. It also perceives human beings in the organization as machines. It emphasizes on the role of informal relationship and non-economic instrument of motivation.

The Weberian bureaucratic organization model offers principles which have been found enduring in management of complex organizations. In spite of its several imperfections identified, its principles have been found mostly identifiable in management of every complex organization.

In this theory of bureaucratic organization Marx Weber was concerned about how to achieve stability, discipline, precision, predictability, reliability, etc, in a complex organization. He therefore prescribed the following principles.

1. Tasks necessary for the attainment of goals are divided into highly specialized jobs. This strategy is regarded as division of labour by many writers on bureaucracy. Weber argued that job holders could become experts in their jobs and could be relied upon for efficient accomplishment of tasks.
2. Each task is to be performed according to a consistent system of abstract rules to ensure uniformity, predictability and successful co-ordination of different tasks. The rationale for this practice is that the manager can eliminate uncertainty in tasks due to personal difference.

3. Each member of the organization is accountable to a superior. The authority wielded by a superior is based on expert knowledge and it is legitimated by the fact that it is delegated from the top, a chain of command is created.
4. Each member of the organization does his work in an impersonal formalistic manner maintaining a social distance with subordinates. The purpose of this practice is to ensure that personalities do not interfere with efficient accomplishment of task and realization of the objectives of the organization.
5. Employment in the bureaucratic organization is based on technical qualification or merit. Informal consideration like favoritism should not come into play in selection of candidates for employment.

Every employment should be protected against arbitrary dismissal. Promotion should be based on seniority and achievement. Thus employment in the organization is viewed as life long career.

The principles of the model of bureaucratic organization can be adopted for a comparative study of administrative systems. The degree of adoption of each of the principles and the impacts can be studied in one administrative system at different periods. Also they can be studied across political and administrative systems.

Where bureaucracy is adopted to refer to the public service the nature and role of the public servants can be studied in relation to administrative systems. In this case the various type, the generalist type, the specialist type, etc, can be studied comparatively. Adoption of bureaucracy in one organization can be studied in comparison to another in the public service of a particular state.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are various theoretical perspectives in study comparative public administration. Each theory has defined focus which differentiate it from other theories

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examines major theories for understanding comparative public administration. These theories include the traditional theories, behavioural theories, structural-functional approach, system theory, elite theory, development theories and bureaucratic model

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Compare the system of administration in America and Britain

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEMS: EARLY ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Early administrative practices
 - 3.2 Administrative Systems in Developed Nations
 - 3.3 Administrative Systems in the Third World
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students would understand;

- early administrative practices
- administrative pattern developed and developing countries

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Early administrative practices

The development of thought on administration dates back to the days when people first attempted to accomplish goals by working together in groups. “Although modern operational management theory dates primarily from the early twentieth century, with the work of Federick Taylor and Henri, Fayol, there where serious thinking and theorizing about management many years before.”¹

Many records and ideas relating to management are old. They include records of the Egyptians, the early Greeks and the Ancient Roman. There have been in addition, the experience and administrative practices of the Catholic church, military organization and the cameralists of the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries.

Early interpretations of the Egyptian papyri revealed the importance of organization and administration in bureaucratic states of old states including China. Practical Suggestions

for proper public administration and admonitions to choose honest, unselfish, and capable public officers are included in Confucius parables.

The very existence of the Athenian common-wealth with its councils, popular courts, administrative officials and board of generals, shows an application of the managerial functions although the records of early Greece do not give much insight into the principles of management.

The existence of the Roman magistrates, with their functional areas of authority and degree of their importance, indicate a scalar relationship as a characteristic of their organizations. Indeed, it is thought that the real genius of the Roman and the secret of success of the Roman Empire lay in the ability of people to organize.

The Catholic Church

The Catholic Church has been identified by some management writers as major formal organization and state form which many modern principles of public sector management emerged. Striking examples of these techniques are the development of the hierarchy of authority with its scalar organization, the specialization of activities along functional lines and the early use of staff device. However this unique organization of the Catholic Church did not take root in other organizations until recently.²

The Military Organization

Some of the important principles and practices of modern management are traceable to the military organizations. This is as a result of the problems of managing a large group of people compelling them to develop organizational principles. The military gradually improved their techniques of leadership although it was fairly simple until recent times. Among the most important of these has been the staff principle. Although the term “general staff” was used in the French Army of 1790, and although certain staff functions have characterized military organizations for many centuries, the modern concept of general staff can be traced to the Prussian armies of the nineteenth century³. Under a chief of staff, this group of people provided specialized advice and information, supplied auxiliary services which today is an essential feature of the military.

The Cameralists

“A group of German and Austrian Public Administrators and intellectuals frequently referred to the Cameralists, the British mercantilist and French physiocratic schools of Political Economy emphasized the need to create wealth for the state”⁴ However the cameralist school was one of the earliest groups which emphasized systematic administration and practiced it.

The cameralists believed in the universal nature of management techniques, arguing that the proper administration of the state and its departments were similar to the same qualities which increased individuals' wealth.

They emphasized specialization function, care in selection and training of subordinates for administrative positions, establishment of the office of controller in the government, expedition of legal processes and simplification of administrative procedures.

3.2 Administrative Systems in Developed Nations

Tracing the political and administrative evolution of the developed nations, one would find it helpful to mention some of the various meanings that have been hinged on the term "development" and to clarify the manner in which political development is used. Development is a concept widely used to refer to major societal transformations involving social, economic and political change. Joseph J. Spengler states that "Development generally takes place when an index of that which is deemed desirable and relatively preferable increases in magnitude"⁵.

However development could be referred to "a systematic process involving complementary changes in the geographic, economic, political, communication and cultural sectors of a society"⁶

Among economists, disagreements have not been over the means of accomplishing it. Political scientists on the other hand, have had a number of disputes with the very concepts of political development. Eisenstadt and Diamant compared political development with "the ability of a political system to grow or adjust to new demands put upon it"⁷. Gabriel Almond proposed a similar conception of political change using "change" as another word for "development". The criterion of political changes is "the acquisition of a new capability in the sense of a specialized role structure and differentiated orientations which together give the political system the possibility or responding efficiently to a new range of problem"⁸.

The evolution of political and administrative institutions in Western Europe becomes of direct importance not only to the nation-states but also to the other countries that are already largely developed politically, and to the scores of nations both old and new that strive toward modernization.

Given the historical background of the dominant lines of evolution in the process of political and administrative modernization, as this process is identified with the Western European experience, we need to consider more closely the leading characteristics of these particular "modernized" politics and of other like them. These characteristics include that the procedures for making political decisions are highly rational and secular,

the system of governmental organization is highly differentiated and functionally specific, and the allocation of political roles is by achievement rather than ascriptions.

The volume and range of political and administrative activity is extensive, permeating all spheres of life in the society, and the tendency is toward a further extension. There is a high correlation between political power and legitimacy, also popular interest and involvement in the political system is widespread.

The “classic” Administrative Systems- France And Germany

The bureaucraties of France and Germany have certain characteristics with Max Weber’s description of bureaucracies. The writings of Weber have sometimes been referred to as “classic” bureaucratic theory and it is in this vein that the administrative systems have been termed “classic” here.

Therefore it is safe to refer to the political cultures of France and Germany as similar in basic respects.

“In France, it meant the violent overthrow of the monarchy brought about by French Revolution, followed by the era of Napoleon, experiments with constitutional monarchy alternating with republican government to 1870 and succession of crises during the third and fourth republic, culminating in the fifth republic of De Gaulle. Since 1789 France has been a constitutional monarchy three times, an empire twice, a semi-dictatorship once and five times a republic” with most of the transitions taking place as a result of violence”⁹

It has further been noted that:

“Germany has gone through even more disruptive changes. The rise of Prussia eventually led to the establishment of a unified Reich under Bismarck in 1871, the German Empire in 1918, the Weimar Republic after World War I, Nazi dictatorship and the post-world war II division between East and West Germany. The German political heritage is one of disunity, frustration and the absence of any well established political culture.”¹⁰

It is important to add that Germany has become reunited in spite of this turbulence, both France and Germany have had remarkable administrative and bureaucratic continuity. The core or government in a unified Germany whose administrative pattern remained unchanged is the Prussian administration; acknowledged to be the forerunner of modern bureaucracy. While in France, the administrative instrument that had been created to serve the ancient regime maintained its loyalty to the nation. Hence, stability in

administrative affairs had been a phenomenon as marked in these two countries as political instability.

The most important characteristics of these continual European bureaucracies is that public officials are seen as members of a corps representing and identified with the state. The official who represents the state is accorded respectful attention by his colleagues and the citizenry. Instead of being regarded as a public servant, the bureaucrat is seen as a public official and civil service a career service, chosen early in life and pursued to retirement. There is no movement of individuals into and out of the administrative corps. In mid-career and entrance to the bureaucracy is difficult with prescribed channels especially to the higher level. The recruitment system is geared towards education so that access to the higher civil service is restricted to those who have access to higher education.

In France, especially, efforts have been made to broaden the recruitment base unsuccessfully because the availability of education at the University level is still restricted to a small proportion of the population. Although University training in Law is preferred, particularly in Germany, political science, Public Law, History and other subjects are also considered.

After entry, programmes are organized for the intensive training of the recruit. In France it is the responsibility of the National School of Administration established in 1945. The three-year course combines internship for practical training, concentrated study in one of the four fields of specialization i.e. General administration, social administration and foreign affairs. It also includes a placement into a private industry for a brief period to provide insight into industrial management.

In Germany, the newly selected recruit undergoes a period of in-service training of at least three and a half years before he is eligible to take a final examination which can qualify him for appointment to the higher level of the service. The entrants into life time career officials are almost exclusively sons of members of the upper classes and a large proportion, sons of officials. Therefore the service has a character of a semi-closed caste. As a result of the preparation required and the career commitment made, elaborate guarantees of security and status, backed by legal sanctions are provided for members of the service. Tenure is on a life time basis, promotion is controlled in large measure by the civil service, while dismissal or other major disciplinary actions are only possible in accordance with detailed procedures.

The salaries are adequate, though not lavish, besides fringe benefits which include family allowances; various secret programmes and generous retirement pensions. These reflect the organized effort of the bureaucracy to safeguard its position and enhance the prestige of the service.

In Germany, the constitutional safeguards for the civil service were amended with republican constitution of 1919 and retained in the post war constitution of 1948. In France, an adoption in 1946 of a general civil service status shows a prolonged struggle to secure uniform legal declaration of status.

It has been observed that:

“These bureaucracies have a tradition of professional identity, of service status and prerogative and of maintaining continuity in the management of government affairs but the tradition is also one of service to the state, whatever matter the state may have. The bureaucratic elite does not lay claim to becoming the political elite as well.

Britain and United States

The system of administration obtainable in Britain and USA is referred to as that of civil culture by some writers. This is because the political and administrative systems of the two states are characterized by participant and pluralistic culture. They are also regarded as societies which have experienced modernization and a kind of political and social change with minimum violence but with continuity, relative peace and stability. They are societies where there is a high level of empowerment of the people through the western democratic philosophy and a capitalist economic system. In the two systems a high level of integration has been achieved in societies that were basically plural.

The nature of socio-political development in Britain and USA produced gradualist bureaucrats. These are public administrators who adopt the incremental approach to problem solving in an environment that is relatively stable. It may be observed that the generalist, non-political public service adopted in the United States was copied from Britain. Britain in turn had copied it from Rome. Yet in the two systems the nature of the political and social environment dictated the character of the public service.

Emphasis on rules, tenure appointment, high level of legitimacy and trust, non-political nature, maintenance of merit, etc, are features which were developed. The nature of the environment also allowed the various state structures to grow and develop at a relatively close pace. In third world countries where there are political instability, frequent military interventions, dictatorships the state structures do not develop at the same pace. Development of the administrative system gets affected. In some cases bureaucracy towers above the legislature, the executive and judiciary. This was the case of Nigeria in its early years of independence and also the early periods of military ruler ship.

Yet there are areas of differences in the public service of Britain and USA. These areas include the more compact nature of the Britain society, higher level of legitimacy in

Britain that USA, a more stable party system in Britain than USA, etc. it may also be noted that Britain operates a unitary system while USA operates a federal system. So there is a higher level of uniformity in the administrative system of Britain than that of the USA.

Another area of difference in the administrative systems of two countries is that while in Britain a generalist approach is adopted the professional arrangement is put in place in USA. There is a clearer arrangement for promotion to the higher echelon of the public service in Britain than in USA. So in Britain the public servant in the level next to the highest level are regarded as being in training for the highest responsibilities in the administrative system. One consequence of the emphasis on the British "class" in training is high level of administrative ethnics, norms, etc., is better developed in Britain than in USA.

USSR: Administrative System in a Communist State

State the 1917 resolution in USSR the state got administered in accordance with principles of totalitarianism common to socialist and communist systems. The communist party had control over the state structures including the public administrative system. So the bureaucrats or the public administrative system was regarded as a part of the communist part. It was used to propagate the policies of the communist part. It was used to propagate the party policies and ensuring that party member tolled the party line.

One other important element of the Soviet Union's public administrative system is its consistency as an instrument for party control of the various parts of the society. The bureaucrats become experienced in this culture. There has also been a high level of consistency in maintaining the state apparatus separately from the communist party. In every organization there are managers or administrators. There are also party representatives who ensure that the operation is carried out according to instructions to the party representatives present at every level to be held repressible for every action of the state managers or administrators.

It may be noted that one important philosophy of the communist ideology is the expectation that the state would wither away. This means that the system would develop to such a level that there would be no need for the police, the military and the courts since the citizens would know what to do. They would also have so much internalized the principles of communism that they would naturally obey without restraint. The police and the military were parts of the public service which was maintained as a part of the state apparatus.

It is also important to mention that organizations involved in production of goods and services in USSR were state organizations. To that extent they were management by state

bureaucrats with party representatives checking them. The implication then is that there was a large body of citizens involved in public service. To that extent unlike the politically neutral public service obtainable in the western administrative system the USSR emphasized commitment to the party for advancement in the public service.

3.3 Administrative Systems in the Third World

There are certain characteristics which are identifiable in the public administrative system in the third world countries. We shall provide an overview of these features.

1. The third world countries predominantly inherited the type of administrative systems operated by their colonizers. So those countries colonized by the British adopted the British type at independence. The same goes for colonized by the France, Portugal, etc. it may be observed however that some industrialized nations also inherited the public service of their ex-colonizing states.
2. Some of the countries changed the nature of their administrative systems as a result of the changes in the form of government after attainment of independence status. This also applies to some industrialized nations.
3. The military has had great influences on the administrative systems in the third world countries. In the post independence era, many third world countries have repeatedly experienced military ruler ship. In such countries, there has been modification in the public service to meet the political needs of successive regimes.
4. In most third world countries the status of the public service has been affected by the socio-political and economic environment. In various degrees there has been a high level of corruption in many of these countries. This has had adverse effects on trust, legitimacy, ethics, norms, etc, of the public servants.
5. As a result of poor economic conditions the public servants in many of the third world countries are not well paid. This has increased the problem of corruption. It has also had negative impacts on neutrality and efficiency.
6. Political instability in the third world countries has led to insecurity jobs in the public service. In many if the third world countries there have been retrenchment of public servants politically instigated.
7. The problem identified above have led to the public service in many in many of the third world countries not being able to stimulate the level or pace of development in the political, economic and social aspects of the society up to an appreciable standard.

It may be observed that there are some parts of the third world countries where the traditional administrative systems have been preserved. In many Arab nation for instance, with some level of influence and modification, the Islamic administrative system has led to adoption of the administrative principles of the colonizers the traditional administrative

systems have not been wiped out. In varied degrees they are still operated side by side with the imported type.

In Nigeria the concept of politically neutral public service at different levels of government has become unclear since the commencement of the fourth republic. This is because there is a court ruling upholding the right of a public servant to belong to a political party. Yet the idea of politically neutral public service has not been explicitly abrogated.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Administrative practices are aged long although modern operational management theory dates primarily to the twentieth century. They assume various patterns in developed and developing countries

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined early administrative practices and administrative patterns developed and developing countries.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Compare the system of administration in America and Britain

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PATTERN OF ADMINISTRATION IN TRADITIONAL AND COLONIAL AFRICA

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- 1.0 Introduction
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit examines the patterns of administration in traditional and colonial Africa

2.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit attempts to equip the students with the understanding of

- concept of traditional and colonial Africa
- pattern of administration of administration in traditional and colonial Africa

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

A Comparative Study of the Pattern of Administration in Traditional and Colonial Africa

3.1 A Conceptual Analysis

Pattern of administration as a concept may be adopted to refer to different variables or phenomena prominent among which are the followings.

As a discipline or a course of study pattern of administration in traditional and colonial Africa is a political history, a political analysis, a study of administrative set-ups and an evaluation of interdependence between political and administrative entities and phenomena

1. When as a political history the course concerns itself with systems, events practices relating to the various facets of the African traditional societies. It emphasizes how these societies governed themselves, their political and administrative structures and processes and the changes which get introduced into these structures and processes. Also as a political history it focuses on the philosophy and process of colonization of these societies. It studies the nature of politics and administration of these societies in the pre-colonial and colonial periods. It is to that extent comparative in nature.

As a study of administrative set-ups, the course is interested in the various structures and processes of administration of African societies in the pre-colonial and colonial periods. The approach is also in relation to another.

2. Viewed as a political analysis the course is basically interested in power relation between groups and individuals in African societies in the pre-colonial and colonial era. It examines the political structures and processes across societies. It examines the nature of government, law making, law implantation and adjudicature. A comparative analysis of these political structure and processes across the society is also examined basic principle and theories and adopted for analysis.
3. As a study of administrative system the course is primarily interested in the administrative structures, processes, policy initiation, policy making and policy implementation in the traditional and colonial Africa societies. It studies efforts made to replace the African traditional structures and processes by the colonizers and the consequences of such actions, both negative and positive.
4. As an evaluation of interdependence between political and administrative viable the course attempts to identify and analyze how political factors, determined

administrative aided framing of political structure and processes. Some theoretical explanations of such interdependence are given

3.2 Explanation of Pattern as a System

Outside its perception as a course of study pattern of administration in the traditional colonial Africa may be adopted to refer to systems of administration in the African societies was discussed in chapter one of this book. So when a pattern is planned in such a way that it is systematized it becomes a system. So you can refer to it as a system of administration emphasizing that the purpose of the pattern is basically administrative.

3.2.1 A Conceptualization of Traditional and Colonial Africa

As a concept, traditional Africa refers to the enduring aspects of our way of life in Africa. The aspect of our way of life or culture referred to here is the administration of the public sector. Africa has always been made up of many societies. To that extent pattern of administration in traditional Africa would differ from one society to another and in many cases from one period to another.

Talking about periodization one may point out that many writes refer to the period before colonialism as the traditional Africa. These writes, at the same time, recognize the continuation of the traditional pattern of administration in Africa up to the colonial era and even beyond with one being a consequence of the other.

The term colonialism means imposition of foreign rules and rulers on indigenous people. In reference to Africa many writers refer to their process of imposing their rules and rulers on us as colonialism. An example is colonization of the area now known as Nigeria by the British.

One question that may be asked has to do with if it was not also colonialism the incidence identifiable in Africa history where some Africa societies conquered other African societies and then imposed their rules and rulers on them. An example that may be given is that of the jihad in the northern part of Nigeria which spread to parts of the middle belt. Some conventional systems or patterns of administration in the traditional African societies can be identified. They will now be identified and examined. The instrument adopted and decentralized and also whether the political and administrative arrangement is hierarchical or non-hierarchical. The three major types identified in traditional Africa societies frequently identified by writers will now be presented in summary.

The first one is the hierarchical or pyramidal centralized system without meaningful checks. The second is the hierarchical or centralized system but which a high level of

checks. The third one is a non-pyramidal system with was republican but with a measure of checks to prevent dictatorial tendencies.

Basically, the hierarchical or pyramidal system without meaningful checks refers to a system characterized by a hierarchical framework with a heredity method of succession and highly doctorial arrangement. In such a system, the divine right of the king is emphasized. This means that the ruler claims to represent God while the people are conditioned to accept the king as the representative of God. With particular reference to African society, Africans even before their culture contact with the white had always been known to be highly religious people.

Therefore, basically, the arrangement of their socio-political institutions and their ceremonies is such that religious rituals are performed in their various aspects. In the feudal system of the Hausa /Fulani for instance positions were ascribed and not achieve this arrangement further aided concentration of power on the ruler. The Bini kingdom is another example of the pyramidal political structure without considerable checks. Also in a system separated of power was hardly practiced.

The same body played the role of law making execution if the law and adudicature. The major area which can be regarded as a resemblance of checks on the power of the dictator had to do with the role of the priest or diviner. He would be consulted by the dictator on important issues and the outcome of the divination could serve as a restraint on the dictator. At the level of implementation there was the role played by the young men and women especially within the frame work of age group which were regarded as administrative as they were to carry out every decision taken by rulers or the groups which made rules. They were answerable to the elders.

The second system, the pyramidal or hierarchical system with checks, was characterized by a hierarchical system with a ruler at the top. In this case, however, there were other institutions at the power of the dictator and on one another. They included the kingmakers, the priest, the council of elders, etc. an example of this arrangement is the Yoruba. In such a system the ruler also enjoyed the position of being regarded as representing the will of God and sanctions of the ancestors.

The ancestors were regarded as occupying a position higher than that occupied by any of the institutions of government and administration. So any action of the king which was identified as inconsistent with the dictates of the ancestors would be punished in accordance with the tradition of the society as interpreted by the diviners.

Thirdly, there was the non-pyramidal republican system with little or no hierarchical arrangement. In this arrangement, every family was a respected unit of authority. So a family head had the highest authority in the family. Any time there was an important

matter affecting the community to be discussed, the family-heads would come together to take a decision. In such a gathering age and especially titles were respected. The gathering could be presided over by the oldest or highest title holder. Then a decision would be taken. Those who would implement it were identified. After the decision policy makers would go back to their families and each member continued to exercise his authority in his family and not in the society. Age groups played a very important role at the level of implementation. The priests and diviners were also very important as they were regarded as the voice of the ancestors and the creator who had to be obeyed. The Ibos society is one of the frequently given examples of this kind of system in Nigeria, one point which may be raised is that an attempt to identify which system was the best or better than the other was nothing rather than a mere philosophical argument. This is because a particular one adopted by a society was dictated by the and historical realities of the society. So it was not that what existed in one society was the best while that in another society was not good. Such a philosophical argument instigated ethnic mutual distrust and arrogance in many African states and societies. This has made nation-building difficult even in the post colonial era, as many people do not tolerate values of other societies that appear strange to them.

States Within a Nation: the Hausas

A major character of the Hausas was that they existed as separate sovereign states until the jihad of Uthman Dan folio, yet these states were collectively made up of people with the same culture and history. They could trace their origin to the same ancestors and legends. As in other African societies there are different legends about the origin of the Hausa s. One traces them ultimately to Saudi Arabia.

There is another legend that claims that they are descendants of Bayajidda a refugee from Baghdad, in Daura who killed the troublesome snake which prevented people from fetching water from the well. This legend claims that queen Daura as actually given to him a wife due to this his heroic achievement. This legend regards the legitimate descendants of Bayajidda as the seven “legitimate” children or founders of the Hausa states. They are Biram, Daura, Katsina, Zaria, Kano, Rano and Govir or the Hausa Bikwai. There is no agreement among history scholars as to whether these children were sons or grandsons of Bayajidda. According to the legend he also had seven childer for a slave girl whose name was Bazabakwai. They founded Zamfara, Kebbi, Gwari, Yarri, Nupe, Yoruba and Kwerarafa.

There is yet another legend which emphasizes the Maguzawas as the pure traditional Hausa s who were know to be strongly built and predominantly farmers who were devoted idol worshippers. It is difficult to measure the accuracy of these legends influence their beliefs about their societies, which they fell point at the values required for development of their society.

In spite of the fact that the Hausa s cherished their legends about their common origin each of the Hausa city lived in walled round areas and in such a way that did not suggest any strong link with other Hausa states. However, certain features they had in common were the languages, culture and similar historical experiences. One other area of similarity they shared was heir pattern of administration and political system which have endured even to the present day Nigeria with some modifications. This includes efforts to centralize their traditional governance.

The Fused Political and Administrative System of the Hausa

Three major facets can be identifies in which the traditional and administrative pattern of the Hausa states can be discussed. First is the level of author which more or less focuses on important categories of authority within the hierarchical system. The second aspect has to do with the administrative institutions or structures which relate to the positions of persons involved in the administration and the relationship between them.

The third aspect relates to the process of administration which has to do with how policy output and policy demands emanated from the environment, their processing into policy output and policy implementation. It also involves the impact of such policies and resultant effects of the political institutions.

As already indicated in their traditional arrangement the Hausa States were separately governed. By this we mean that the government of Daura for instance operated independent of the government in Kastina or Kano, etc. these however operated governments. It would be noted that reference to them as Hausa states suggests a kind of independence enjoyed by each of them. Each Hausa state was headed by a monarch called Sarki.

One became a Sarki for various reasons. It could be because the person could trace his origin to the founder of the state of because the person the person had led them to victory in a war or the person had done something which made him to be recognized as a hero. The Sarki occupied the highest political and administrative position in the state. Orders flowed from him.

The administration system was such that every city was divided into districts. Each district was headed by a district head appointed by the Sarki usually his relation or even his son. The district head could appoint some of his loyalists to oversee the affairs of the village. Such village head were answerable to the district heads in administrative matters. Thus the system was designed in such a way that at the centre, the Sarki appointed from his loyalties and relations people who headed the various departments. The department headed include land, taxation, defense, judiciary, industry etc. in some cases a tradition existed where descendants of a certain departments. Head of such departments were been

made to sustain this system to the present day. Examples were the roles of the judges, military leaders, etc.

The system had a well established method of policy formulation. Policy demands could emanate from the environment and sent to the village head or district heads. They could take a decision on certain issues which were not so important that the Sarki would be contacted. It means that decisions could be taken at village level, the level of the quarters in the city, at the district level and at the state level depending on the issues involved. Issues relating to security interstate relation, etc, attracted the attention of the Sarki. They were therefore either handled personally by him or under his close supervision and control.

In system of adjudication the Sarki also played the role of a judge. Some people were appointed who served as judges at every level. Matters of great importance especially those that were political in nature were tried by the Sarki himself. Similarly the district head and village head could try some cases which did not need the attention of the Sarki within their domain. Appeals could however go up the hierarchy.

Law enforcement and policy implementation were central to the system. Implementation of a decision or policy was done in accordance with the nature of the policy. The body to carry out a decision was determined by the body that made the policy. It is important to note that the administrative arrangement in every Hausa state was in line with the hierarchical system where responsibility ultimately was to Sarki on whom power was concentrated.

The Sokoto Caliphate

The fundamental change accrued when the Hausa states lost their separate sovereignty following the Jihad which led to establishment of Sokoto caliphate as a new state of the Hausa /Fulanis. Before the jihad although the Hausa states has similar culture and government and they could trace their origin to the same ancestors, each of them was sovereign in political and administrative matters. With the advent of the jihad the Hausa became one nation and one state. This followed the establishment of Sokoto caliphate in which the emirs become answerable to the sultan of Sokoto in the area of appointment and matters of Islamic activities.

It may be noted that the government and administrative pattern which emerged in the era of the Sokoto caliphate was actually a modification of the system of administration that had existed in the Hausa states before their loss of sovereignty but after the leaders had accepted Islam to some extent.

The Sarki occupied the highest political and administrative position at the central level. He presided over the council of ministers which could be regarded as the highest decision

making body of the state except that the council was subordinate to the Sarki. At the central level there were the following ministers or heads of departments.

The Sarki: He was the head of state with the highest legislative, executive and judicial powers: he also performed some religious functions.

The Galadima: He was the heir apparent, an adviser to the Sarki who also deputized in his absence; politically he was the second in command.

The Madawaki: He was the commander in chief, adviser on appointment, he was in charge of Sarki's special ceremonies and he called the meeting of the councilors. He served as a link between the Sarki and the council members.

Magaji: He was finance minister who played an important role in raising funds in accordance with the Sarki's instructions.

Sarki Dogara: He was in charge of the security of the palace. He was the head of Sarki's police.

Yan Doka and Alkali were in charge of judiciary.

As the highest position in the land Sarki could preside over a case by himself especially when the case was political in nature as determined by the Sarki. The council of ministers constituted the body for the purpose of accepting policy demand inputs from the environment and processing the demand mainly under the supervision of the minister who was answerable to the Sarki. The Sarki handled very important matter personally.

At the local government level government and administration were arranged in such a way that the village heads were at the top. They were answerable to the district head. The district head was answerable to the Sarki to whom they held their appointment ultimately. However, with the advent of the Jihad the political and administrative pattern went through some modification. The Sarki was now also holding an Islamic position known as the emir. He was answerable to the sultan. Then emirs got appointed from Sokoto. They were mostly descendants of the Utman Dan folio's family who were tested loyalists. The Jihad reinforced position of Islam in the political and administrative arrangement. This led to a situation where the Hausas and the Fulanis became closely united as it has become difficult to separate them culturally and politically. However the Hausa language has become dominant among them while the fulanis have dominated their political positions up to particularly in the caliphate.

The Caliphate Colonized

There was one event that weakened the caliphate. It was the colonialization of the Hausa-Fulanis by the European powers which came when the caliphate was operational. Resistance put up against colonialization of the Sokoto caliphate failed due to superior technology of the white. There are some scholars however who attribute the collapse to a systemic pathology of the caliphate due to high handedness, corruption and consequent low level of legitimacy of the rulers at the various levels of the caliphate. The imperial colonizers preserved the caliphate's administration and political structures. The modifications introduced were that sultan and the Sarki were now answerable to the European administration to British administrators known as residents. They were public servants who also played political roles in the caliphate.

In 1914 when the Nigerian council was established were allowed to sit in the council. The political and administrative position introduced by the colonizers at the national and regional levels also affected the caliphate. In 1992 Clifford constitution, although the caliphate was not to be represented through the elective principle the Lt. Governor and some Emirs were allowed to participate in discussing administrative matters in Lagos. When regionalization came in 1946, the caliphate became the dominant part of the northern region. With consultation of the people which led to making of the constitution, there was also a consultation also went on in the caliphate for the purpose of making the Marpherson Constitution of 1951, Lyttleton constitution of 1954 and the independence constitution. With time the caliphate was fast losing its grip on the non-Hausa /Fulani parts of the north.

By the large, the British pattern of administration put in place in the various regions in the colonial era also affected the Sokoto caliphate. By this arrangement the region had a governor as the political head. Ministries also had political officers. There were the executive grade and the clerical grade. These public servants were playing the role of initiation and implementation of policies in the area.

When the British judicial system was put in place in the region it operated side by side with the traditional Islamic system already in existence. This arrangement continued in modified form known as penal code.

In the Fourth Republic, under Obasanjo Civilian administration, an attempt was made to replace the penal code system with a comprehensive Sharia system. A declaration of such replacement was made by the most northern states. In practice the comprehensive Sharia system has become unpopular even in the north.

At the local government level the emir played a very high political and administrative role. The district head remained subordinate to the emir in appointment and were answerable to him administration at the grassroots.

As from 1900 the indirect rule system was adopted in the Hausa /Fulani. It was a system of administration at the grass root level where the traditional political institutions were preserved, and utilized for administration of the people. This system met with a great success in the Hausa /Fulani areas because there was a hierarchical system already put in place. The traditional institutions were preserved but made subordinate to British official. Such officials ruled through the traditional rulers.

The Ibo Village State: There Has Been A Traditional

Many writers refer to the Ibo traditional political and administrative arrangement as the village state. This is as a result of the central role the village unit or system played in the administration of the Ibos. Each village operated more or less as a sovereign unit as it took no instruction from anybody outside it. Yet the Ibos had a uniform political and administrative system. They had the same culture. They could trace their origin to the same ancestors. They had inter-village and inter-community relationships.

A.O. Okoh has argued that the three major types of traditional political and administrative systems in Africa were slightly represented among the Ibos. According to this writer, the village states in the North-West, in the areas occupied by the Onitsha, Oguta, etc., were monarchical. The king however had no political authority outside his village. In the south there was a quasi centralized political system. The arrangement was primarily dictated by economic factors. The area needed a semi-centralized system to be able prevent outsiders from exploiting their riverine economic resources. The villages were constituted into a clan. The clan had a council.

The council was however not regarded as a higher level than their village administrative system. It may be observed that like in the Yoruba traditional system some parts of the Ibo communities like the Aro had secret societies which performed various political and administrative functions.

The village was the center of political and administrative system of the traditional Ibo societies. The elders representing the big families were the major law and policy making body. At their meetings the most elderly member presided. His authority ended as soon as the meeting ended. He went back to preside over his family. There was also the village general assembly made up of every adult male of the village. They discussed matters of general interest. The oldest male among them presided over such meetings. His power did not go beyond presiding at the gatherings for decision making.

Title holders played important political and administrative roles. They were members of the society respected for their achievement. They diffused tension between groups and individuals at various levels of the village state. The religious leaders, particularly priests and diviners, played very important political and administration roles. They were regarded as the mouth piece of the Supreme Being. They, to that extent, checked the power of the other political and administrative office holders.

There were age group which played the role of policy implementation and enforcement of the law. They provided various services to the village state. There was a great emphasis on democratic resolution of dispute, law making, policy making and implementation of policy.

The British colonization of the Ibos led to an eventual attempt to introduce the indirect rule system. Artificial tradition rulers were created. The Ibos were used to obedience to democratically determined decisions rather than being made answerable to an individual. So the indirect rule system failed. It may be observed that when the British administrative system was introduced into the Ibo societies it was successful like in other parts of Nigeria.

The Yorubas

Like what obtained among the Hausa and Ibos the Yoruba has a traditional political and administrative system with remarkable characteristics. Collectively, the Yorubas are the indigenes of Oyo, Egba, Ijebu, Ife, Ijesha, Akoko, Ekiti, etc. they traced their origins to the same ancestors.

There is no agreement among them about their origin. There are therefore many legends. One traces their origin to Oduduwa who came from heaven to establish the race. Others trace their origin to people who originate from somewhere especially the Arabs. It is difficult to investigate these legends as facts are difficult to come by. Some of them may be traced to myths as their sources. Many members of the societies believe in these legends.

Traditional Political and Administrative System of the Yorubas

The Yorubas are famous as people who in their traditional political and administrative system had a hierarchical arrangement with a high level of checks and balances. In the system there were two major levels of authority, the central and the local government levels. At the central level the central political and administrative positive was the Alafin of Oyo who had legislative, executive and judicial powers. He governed the other parts of Yoruba through sub-rulers. It was his duty to ensure that he respected interest of the state and sub rulers for mutual benefits.

For somebody to be selected the Alafin he had to be a descendant of Oranyan who was regarded as the founder of the old Oyo. It was a kind of heredity in which the throne did not pass automatically from father to son. In fact, there was a time the eldest son could not be the Alafin. He could however hold an important position in most cases of Aremo when the father was still alive. If he had that position the eldest son at that time had to die as soon as the Alafin died. Aslafin's personal officials also had to die with him as provided by custom of the Yorubas.

Of remarkable importance was the council of the kingmakers known as the Oyemesi. It was a powerful council of state. Since the succession to the throne was not that the father had to be succeeded by the son, the Oyemesi ruled largely on oracle which he consulted to choose the Alafin from one of the ruling families. This strengthened the concept of the diviner right of the king since every Alafin was believed to have been selected in communication with gods.

The Alafin himself was to be regarded as not a mere human being but rather as a god. It may be noted that in the exercise of political and administrative power however the Alafin did not have absolute power. The Oyemesi, the Ogboni cult and diviners constituted a great check on his powers. He could be impeached and he could be instructed to commit suicide and had to obey.

There was the position of the Bashorun. He played the role of the prime minister. He had to be a wealthy man who played the role of consulting the oracles to find out if the Alafin continued to enjoy the support of the gods. He could influence greatly the decisions of the Oyemesi and Ogboni. In areas where the Alafin could not involved himself in politics the Bashorun occupied the centre of politics.

The Ogboni was made up of people respected in religion, politics, issues involving war etc. they acted as a check on the power of the Oyemesi. While the Oyemesi represented the aristocracy the Ogboni represented the interest of the people. Both the Oyemesi and the Ogboni served as checks on the Alafin especially in matters relating to making of laws and policies affecting the society.

Also very important was the Eso which was a political institution made up of people appointed due to their military achievement and experience. Membership of this body was not therefore hereditary. It was headed by the officer in charge the Alafin Army, the Are-Ona Kakanfo. He personally commanded the army in the battle and had to win every battle. If he lost he had to commit suicide. He could alternatively flee to found another Yoruba community, somewhere else. It may be noted that each of the structures and positions above played important political and administrative roles.

Policy demands emanating from the environment could be communicated to any of the structures and position till it got to the appropriate institution for the purpose of policy making.

Structurally there was no clear separation of powers in terms on implementation of policies. In some cases bodies that made policies would also implement. This happened mainly when the issues involved were not political having to do with recruitment into positions and checks and balances among structures and positions. Implementation of the policies emanating from the established structures and positions was to be done with strict adherence to the instruction. Such policies were regarded as emanating ultimately from the gods of the land who must not be disobeyed.

Administration at the Grassroots

The Yoruba kingdom was divided into small units or provinces headed by a ruler or an Oba. Each Oba was appointed from the ruling family. The appointment had to be approved by the government at Oyo to which the Oba was partially answerable. There was a council in each province which has confirmed the appointment of the Oba was done with approval of the people. In some cases there were tributaries under the princes. The arrangement at this level was similar to that obtainable at the provincial level.

As in appointment of the Alafin, the traditional religion and institutions played a very important role in appointment of a provincial governor. No appointment could be made if it was not in accordance with the dictates of the oracle. Like the Alafin the Oba played a judicial role in addition to legislative, executive and administrative one. In playing this role however only matters of great importance were handled by him. There were his subordinates to handle other matters. Policy demands emanated from the local environment and were passed to the political and administrative structures which made the policies and supervised their implementation.

3.2.2 The Colonial Era

The colonizers, borrowing a leaf from the Hausa /Fulanis, with the colonization of the Yorubas made efforts to introduce the indirect rule system in the area. In doing so an attempt was made to rule the people through their Alafin, the provincial governors and the Obas. The colonizer did not understand the well arranged checks and balances in the system.

Also the colonizers did not know that some of structures were made up of representatives of the people. Moreover the colonizers did not understand the part played by the traditional regional. So the indirect rule system recorded only partial success as the system could not fit very well into the Yoruba's arrangement.

According to the practice there was an arrangement where residents and district officers were appointed who were answerable to the British government. The Alafin, the provincial governors and the Obas were supposed to be answerable to the residents or districts officers who were mostly white. It was difficult for these rulers to have the orders emanating from Britain officers accepted by the people. The rulers then found themselves in a dilemma. Recognition of their position by the colonizers would have increased their power. It would have enabled them to rule without being answerable to the people and the other political and administrative institutions.

Yet the people would not accept orders from the ruler which was issued undermining the traditional political institution which they were used to.

With the regionalization in the colonial era Yorubas belonged to the area that came under the western region with the Arthur Richard's constitution of 1946. In fact the Yoruba formed the dominant part of the region. The colonizers, just as in the other regions eventually established a regional government.

The British system of administration was also established in the area. The public service was made up of three grades. They were the administrative grade which was made up mainly of British Officer was the executive and the clerical grades. The clerical grade was made up mainly of the indigene mostly from the region. It should be noted that the arrangement did not replace the traditional political administrative pattern. In fact the pattern endured up to the post independence era. However, much power was taken from the traditional arrangement with coming of the white as the British administrators became increasingly powerful while the power of the traditional institutions got weakened.

British system of administration was also established in the area. The public service was made up mainly of British officers, the executive and the clerical grades. The clerical grade was made up mainly of the indigene mostly from the region. It should be noted that the arrangement with the coming of the white as the British administrators became increasingly powerful. The power of the traditional institutions got weakened correspondingly.

3.2.3 Other Selected African Societies

Our attention will now be paid to some other African traditional and colonial societies and find out which of the three types we have treated are those of the Hausa, Ibos and Yorubas. They provided the proto type with which African traditional administrative and political systems can be categorized. One of these categories is the hierarchical system with the ruler at the top possessing absolute power without institutional checks and balances. This is exemplified by the Hausa and eventually the Hausa /Fulani system.

There are other African traditional societies that had this kind of arrangement. They include most of the North African societies. The societies include Morocco Kingdom, Egypt, the Mamluks, The Kingdom of Alwa, etc. However, there were other African societies which had centralized administrative pattern with absolute monarchy not traceable to Islamic or Arabian influence. Examples of these are the Binis of the southern Nigeria, the Balozzi of Zambia, the Ghagga of etc.

We have as almost direct opposite, the arrangement in which the political and administrative pattern had no hierarchical and monarchical head but sedimentary which some scholars label republican. They had no centralized position of political and administrative heads. Examples of this arrangement are Ibos of Nigeria, the Kikuyu of Kenya, the Benda of Central African Republic, etc. third arrangement is that with a monarch, hierarchical in nature but with a well established system of checks and balances. This is exemplified by the Yorubas of Nigeria and Wolof of Senegal. It may be noted that even the societies that fell into the same groups some differences could be identified in their administrative processes dictated by their experiences.

3.3 Basic Features of African Traditional Political Systems

There were differences in the nature, structure, processes, etc. of the African traditional, political system. Yet there are basic characteristics common to them. We shall now provide an overview of these similar characteristics.

1. African traditional political systems to have treated are states. This means that they possessed the characteristics of a state. These characteristics are presence of people, territorial boundaries, government and sovereignty recognized by the neighboring states. It follows that it is a kind of erroneous terminology to refer to these traditional political system as tribes or stateless societies. Such a connotation suggests wrongly that the societies had no government or sovereignty.

It may be noted that scholars who made these References/Further Reading/Further Reading would not accept for instance that the Ibo villages were states or how the Hausa as a race would have different states within it, states which were relatively small in size. The Greek City states are regarded as states in spite of the fact that they were small in sizes and were contained in the same race or even a nation.

2. The second common characteristic of the African traditional political system is the role played by the traditional religion. In line with the political philosophy of St. Thomas Aquinas, there was a fusion between the states and religion. It had such a nature that priests and diviners did not only control the affairs of the states, no political actor would like to do anything contrary to the dictates of the Supreme

Being. His gods and ancestors. It was also an indispensable element of legitimacy from the Supreme Being.

3. It has been observed that although certain actors and structures could be identified playing some basic political roles, separation of power and roles was difficult. This means that those actors involved in law making could also be involved in implementation of the law and adjudication. Yet in all the system there were kinds of checks and balances.
4. As we have identified, legitimacy of the ruler and leaders was an indispensable element of leadership. The political systems were organized in such a way that no matter how much power was concentrated on a particular position, when the incumbent failed to respect some basic rules and ethics of his office he would lose his position as appointments into positions were done in accordance with certain principles, procedures, tradition and ethics.
5. We have also identified that each African traditional political system had legends about its origin well known to the members of state. Although the content of the legends differed from one legend to another about the origins were taken seriously by the members of the traditional political systems. They therefore aided patriotism unity in the state.
6. As would naturally be expected, colonialism altered the nature of traditional political systems. Such alteration was not done by the European colonialism either by African or non-African societies. It also had effects on nationalism as members of the colonized state did not see the colonial government as put in place by their gods in accordance with their laid down traditional and political values and processes.

3.4 Common Problems Faced By African Colonizers

Colonizers do not usually colonize for the purpose of power-show. After colonizing an area they like to hold on to the economic and political benefits. So after colonizing African states the European invaders ran into early administrative bottle-necks prominent among which are following:

- a. The colonialists lacked sufficient knowledge of the African societies. Many of the colonizers and colonial administrators believed strongly that Africa was a dark continent, a continent which had stateless societies or societies without governments which they called tribes. The people had no sense of good and evil as they did not worship the almighty God. A society of people living on trees like monkeys.

The colonizer therefore arrogantly saw themselves as the people who had to perform the human duty of bringing about civilization to them. So they perceived

African colonization as a moral duty of bringing light to the people lost is primitive barbarity.

Ironically even many French and British history scholars who had written such on African states emphasizing the highly technical nature of the Soghai Empire, The Sudan, The Bornu, etc., found it difficult to do away with their prejudice against Africa in their sentiments. An example is the content of the lecture delivered by Professor Huph Trevor Roper in Oxford in 1962. He argued, that perhaps in the future there will be some African history to teach, but at the present there is none, there is only the history of the Europeans in Africa. The rest is darkness and darkness is not a subject of history.

Margrey Perham wrote that before the culture contact between Europe and Africa, Africans had no wheel, plough, transport animals, stone house, clothes (except skills), writing and no history. So this claim was used for justification of European occupation of Africa. The colonizers then wanted to be regarded as those who were doing Africans a favour.

- b. The colonialist were either not sufficiently skillful or had no time to acquire the administrative knowledge and expertise necessary for governing Africans. They had a fight to impose themselves. In some areas treaties were signed. In other areas they were protectors. They need to make themselves acceptable to the Africans so that they could enjoy relative peace. To do this they had to put in place pattern of administration tolerated by the Africans. Such patterns were mostly faulty.
- c. Apart from being inadequate and ill equipped, colonial administrations were frequently transferred from one society to another so they did not stay long enough in one society to be able to have a considerable understanding of the society. This led to the problem of colonial administrators experimenting with a pattern of administration not staying long enough to see it through and then from the result of the administrative policy or theory tested. This insufficient continuity of administrators perpetuated the problem of inexperience and incompetence.
- d. There was the mistake of attempting to adopt uniform policies in Africa whereas these societies had different sizes, culture, political arrangement, etc. These differences upset the minds of French and British colonial administrators who were frustrated as they got different responses to the same stimuli.
- e. There was an emphasis which colonialists placed on the benefit they anticipated from colonialism of Africa. At times they found contradictions between the administrative requirements and the pursuits of this benefit.
- f. There were conflicting theories and policies enunciated by European scholars regarding which types of administration would be most efficient in administration of colonized African societies. The British debate was rather restrictive and

centered round the indirect rule system or ruling the Africans through their “natural rulers” which Lord Lugard called the dual mandate.

In France and Germany the debate in terms of philosophy and character of the pattern of administration to be adopted was not as narrow and one-sided as that of the British. Even within one colonizing state were conflicting theories and policies of colonial administration.

3.5 The Prominent Patterns

It has already been mentioned that there were many theories, patterns and models put forward by scholars and administrators for the purpose of administration of African states colonized by the European powers. Out of them three became most prominent. They were:

1. The principle of assimilation which was based on the argument that there were identifiable similarities between the colony and the colonizing states. The colony could therefore adapt and adopt the culture of the colonizing states which would stimulate justice and development.
2. The indirect rule system theory or debate was based on the argument that there were fundamental differences between the cultures of the colonizing states and the colony. It also emphasized the right of the colony to preserve its culture and develop in accordance with its traditional political and socio-economic philosophy.
3. Paternalism was a product of rejection of the philosophy behind the principle of assimilation and that behind the policy of indirect rule. It concerned itself with how to ensure that the colonizers. For this principle therefore any colonial policy which would lead of efficient attainment of this goal was appropriate.

The Principle of Assimilation

There were two contending views about the characters on the principle of assimilation in the African colonial history. There was the argument for personal assimilation while the other argument advocated political, administrative and economic assimilation. This second argument was labeled unrealistic by many scholars.

The fundamental view on which personal assimilation- was based was that men were equal irrespective of their economic status, racial origin, cultural background, political, etc. this argument accepted as that men were not uniform when these criteria were adopted as instruments of differentiation but each of the differences could be eliminated with education.

By the logic of this same argument the illiterate African peasant had right of claim to French citizenship like the illiterate French citizen who by the virtue of being uneducated, would have prejudices and other perennial sentiments that would constitute a hindrance to their macro-nationalist orientation.

It may also be argue that educated Africans were as qualified for French citizenship as the educated French citizens. They should therefore enjoy the same rights and have the same duties as their African French counterparts in the colonies. It becomes obvious then that proponents personal assimilation presented conflicting arguments. There was the group of writers which believed in actual equality of all men here and now. There was another group which believed in potential equality of men only after elimination of certain barriers. So Africans had to attain a certain level of development before they could claim equality.

The above theoretical postulations served as the under pinning for the policy of assimilation applied by the Portuguese and the French in their administration of colonial African societies. As applied to Senegal the French colonial administrators started with the universalistic equality of men without any barrier. So its assimilations experiment was such that any member of the Senegalese society could stain citizenship. Later this policy of immediate universalistic personal assimilation was abandoned when the inter-land also became colonized. Then the policy of selective and gradual assimilation was adopted.

It may be noted the Britain had flirted with the principle of assimilation in spite of its insistence on preservation of Africans culture in the colonized territory and also on the legalistic approach of carrying out a direct administration only when empowered by a treaty. However with the occupation of the protectorate of Sierra Leone, Britain abandoned her experiment of assimilation which would have been extended to the re-captured slaves settled in the colony and opted for indirect rule system.

Eventually, French and Portuguese preferred selective and gradual principle of assimilation, to the immediate and universalistic principle. This was hinged on one argument that although citizenship of the colonizing states which determined the criteria for attainment of citizenship of who met the criteria. Africans thus had little say in the matter.

There were three main arguments for non-personal assimilation. The first theory advocates administrative similarities between the colonies and the colonizing states. When this was applied to Algeria for instance the arrangement was such that the colony was to be seen as an extension of France. The implication of administrative assimilation was that the colonial societies were to adopt a kind of centralization of power, the local

government system, the structure of the public service, the public service norms, etc., similar to those obtained in France. They were to be transplanted to Africa.

There was the second theory of non-personal assimilation which advocated political assimilation of the colonies with the colonizing state. By this arrangement the colonies would send representatives to the political institutions in the colonizing state especially the parliament. There was however a disparity as the constituencies in the colonies were not to have the same population as those in its colonizing state.

Economic assimilation was the centre of the third group of theories of non-personal assimilation. This argument emphasized the need to integrate the economy of the colonies with that of the colonizing state. Adoption of this kind of assimilation would have led to provision of social amenities, industries state. It would also have led to a common working condition.

Many scholars criticized the principle of assimilation as dictatorial and ethnocentric. This is because it assumed that the culture of the colonizing African societies. It also assumed that development of colonized Africa societies meant a transplantation of the culture, economic principles and political philosophy and aspiration of the colonizing state to the African colonized societies.

Another area of criticism of the principle of assimilation was that it did not envisage independence of the colonies which would lead to be establishment in the colony, their peculiar system, culture, etc. assimilation is thus seen as a permanent colonialism.

Some writers however commend the principle of assimilation for what they see as the magnanimity of the colonizer in considering, at least theoretically, that members of the colonized societies were human beings of the same right and duties, whether potential or immediate, with members of the colonizing state. It thus emphasized equality of men and equal opportunity.

Assimilation: The French Experience

We shall now examine how the French colonialists practiced assimilation. In relation the French governmental practice, assimilation had two stages. The first stage is known as assimilation or what we have already referred to as personal assimilation in our theoretical exposition. Stage two was the community status which was a modification of the principle of personal assimilation which granted a measure of autonomy to French colonies including some privileges.

Stage 1: personal Assimilation

The principle of personal assimilation as practiced by France in African sought to absorb the oversea people in French colonies and territories into French citizens. It sought to subdue them to cultivate, accept and live the culture of France.

French civilization was to be adapted as colonial civilization. It meant that French colonies were treated as a provinces of and parts of France. Their economy, constitution and administration were to be the same as those of France. In other words assimilation was a form of direct rule by which French nationals came to colonies and attempt in inject French culture, customs and traditions into the colonial people in the colonies. It attempted to transplant French to Africa societies.

France Assimilation in Africa Problems Encountered

Let us present a summary of the problems encountered by French assimilation policy in Africa.

- a) For the principle to succeed a large number of manpower from France was required to be stationed in the colonies in order to carry out the process and attain its goals, especially in the area of provision of direct administration.
- b) Of effective security a standing army from France was needed to be stationed in the colonies for enforcement of the assimilation principle and suppressing internal misconnection and protests.
- c) Huge sum money was needed to be invested in the administration of the colonies. The manpower required for administration and the soldiers to be stationed in the colonies needed adequate reasonable, good and regular pay from the French treasury. Economic assimilation also required much capital.
- d) Sociological, it was not easy to transplant the European culture, tradition, custom and habit into African especially with the use of force. This was exactly the task France sought to accomplish. No wonder the success was short-lived. Assimilation and its protagonists in France insisted on colonial people becoming French citizen by force. Assimilation therefore precipitated serve resistance in the various French colonial territories. Assimilation did not anticipated future withdrawal of France from the colony nor did it prepare colonies for independence. It, to that extent, ignored the right of the colony to self determination.

State II: The Community Statue

The next state, community status, did not postulate independence for French colonies. French citizenship was awarded to all oversea French territories in 1946. For example French West Africa was administered as a federation. The traditional rulers were allowed to play important roles in the governments in the protectorate. Prior to 1946 certain

qualifications were required from Africans before they could be awarded citizenship. In 1946 however France allowed citizenship for every African in its territories. Some scholars attributed this gesture to compensation of Africans who helped France to fight the world wars. France naturally has show the gesture.

There were pockets of resistance provoked by assimilation especially as it aroused nationalist feelings among the Africans. During and after the Second World War France was faced with serious problems. There were increased problems and protests in her African territories. At home France was not a stable country as it faced many internal and external problems. The granting of France community status to West African colonies in 1958 can therefore be seen as an action prompted by the need to reduce problems facing France. It was characterized by the following.

1. Granting of advisory powers and the creation of territorial assemblies.
2. The French community replaced the French union
3. Each of the territorial assemblies has to enjoy some form of autonomy
4. The community assembly was to presided over by the president of France republic.
5. A consultative executive council was to be set up.
6. There were to be legislative and senate community councils in the territories. Their role was to be purely advisory.
7. Any territory wishing to be on its own was free to do so and thus attain self government. It may be noted that with this provision Gunea conducted a referendum which indicated that the people opted for a self government which was granted it in 1958.
8. Article 86 of the constitution was amended in 1960 which brought about independence to all French territories however signed a cooperation agreement with France in the fields of foreign policy, economy, financial policy, higher education and defense. Only the then Upper Volta rejected the agreement which many saw as new-colonialism.

It may be observed that that these elements which appear like generosity have been criticized by some scholars. They see the whole process of assimilation as an attempt by the colonizers to lord it over the colonized African societies perpetually.

The Policy of Indirect Rule

Comparatively, unlike the principle of assimilation the indirect rule system envisaged independence for the colonies. To that extent and for some other reasons, indirect rule was the antithesis of assimilation both in status of the members of colonized African societies and in the relationship between the African societies and in the relationship between the African colony and the colonizing state. The major principle behind the

policy of indirect rule was an emphasis on fundamental differences between the culture of the African societies and that of the colonizing state.

Secondly, as a result of these differences the culture and administrative institutions already evolved by the African traditional institutions were to be preserved and be adopted in the administration of the colonies. At the apex of the administration structures were the British. However policies and orders were to emanate from two sources. They could emanate from the highest political and administrative officer who was the emir in case of the Hausa/Fulani. They could emanate from the British administrators in which case they were passed through the highest traditional political and administrative office holder who would pass them to the people as if they (policies and orders) emanated from him according to the tradition.

An issue may be raised as to what would happen in a situation where the policies passed by the colonizers were unacceptable to the traditional ruler. Well, such a situation could hardly arise as a result of a mutual understanding. The traditional rulers knew clearly that politically they were answerable to the colonizers. They also accommodated the arrangement recognized them because it was a lesser of two evils.

The colonizers on the other hand, listened to the advice of the traditional rulers in most matters/ it was the area where the civilizing mission and the fundamental interest of the colonizers. There were also the economic and political interests of the colonizers as well as control of defense. The colonizers did not pretend in these matters.

Indirect rule as introduced in Uganda, Nigeria and other colonies by Lord Lugard was a system of native administration or administration at the grassroots which was a colonized local government system. This was unlike assimilation which was to spread through the various levels of administration of the colonial societies transplanting the French forms of the colonial societies transplanting the French forms of government to African societies.

Why Indirect Rule Was Introduced

There are many logistic and theoretical reasons given for adoption of indirect rule system. Prominent among them in relation to Nigeria are given as follows:

1. Theoretically, preservation of the traditional political and administrative institutions was required in order not to be wholly arbitrary. It also required to guide the Africans own system of administration.
2. Legally Britain had a obligation arising from protectorate treaties. These treaties did not authorize Britain to administer the protectorate directly.

3. Britain decided to reduce the cost of administration which would have been very high if British officials were employed in a large number comparatively to work in the territory.
4. British wanted to use the leader of the traditional institutions recognized by the people so the Britain could gradually reform their methods of government and administration.
5. The British official found a well established and effective government in the Hausa/Fulani area which it could use as an already made in instrument of administration.

Criticisms of Indirect Rule

Basic criticisms of indirect rule were led primarily by the African Nationalists and educated elite. They did not find the indirect rule system acceptable to them because of the following reasons.

1. The system condoned evil practices by the chiefs and natural rulers not because it was design to so or that it could not identify and punish the perpetrators but because the colonizers were afraid of destroying the traditional system which the indirect rule depended on.
2. The system excluded the educated African because it had no room for them. It was not conceived that African graduates would be used to operate the system as they were not trusted by the colonialists.
3. Many young British officials who handled the application of Luagard's ideal of indirect rule did not adequately grasp or understands Luagard's goals especially the aspect of the system aimed at adopting and building up what existed to meet the new requirements of the African territories.
4. With the exception of a minority of the labour members of parliament, the British parliament peer and public seemed ill informed of African colonies and they therefore had little interest in the colonies.

Principle of Paternalism

As earlier stated, the principle of paternalism emanated from the criticisms of and problems associated with indirect rule system and the principle of personal assimilation. The principle of assimilation was criticized mainly on two grounds. One was that it would not be practicable to carry out the principle of assimilation because of heavy cost involved in it. This cost include what was required in terms of money, materials and men from the colonizing state.

The second major area of criticism of assimilation was what was regarded as non-assimilatability of the African people. It could not be imagined that the desert norm and

other people who had internalized traditional norms grossly at variance with the European culture could be made to adopt the metropolitan culture.

The indirect rule system on the other hand was greatly criticized by the French administrators. According to them preservation and use of African traditional institutions would not be effective in making the Africans to cultivate the attitude and dispositions required for development of a highly modernized economy, and hard work for the purpose of earning adequate income, etc.

These scholars also rejected the traditional institutions as unsuitable for political and administrative purposes. They argue that Britain although emphasized preservation of the culture of the Africans, in reality introduced certain practices which did not only undermine the African culture but also amounted to cultivation of European culture. Such practices included western education which the British encouraged by allowing the Africans to establish educational institutions in which European values, philosophy and culture were taught to the Africans who were the future political and administrative elites of the society.

French scholars also criticized the indirect rule system on the ground that it was suitable in ensuring mutual benefit by both Africans and Europeans from colonialism. On the part of Africans it was denying them the opportunity of civilization.

On the part of the Europeans it was not suitable for exploitation of economic opportunities as the traditional institutions would not be sufficiently effective in playing this role of exploitation.

The strategy adopted therefore was a radical re-organization of African societies to meet the exploitative requirements of the colonizers. At the same time to meet the requirements of administrative officers the traditional chiefs would be used as agents of administration.

Where France adopted the principle of selective assimilation, the system became paternalistic. In the French colonial system where powerful chiefs were identified France as matter of immediate expediency adopted the Lugard intervention approach. In Senegal for instance a full system of personal assimilation was adopted.

So unlike Britain that never really adopted the principle of assimilation France adopted any principle found expedient as dictated by the realities. An example of adoption of the principle of paternalism was in Togo where Germany was paternalistic up to 1914. In a sense paternalism becomes relevant to every African colony as far as protection of the interest of the colonizers was given a high priority.

3.6 Nationalism in African Traditional Societies

Nationalism as a concept may be adopted to refer to three different phenomena. These are:

1. Nationalism as a protest movement;
2. Nationalism as struggle for independence; and
3. Nationalism as patriotism

The three sense of nationalism were identifiable to some extent in the African traditional colonial societies.

As a protest movement, indicators exist of areas in traditional African societies where protest movements were carried out internally and externally. Internally situations which individuals and groups enacted actions which were fundamentally at variance with norms of the society attracted protests from various quarters. Examples are actions regarded as abomination which could jeopardize the prosperity and continuity of the society.

Externally, situations where other societies attempted to conquer an African state attracted protests which in some cases led to uprising and wars. It may be noted however that there were instances where such attempts led to conquest. An example is the establishment of the Sokoto caliphate. It may be noted that the establishment attracted prolonged protests on the part of those who wanted the Hausa traditional political and socio-economic arrangement to persist.

As regards nationalism as struggle for independence, it may be observed that there were instances where some conquered African traditional societies by other African societies gained back their freedom and independence. It often happened after wars. Such wars were often given rise to by persistent protests by groups and individuals against subjugation of their African societies.

Nationalism as patriotism existed in African societies. The indicators are instances where sentiments about the African traditional states by its citizens were identifiable. Also many African states made sacrifices for the protection of the interest of their traditional societies. Such sacrifices included fighting to defend their societies, participation in societal works, struggle to attain collective economic political and societal goals, etc.

3.7 Nationalism in the African Colonial Societies

Nationalism as protest movement could easily be identified in African colonial societies. There were various individuals and associations which did not only protest against imposition of foreign rules and rulers on indigenous African societies but also protested a violation of their culture. Examples were those who protested for the preservation of

African traditional societies. Even when Christianity had been accepted by many Africans there were some protests aimed at Africanization of Christianity. Nationalism as a struggle for independence took place in every colonized African society. It culminated in attainment of independence. Such protests included uprising, petitions, strikes, etc. many Africans made sacrifices ranging from financial contribution, imprisonment and even death.

Nationalism as patriotism in Africa colonial societies cannot be divorced from nationalism as a protest movement and struggle for independence. It however means more. This is because colonialism brought many ethnic groups under one political umbrella. So patriotism at this stage would include love not limited to people of one's ethnic group but extended to people of other ethnic groups. This means elevation of micro-nationalism to pan Nigerian nationalism. It may be observed however that although, macro nationalism. It may be observed however that although macro nationalism or pan Nigerian nationalism was stimulated by amalgamation, there were ethnic and religious mutual suspicions. These mutual suspicions were a natural consequence of existence of separatist social identities. So nation building⁴ was required for the purpose of stimulating the people of different ethnic groups to subsume or accommodate their separatist social identities under overriding collective interests.

Nationalism as patriotism is required in the post colonial Nigerian societies. It is required for demilitarization, democratization, fighting corruption as well as symptoms of collapsing state like commercial hostage taking, Boko Haram insurgency, rigging of election etc.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Before the advent of colonial rule, there were various patterns of administrative systems in the traditional Africa. Similarly, in the colonial Africa, different patterns of administrative systems were adopted.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined patterns and principles of administrative systems in traditional and colonial Africa.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Compare and contrast the pattern of administrative systems in British and French Africa

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 6 POLITICAL AND POLICY ROLES OF BUREAUCRACIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning and characteristics of bureaucracy
 - 3.2 Roles of Bureaucracy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Bureaucracy is a universal phenomenon in modern societies. It is one of the commonest subject matter of great intellectual concern among scholars and practitioners of public administration. In this unit, attempt is made to examine the its roles.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

This units seeks to familiarize students with the;

- meaning of bureaucracy
- roles of bureaucracy

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Political and Policy Roles of Bureaucracies

3.1 Meaning and characteristics of bureaucracy

There is no universally accepted definition of the term bureaucracy. It has been adopted pejorative and non-pejorative senses. In pejorative sense it has been referred to strict and unproductive government officials. It has also been used to refer to red-tapism, delay and wastefulness. As an analyst noted “few things have a worse reputation than bureaucracy” In the non-pejorative sense, it has been used to imply a specific form of social organisation involved in administrative efforts. It is a machine, which is needed to run the government of the day. It is the only tool available to any modern government to administer. To some scholars, bureaucracy is the fourth organ of government because of its indispensable role in running the government of modern and increasingly complex

society. For Max Weber who coined the term, bureaucracy is technically superior to all forms of organizations. According to him bureaucracy is a type of administration which is organized rationally, impersonally and according to official rules as means of carrying out imperative control over human resource.

Bureaucracy is associated with certain structural characteristics such as

- (a) a well-defined hierarchy of authority
 - (b) a division of labour based on functional specialization
 - (c) a system of rules covering rights and duties of positional incumbent
 - (d) a system of procedures dealing with work situation
 - (e) impersonality of interpersonal relationship, and
 - (f) selection of personnel for employment and promotion based on competence
- (Heady, 1984). Added to these structural characteristics, bureaucracy has been characterized as body of rules defining the desirable habit or behavioral patterns of all officials positively associated with the attainment of the objectives of organization. In this context, behaviours or traits such as objectivity, precision, consistency, and discretion are emphasized (Erero and Ikelegbe, 1995). According to Max Weber “the decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organisation has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organisation...precision, speed, unambiguity, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs – these are raised to the optimum level in the structurally bureaucratic administration”.

3.2 Roles of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy helps the state to realize its purposes. The primary essence of the state according to the social contract theorists such as Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean Jacques Rousseau is protection of life and property. The bureaucracy is entrusted with responsibility of maintenance of law and order as well as the safe keeping of property within the state.

Bureaucracy plays a major role of nation building by assist government to plan and accelerate a country's socio-economic development. During the Nigerian civil war, while the military was preoccupied with the task of prosecuting the war and keeping Nigeria united, the top bureaucrats helped in policy formulation and implementation.

In policy implementation, bureaucrats are allowed to exercise discretion in interpreting legislations, filling in the details through rules and guidelines and decide on the applications of laws and rules in particular case. In this setting the administrative process becomes an extension of legislative process

Bureaucracy helps government to deliver essential services and to resolve the problems that confront the society and the world. It assumes special significance in providing social services such as health, education, infrastructure like roads, electricity, productive activities in agriculture, industry etc.

Furthermore, as an adviser, as an inventor, and a decision-maker, bureaucracy can be helpful in promoting socio-development. It can inspire an administration by build up an enabling social environment highlighting responsibility by creating incentives, by encouraging healthy competition and self-development, by organizing institutional management under competent and progressive leadership and by delegating authority to lower levels for maximizing development.

Bureaucracy ensures the continuity of services. While government comes and goes the bureaucracy remains.

Bureaucracy helps government to generate revenue through the collection of taxes and levies. In Nigeria, the national revenue generating agencies include the Federal Inland revenue, Custom and Excise and the Immigration Service.

It is perhaps in the light of the above roles that Winston Churchill asserted “bureaucracy is the most efficient system for organizing people known to man except for all of the other systems” (Gortner 1981). Lending credence Gortner (1981:1) noted thus; “with all its faults, it is still the most efficient structure that has yet been discovered when attempting to coordinate the actions of large groups of people towards specific goal”. To Peter Balu (1972:264) “antagonism towards bureaucracy usually results from the ruthless efficiency of bureaucracy, not its inefficiency. And the people antagonized bureaucracy because it is efficient in carry out its task as defined by bureaucracy; when people rebel, they are upset by bureaucracy’s impersonal objectivity and efficiency, for it tends not to recognize human and individual characteristics (Okotoni, 2001)

4.0 CONCLUSION

Bureaucracy is a universal phenomenon in modern societies. Although it has been severely criticized, it is considered a vital for facilitating socio-economic development

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined the concept and characteristic bureaucracy. It also identified some political and policy making roles of bureaucracy

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Outline the characteristics and roles of bureaucracy

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZED INTEREST GROUPS AND PUBLIC AGENCIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Interest Groups
 - 3.2 Roles of interest groups
 - 3.3 Strategies and Tactic of Interest Groups
 - 3.4 Relationship between Interest Groups and Political institutions
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There is expanding literature shedding light on the political role of interest groups play in contemporary societies. This units examines the relationship between interest groups and public agencies

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students would appreciate

- definition of interest groups
- types of interest groups
- roles of interest groups
- strategies and tactics of interest groups
- relationship between interest groups and public agencies

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Relationship between interest groups and political agencies

3.1 Definition of Interest Groups

Interest groups are associations of individuals or organizations that on the basis of one or more shared concerns attempt to influence policy in its favour by lobbying members of the government. According to LaPalombara interest group refers to any collection of two

or more persons who in some manifest way demonstrate that they exist in part to influence public policy or the authoritative allocation of values. To Ball and Millibard interest group denotes social aggregate with some level of cohesion and shared aims which attempt to influence political decision making process. Instructively, interest group organized around particular interest for the purpose of influencing policy in regard to their interest (Ikelegbe 1995, Schilozman and Tierney, 1985:6).

Interest groups may be classified into three according to their motivation.

Economic interest groups: These include individual corporations and business organizations

Professional interest groups: these include trade unions and farmers.

Public interest: These include human rights groups, environmental groups, prodemocracy groups etc

3.2 Roles of interest groups

Most interest groups offer advice and information to government agencies. This cooperative strategy is so enmeshed in some states such as Britain and West Germany. In these countries as some others, consultation, representation and contributions of interest groups are required in policy making.

Interest groups may embark on campaign to influence or prevent the enactment and implementation of certain policies. Such campaigns involved enormous publicity and propaganda

Groups may also present information containing facts and perception of proximate policy makers, agencies, legislative committees and commission

In some countries, the contribution of interest groups in policy formulation and implementation have become institutionalized

3.3 Strategies and Tactic of Interest Groups

Interest groups deploy various strategies and tactics in attempt to directly or indirectly influence the legislative action or policy of government officials. Some of the strategies and tactics include **lobbying government**. Organized interests hire representatives to advocate on behalf of the group's interests. Lobbying activities include contacting members of Congress and the executive branch to disseminate information about the positive or adverse effects of proposed legislation.

Engaging in election activities. Interests may attempt to influence elections in order to help get people who support their issues elected or reelected. Electioneering techniques include giving money to candidates, endorsing candidates or issues, and conducting grassroots activities such as get-out-the-vote drives.

Educating various publics. Interest groups work hard to educate the public at large, government officials, their own members, and potential interest group members.

Mobilizing various publics. To influence policy-making, many groups rely on the efforts of people who are motivated to act on behalf of their issues and causes. So-called **grassroots activities** might include writing letters, making phone calls, contacting policy-makers, and demonstrating.

The effectiveness of interest groups in influencing government institutions or representatives is a function of several factors such as expertise, and information on policy, resource viability, nature of political system, goal adaptability and membership commitment.

3.4 Relationship between Interest Groups and Political institutions

Organized interest groups deploy a range of methods to advance their objectives. In pursuit of favorable decision or aversion of harmful policies, organized interest groups focused their activities on the legislative and executive bodies, align with political parties, engage in publicity or unconventional engagements including violence.

In the USA, where the legislature plays major role in decision making the organized interest groups relate much with the legislative branch. Chunk of the external inputs in the legislative process come from the organized interest groups. To draw out the cooperation of the legislators, the spokesmen of the organized interest groups commonly called lobbyists offer weighty, necessary and desirable inducement and services to the law makers. Instructively use of bribe in the Congress is an extremely dangerous act in view of the readiness of the press to expose abuse. It is important to note that funds given as campaign contribution are sanctioned by the political allies and not regarded as bribe.

In America, the organized interest groups do not limit their activities only to the legislature. They also focus on officials of the executive branch since they made several vital decisions. To some extent, there is cooperative and mutual dependence between the interest groups and the executive branch for information, service and support. For example, there is close ties between major farmers organizations and the Department of Agriculture and the US Chamber of Commerce (Kousoulas, 1975).

In Britain, the executive is the centre of focus of interest groups. The British law makers have marginal power to independently make decision on account of party discipline in the parliament and the supremacy of the cabinet. In addition, while legislators make far reaching decisions, the executive is left to detail the decisions and implement them. The British interest groups serve as representatives of individual interest and objectives. The British executive recognizes the interventionist role of the interest groups and seeks their views and cooperation before drafting bills. The consultation yields mutual benefits. While it helps the interest groups to present their views, it enables the executive to work out practicable policies.

In Canada, among students of interest group, members of the parliament are too peripheral and powerless in the policy process to be considered attractive targets (or perhaps to be targeted at all). In Canada, the strong party discipline characteristic of the parliamentary system reduces the potential return to lobbyists in contacting ordinary MPs since the latter are not free to deviate from party-determined positions in their legislative behavior (Bennedson and Feldman, 2002). Rather, scholars have argued that successful groups will focus their efforts on communicating with members of the political executive (the cabinet and executive support agencies) or perhaps especially the bureaucracy, since the latter is primarily responsible for drafting most legislative proposals and policy initiatives. Moreover, whereas MPs tend to serve relatively short terms in office in Canada (Docherty, 1997), bureaucrats have relatively long careers and as a result any cultivation efforts directed at them are likely to bear fruit over a long period of time. While contacts with high level executives and ministers might appear at first glance to be the most prized, since these individuals occupy critical places in the policy and agenda-setting processes, even lowly departmental officials can be a critical target for a lobbyist. If contact can successfully be made deep in the civil service, a group's pReferences/Further Reading/Further Reading can be instrumental in the early shaping and drafting of policy proposals. Moreover, relationships developed with junior civil servants offer an opportunity to shape the orientations of officials early in their tenure, and these investments may pay long-term dividends if they subsequently enjoy successful careers (Kousoulas, 1975)

In Italy the operations of interest groups are significantly shaped by political ethos and culture. The political ethos in Italy allows interest groups to be actively involved in electoral campaign including declaration of open support for political parties. Instructively, the active participation of interest groups in politics may spawn inflammable consequences on them if the party they rally support for fails to win the election.

Apart from political parties, the Italian interest groups focus their activities on the bureaucracy. The focus on the bureaucracy is informed by the fact that the senior bureaucrats remain with regime turnover and they are spin of government.

In Japan, interest groups associate themselves with political parties and focus on the powerful bureaucracy which implements most of the crucial decisions made by the executive. The Japanese legislators serve as intermediaries between the spokesmen of interest groups from the constituencies and high officials in the national government. Japanese interest groups seem to depend on illegal techniques as the modus operandi. In addition to outright bribery, geisha parties, elegant meal and expensive entertainment of important official flourish (Kousoulas, 1975).

The activities and organization of Japanese interest groups are significantly shaped by traditional norms, most of which are fast fading away with modernization. The variation in the pattern of the activities and relationship of interest groups in America, Britain, Canada, Italy and Japan reflects the degree of modernity they have achieved. Compared to transitional societies such as those which are found in Africa, the Middle East, Asia and Latin America, the conditions which shape the organization, activities and relationship of the American, British, Canadian, Italian and Japanese interest groups are not present or just budding. In the transitional societies, the lives of most people are substantially influenced by family and primordial groupings of tribes, the clan or the village with marginal dependence on national government. Most people are pliant and complacent in organizing groups that may put pressure on authorities for favourable decisions. Instructively in the face of objective economic conditions, there is a large number of people who are detaching from their primordial groups and drawn into the growing urban centres. For example, workers, students, professionals or businessmen found that the primordial groups are no longer dependable for provision and sustenance. They have realized that they need to deploy various means to protect their spanning interest

4.0 CONCLUSION

Interest groups play major role in modern societies through the deployment of a range of methods to advance their objectives. In pursuit of favorable decision or aversion of harmful policies, interest groups focused their activities on the legislative and executive bodies, align with political parties, engage in publicity or unconventional engagements including violence. However, the focus of their activities differ from one country to another whether in the developed or developing countries depending on the locus of decision making power.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined definition of interest groups, types of interest groups, roles of interest groups, strategies and tactics of interest groups, and relationship between interest groups and public agencies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Define interest groups. Outline the relationships between interest group and public agencies in America and Canada

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 8 PROBLEMS OF BUREAUCRATIC ACCOUNTABILITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Accountability defined
 - 3.2 Areas of accountability
 - 3.3 Ideology of Bureaucratic Accountability
 - 3.4 Mechanisms of Bureaucratic Accountability
 - 3.5 Problems of Bureaucratic Accountability in Nigeria
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Accountability is an aged long idea and practice. Its root is decipherable in the ancient times about 1300 BC in Egypt. In the 16th century Britain the need for accountability was evident in the series of confrontations by the citizens with their kings. The taxpayers insisted on prudent management of their monies as against the king who asked for much public funds for prosecution of wars and for the maintenance of his palace. In Nigeria, the concern and practice of accountability are discernible in the history of pro-colonial societies. The concern for accountability in recent times, have led to the call by donor agencies for accountability as part of their conditionalities for assistance to recipient countries. Also, the United Nation recognized and emphasized the principle of accountability in the Universal declaration of human (Iyoha and Idada, 2009).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

objective of this unit is to help students understand

- meaning of accountability
- areas of accountability
- ideology of bureaucratic accountability
- problems of bureaucratic accountability

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Problems of Bureaucratic Accountability

3.1 Accountability defined

In the fashionable lexicon of policy-makers, accountability is a buzz word. Like many buzz words such as democracy, globalization, sustainability, there is no consensus among scholar on the meaning of accountability. As Raynard (2000) noted “accountability is one of the terms used about which there is widespread sense of what it means but difficult in coming to any agreement about its definition”. In simple terms, accountability denotes a process by which individuals or organizations are answerable for their actions and the consequences that follow from them.

There is a range of instrumentalities for ensuring accountability. These tools vary with context and time.

3.2 Areas of Accountability

Financial accountability: This area covers the processes, structures, rules and norms established and applied in order to limit the tendency towards abuse, misappropriation, misapplication and any form of derailment in the acquisition of and utilization of money in organizations and societies.

It is important to note that finance does not always approximate to money although there are areas where money or cash is regarded as finance. Finance refers to money, or cash and other near monies with different degrees of convertibility particularly when raised or used for business, projects or management of the public sector. Apart from liquid cash, finance includes near monies range from government securities, bank deposits to assets owned by firms and governments with different degrees of convertibility (Obinna, 1985).

Political accountability: This area of accountability pertains to when representatives in the legislature account for their actions in the polity to the electorate.

Bureaucratic (Administrative) accountability: This pertains to internal dynamics, rules, procedures that guide the actions and activities of public servants. In bureaucratic or public service administration, the actions of individuals are regulated by laid down rules and procedures and there is a hierarchical graded system of offices that enables superiority and subordination.

Syeda Arifa Sultana (2012) identified five types of accountability of bureaucrats. They identified and discussed below

Accountability to the internal hierarchy: This exists when lower echelon officials are under the supervision of top officials. The lower officials account for their actions to the top officials.

Accountability to the legislature: The legislature can call bureaucracy to account through probe and review of extant laws.

Accountability to the judiciary: The judiciary is another organ of government the bureaucracy account to. Judicial pronouncement and ruling are ways the judiciary can hold bureaucracy to account

Accountability to the citizens: As the major clients or targets of the services of bureaucrats the citizens are their best judges. Citizens can make complaints against the service of bureaucracy.

Accountability to the media: In democracy, the media keeps surveillance on the services or behavior of bureaucrats

3.3 Ideology of Bureaucratic Accountability

Bureaucracy plays indispensable role in the operations of government in modern societies. As the business of governance expands in complexity, the role of bureaucracy cannot be wished away. Bureaucrats perform both political and administrative roles. As career officials close to political officials bureaucrats offer useful advice in policy making. In most cases, the information on policy formulation is rooted and sometimes help in drafting bills which the political officials debate and consequently pass into laws. Furthermore, bureaucrats help in the implementation of policies formulated by the political officials. In performing this function, they have the leverage to exercise considerable discretion.

The ideology of bureaucratic accountability is derived from the argument that accountability is the foundation of any governing process. In a democracy, the principle of accountability is a major ingredient. The political officials are held to account by the electorate at regular, competitive and credible elections. The citizens in a democracy hold bureaucrats to account through complaints against them. In contrast, in an authoritarian system “the absolute necessity and rights of the individual to complain against insensitive or callous treatment by the bureaucracy on the grounds that each individual has basic human rights regardless of the form of government that may exist.

The imperative of accountability for bureaucracy is that it provides legitimacy of rule and advance the notion of the public administrators as the servants of the people. Instructively, the notion of the ideology of bureaucratic accountability is rather politically

culture-bound and associated with democratic values and norms of governance. In a non-democratic setting, accountability may be limited to the absolute ruler, the party in government or their ideology rather than the citizens. Also, the scope and dimension of accountability may be centred around legal and financial matters.

3.4 Mechanisms of Bureaucratic Accountability

From a comparative prism, Gilbert, Kernaghan and Goldring outlined and categorized mechanisms of bureaucratic accountability along two dimensions, either as internal or external, formal (direct) or informal (indirect)

	Internal	External
Formal	Hierarchy Rules and regulations Budgets Personnel management Performance evaluation Auditing Programme monitoring Code of conduct	Legislative review Advisory committees Judicial review Ombudsman Review tribunals Evaluation research Freedom of information
Informal	Personal ethics Professionalism Representative bureaucracy Commitment Anticipated reactions from supervisors	Public comment Interest group pressure Peer review Media scrutiny Political parties Politicians and officials at other levels of government

Source:

The formal-internal accountability mechanisms include hierarchy, rules and regulations, budgets, personnel management, performance evaluation, auditing, programme monitoring, and code of conduct. These mechanisms are within the bureaucracy. Formal-external mechanisms include legislative review, advisory committees, judicial review, Ombudsman, review tribunals, evaluation research and freedom of information. The informal-internal mechanisms of accountability include personal ethics, professionalism, representative bureaucracy, commitment, and anticipated reactions from supervisors. The informal external category of accountability mechanisms includes public comment, interest group pressure, peer review, media scrutiny, political parties, and politicians and officials at other levels of government. The various mechanisms offer multiple-source and multi-directional accountability, which encouraged responsible behavior.

3.5 Problems of Bureaucratic Accountability in Nigeria

Bureaucratic accountability problems in developing countries manifest in various forms. In most developing countries accountability procedures are colonial hang-over. For instance, the criminal code in force in Nigeria which copiously and comprehensively defines the procedure and types of accountability is derived from the British colonial ordinance of 1916 (Ehwarieme, 1994).

Also, in most developing countries, the multi-dimensional frameworks of accountability are not exhaustive. This creates room for exercise of discretion which is often subject to misinterpretation and abuse.

Furthermore, there is so much emphasis on internal-external mechanisms with particular focus on legal and fiscal accountability with little concern for informal-external mechanisms.

Legislative committees in authoritarian context do not exist. In democratic context, where they may be in existence their influence on administrative behavior is insignificant. The gestation for the debates of legislative committee reports, reputational hostage-taking of some members of legislative committee and the non-implementation of most reports are not supportive of bureaucratic accountability. According to End Impunity Now (EIN) “we have had enough of committees, what is conspicuous by its absence, is any real and concrete action toward implementation of the reports of the committees ...” (Akanimo Reports 2012). Furthermore, it has been contended that reports of some investigative committees were not implemented because of the lack of political will. On account of the dramatis personae involved, most investigations of grand corruption cases such as the Halliburton bribery scandal of US\$180 million have remained inconclusive (Mbamalu 2010)

Also, in most developing countries, judicial review may be frustrated on the ground of technicalities and filibustering in the judicial process. Sluggishness in the application of legislation or administration of justice has been ascribed to the use of obsolete legislations inherited from the colonial masters, huge backlog of cases due to delays in proceedings and too many frivolous court injunctions, inadequate logistics, poor remuneration of judicial staff, bribery and perversion of justice (Osumah, 2017).

Tribunals cannot impose a custodial sentence. Custodial sentence is the exclusive reserve of the court. Tribunal’s judgment is subject to appeal in the Court of Appeal. Moreover, to administrative officials are yet to imbibe the spirit and letters of codes of conduct. This evident in the widespread default cases of asset declaration in Nigeria. For example, between 2000 and 2004, about 4,807 default cases of asset declaration were recorded (Bello-Imam 2005; Osumah, 2012). There is also low conviction rate in default cases.

Between 1999 and April 2005, out of a total of 5,976 cases sent to the Code of Conduct Bureau and Tribunal (CCB&T) for adjudication, only 125 were discharged or discharged and acquitted. This suggests that most of the cases were stagnated in the tribunal. The underperformance of the CCB&T is in part ascribed to lack of resources and lack of political will to function as well as incapacity to minimize itself from ethnic and partisan pressure (Bello-Imam 2005; Osumah, 2012)

The informal-external category of accountability mechanisms in the context of authoritarian systems has been stifled. Under authoritarian rule, popular pressure and agitations for accountability are often not tolerated by those in power. In fact, the mass media and civil society groups have been victims of harassment, intimidation, blackmail, proscription and suffocation over the issues concerning demand for accountability.

Although, there is freedom of information act, which provides for access to information about the operations of government, the behaviours of bureaucrats are still shrouded in secrecy. Certain information for nebulous reasons such as national interests are considered as classified and restricted.

Political patronage, the phenomenon of godfather and influence of proximate ties frustrate internal-formal and informal external mechanisms of bureaucratic accountability. Hierarchy, rules and regulations are impeded by proximate ties and the phenomenon of godfather. Proximate ties undermine personal ethics and professionalism. The role of political parties, politicians and officials at other levels of government in bureaucratic accountability is undermined by patronage and the phenomenon of godfatherism.

Religious groups particularly the Pentecostals through the preaching of gospel of prosperity are not supportive of bureaucratic accountability.

Public comments have not been supportive of bureaucratic accountability. There is seeming generalized public expectation that top administrators should use their positions to enrich themselves and the close relations. Those who have refused to key into such expectation are often stigmatized while those who have keyed in are venerated, celebrated, hero-worshipped and honoured august reception when they return home. According to CACOL's Debo Adeniran (cited in Naija News 2015)

Corruption has so far succeeded in not only ravaging our values and pride, but has also succeeded in bastardizing the psyche of the majority so much so that thieves are openly hailed and celebrated. Ours is gradually becoming a society that encourages opportunism in whatever form. The tendency to exploit every given opportunity to satisfy one's selfish desire no longer rest only with the leaders, the led themselves now encourage the

leaders to thrive in self-serving exploits. It's saddening and highly disturbing to see what has now become the norm for the led to constantly remind their newly elected (or appointed) leaders of why they should see their new positions as an opportunity that might come only once and so urge them to corruptly enrich themselves to the maximum at the expense of the less privileged. The common phrase nowadays is 'it is our turn to chop'. It is now a common sight to see 'men of timber and caliber' turning out in large number to accompany an accused corrupt person to the court or law enforcement or anti-corruption agencies, on a solidarity mission; all aimed at intimidating the institution of justice... We make bold to say that corruption has virtually become the second name of the average Nigerian, therefore, it would not be entirely out of place to insinuate that whoever is fighting corruption should see himself as indirectly fighting the generality of Nigerians; and we all know what that entails.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In recent times, there is great concern for the practice of accountability. It is acknowledged that there different areas of accountability. Bureaucratic accountability, which is one of the areas covers accountability in internal hierarchy, accountability to the legislature, judiciary, citizens and the media. Bureaucratic accountability is severely constrained by corruption, lack of political will, inadequate information and resources.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined the concept, areas, and mechanisms of accountability. It particularly identified the problems undermining bureaucratic accountability in Nigeria

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify the problems of bureaucratic accountability in Nigeria

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