NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA (NOUN)

COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

COURSE CODE: PAD 784

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COURSE CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The course Comparative Public Administration is specifically developed for students offering Post Graduate Diploma (PGD) in Public Administration in the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), Distance learning, though it can be utilized by other students at both undergraduate and master's level. The course is designed in a way as to provide students, especially those that are new in the field (Public Administration) with the opportunity to acquire the basic knowledge and understanding of the evolution, concepts and use of models and approaches in Comparative Public Administration, asrelated to both developed and developing countries, Anglophone and Francophone systems and specifically the nature of bureaucratic organisations within the context of Nigeria as related to other countries of the world. It will assist studentwith the basic skills of applying these concepts and approaches inmaking comparative studies by determining why one system or the other is successful in a particular setting but not the other (due to different in ecology), hence, this will pave way vis-a-vis the roles that you perform as an administrator to identifying a particular approach or system that can be adopted or adapted in the public sector settings, especially Nigeria, that is, after weighing the extent for the suitability of same.

Furthermore, this course guide will provide you (students) with the necessary information about the course contents and the referencing materials you will need to further and enrich your study. It is designed in a way that it will assist you (students) to get the best of the course by enabling you (students) to think systematically and broadly about the principles underlying the issues of bureaucratic organisations. However, the guide also provides some guidance on the way to approach your tutor-marked assignments (TMAS). Finally but not the least, the course guide is informative about what the course is all about, what referencing materials (further readings) you will need and how you can work your way through these materials. It suggests some general guidelines for the amount of time you are likely to spend on each unit of the course in order to complete your study without any hitches.

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

This course entitled "Comparative Public Administration" introduces you to the brief evolutionary trends with consideration of the factors that contributed to its development as a field of study under the broader field of Public Administration, conceptual clarifications, nature, approaches etc. as related to public administration (Bureaucracy) as it is practised elsewhere, that is, in both developed and developing systems, Anglophone and Francophone etc.

COURSE AIM

The main aim of the courseis to give you a vivid understanding of the origin of Comparative Public Administration, Definitions and meaning of comparative public administration, approaches and how they can be applied in everyday administrative activities. It also aims to help you (students) to further your skills and competences in the public sector management that is, after studying the systems of administration in different settings in the world. You can also apply the principles to your job as policy makers, top management of public organisations in both the private and public enterprises respectively.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

To achieve the aims highlighted above, the course sets specific objectives. This are designed in a way that each unit has specific objectives. The unit objectives are always included at the beginning of each unit; advisably, you should read them before you start working through the unit in order to have insight or an idea of what the unit set to achieve. The objectives will serve as the benchmark or referral

baseline to determine or measure your understanding of the sub-topics of the respective units.

Therefore, you should always refer back to the unit objectives after completing a study of every unit. In doing so, make sure that you follow the provided instructions in the respective unit.

However,below are the broken down objectives of the course as a whole. By meeting these objectives, you should have achieved the aims of the course as a whole. Thus, on successful completion of the course, you should be able to:

(1) Trace and explain the evolutionary trends and meaning of comparative public Administration;

(2) Identify and appreciate the contributions of Riggs to Comparative Public Administration Studies;

(3) Outline the rationales or significance of Comparative Public Administration;

(4) Describe the scope and forms of Comparative Public Administration;

(5) Understand the uses of models and approaches and have brief analysis of the major approaches tocomparative public Administration study;

(6) Understand the cross-cultural, bureaucratic, case study, institutional, structural-functional and Prismatic Sala Models in Comparative Studies;

(7) Understand the concept of Bureaucracy and civil service;

(8) Highlight in general perspective the nature of administration in developed and developing countries;

(9) Compare the system of Administration in developed and developing Anglophone and Francophone with specific reference to Britain and France, Nigeria and Senegal;

(10) Finally, understand therole of bureaucracy innation-building and the problems and prospects of bureaucracy especially in developing countries

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To complete this course, you are required to read the study units, read recommended text books and read other materials provided by the National Open University ofNigeria (NOUN). Each unit contains self-assessment exercises, and at a point in the course, you are required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, there is a final examination. However, the course should take you about 16 - 17 weeks in total to complete.

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

COURSE MATERIALS
The major components of the course material are as follows:
(a) Course Guide

(b) Course Study Units

(c) References/Further Readings

(d) Assignment

(e) Presentation Schedule

STUDY UNITS

The course material which is divided into three (3) modules is constituted by study units that make up a module. These modules and units are as follows:

MODULE 1: EVOLUTION, NATURE AND MEANING OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Unit 1:   Brief Historical Development of Comparative Public Administration

Unit 2:   Concept of Comparative Public Administration

Unit 3:   Riggs' Contribution to Comparative Public Administration studies

Unit 4:   Rationales for Comparative Public Administration Studies

Unit 5:   Scopes and forms of Comparative Public Administration Studies

Unit 6:   Comparison between Public Administration and Comparative Public Administration

MODULE 2: MODELS AND APPROACHES TO COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Unit 1: Uses of Models and Approaches in Comparative Public Administration Studies

Unit 2: Cross-cultural Approach to Comparative public administration Studies

Unit 3: Bureaucratic Approach to Comparative public administration Studies

Unit 4: Case studies Approach to Comparative public administration Studies

Unit 5:   Institutional Approach to Comparative public administration Studies

Unit 6: Structural-functional Approach to Comparative public administration Studies

Unit 7:   Prismatic Model and Comparative Public Administration

MODULE 3: NATURE/SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Unit 1:   Concept of Bureaucracy

Unit 2: Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developed Countries

Unit 3: Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developing Countries

Unit 4: Systems of Administration in Developed Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Britain and France)

Unit 5: Systems of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Nigeria and Senegal)

Unit 6: Problems and Prospects of Bureaucracy on Nation Building

From the foregoing modules, it should be noted that the first module dwells into the discussion by first tracing the emergence or origin of Comparative Public Administration as a sub-field of Public Administration, subsequent discussions feature the conceptual clarification of the concept and the nature of Comparative Public Administration.

The second Module focuses on the use of Models and Approaches in Comparative Public Administration Studies with emphasis in explaining the cross-cultural approach, bureaucratic, case study, institutional, systems/structural-functional and discussion on Prismatic cum Prismatic Sala model.

The last module attempts analysis on the nature or systems of administration in developed and developing countries with further focus on the developed Anglophone and Francophone and developing Anglophone and Francophone

countries respectively. Finally, attempt will be made in looking at bureaucracy and nation building as well as the prospects of bureaucracy especially in developing societies.

ASSIGNMENT FILES

There are 19 assignments in this course. The nineteen-course assignment which cover all the topics in the course material are there to guide you to have proper understanding and grasp of the course.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

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

ASSESSMENT

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

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

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

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT (TMA)

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

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

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

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination MGS 783 will be of three hours' duration and have a value of 50% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions, which reflect the types of self-testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed.   The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count as the other 50% of your total course mark.

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

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

Total Course Marking Scheme

ASSESSMENT	MARKS
Assignments 1-19	Nineteen assignments, best six marks of the nine count @ 5% each = 30% of course marks
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

COURSE OVERVIEW (ACTIVITY)

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

Unit	Title of Work	Weeks Activity	Assessment (end of unit)
	Course Guide		
	Module 1		
1	Brief Historical Development of ComparativePublic Administration	1	**Assignment**:Trace the origin of Comparative Public Administration and briefly discuss any six factors responsible for it development as a specialized field of study
2	Concept of Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment :**Discuss the concept of comparative public administration
3	Riggs Contribution to Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment:**Discuss the contributions of Riggs to the Comparative Public Administration studies
4	Rationale for Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment :**Critically discuss the rationale for the comparative public administration studies
5	Scope and forms of Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment :**Identify and briefly but critically discuss the level of analysis and different forms of comparative public administration studies you are familiar with
6	Comparison between Public Administration and Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment:**Comparative public administrationdiffers in significant ways from traditional public administration. Expatiate

	Module 2		
1	Uses of Models and Approaches in Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment**:Briefly define a model and critically discuss the uses and common attributes of model in comparative public administration studies
2	Cross-cultural Approach to Comparative Studies	1	**Assignment :**Discuss the cross-cultural approach to comparative public administration study
3	Bureaucratic Approach to Comparative Studies	1	**Assignment :**Describe the Weber's bureaucratic approach to the comparative public administration studies
4	Case Study Approach to Comparative Studies	1	**Assignment:**Critically explain the use of case study approach in comparative public administration studies
5	Institutional Approach to Comparative Studies	1	**Assignment :**Briefly but critically discuss the institutional approach to the study of comparative public administration
6	Systems/Structural functional Approach to Comparative Studies	1	**Assignment:** What do you understand by the structural approach?
7	Prismatic Model and Comparative Public Administration	1	**Assignment :**Use the elements of Prismatic sala model to explain the nature of administration in Nigeria
	Module 3		
1	Concept of Bureaucracy	1	**Assignment :**What is Bureaucracy? Discuss any five features of bureaucracy with relevant examples
2		1	**Assignment :**Critically describe the nature of administration in developed countries

	Natureof Administration in Developed Countries		
3	Nature of Administration in Developing countries	1	**Assignment** :Explain the cluster of common administrative patterns typical of administration in developing countries identified by Heady
4	System of Administration in Developed Anglophone and Francophone (Britain and France) Countries	1	**Assignment :**Compare the administrative system of Britain and France on the basis of the following criteria: recruitment, training and promotion
5	Systems of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone countries (Nigeria and Senegal)	1	**Assignment :**Compare the system of bureaucracy/administration between Nigeria and Senegal
6	Problems and Prospects of Bureaucracy in Nation Building	1	**Assignment :**Critically discuss the role of bureaucracy in nation building. What are the prospects of bureaucracy in developing countries?
	Total	19	19

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

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

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

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

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

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

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

(1)   Please read this course guide carefully and thoroughly.

(2)   Organise a study schedule. Refer to the course overview for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the

assignments relate to the units. Important information e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the semester will be made available. You need to gather all this information in one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working on each unit.

(3) Once you have created you own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. One of the major reasons that students fail is that they get behind with their coursework. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for help.

(4) Turn to the respective units and read the introduction and the objectives for each of the units.

(5) Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the 'Overview' at the beginning of each unit. You will always need both the study unit you are working on and one of your references, on your desk at the same time.

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

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

(8)   Review of the objectives for each study unit confirms that you have achieved them. If you find ambiguity in any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your tutor.

(9)   When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then start perusing the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to face your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.

(10)   When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, especially on the tutor-marked assignment form. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or difficulty.

(11)   After completing the last unit (Unit 19), review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

FACILITATORS/TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

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

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

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

CONTACT YOUR TUTOR IF:

- You do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings.
- You have difficulty with the self-test or exercise.

- You have a question or problem with an assignment with your tutor's comment on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment

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

As earlier stated above, this course MGS 783 Comparative Public Administration relates public Administration in public organisations. It makes in-depth analysis of the Comparative Public Administration in developing and developed countries for understanding of the practices and principles governing public Administration.

MAIN COURSE

MODULE 1: EVOLUTION, NATURE AND MEANING OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Unit 1:   **Brief Historical Development of Comparative Public Administration** Unit 2:   **Concept of Comparative Public Administration**

Unit 3: **Riggs' Contribution to Comparative Public Administration**
Unit 4: **Rationales for Comparative Public Administration Studies**
Unit 5: **Scopes and forms of Comparative Public Administration Studies**
Unit 6: **Comparison between Public Administration and Comparative Public Admin**
MODULE 2: MODELS AND APPROACHES TO COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Unit 1: **Uses of Models and Approaches in Comparative Public Administration Studies**
Unit 2: **Cross-cultural Approach to Comparative Studies**
Unit 3: **Bureaucratic Approach to Comparative Studies**
Unit 4: **Case studies Approach to Comparative Studies**
Unit 5: **Institutional Approach to Comparative Studies**
Unit 6: **Systems/Structural-functional Approach to Comparative Studies**
Unit 7: **Prismatic Model and Comparative Public Administration**
MODULE 3: NATURE/SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
Unit 1: **Concept of Bureaucracy**
Unit 2: **Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developed Countries**
Unit 3: **Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developing Countries**
Unit 4: **Systems of Administration in Developed Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Britain and France)**
Unit 5: **Systems of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Nigeria and Senegal)**
Unit 6: **Problems and Prospects of Bureaucracy on Nation Building**

MODULE1: EVOLUTION, MEANING AND NATURE OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Unit 1:   **Brief Historical Development of Comparative Public Administration**

Unit 2:   **Concept of Comparative Public Administration**

Unit 3:   **Riggs' Contribution to Comparative Public Administration**

Unit 4:   **Rationales for Comparative Public Administration Studies**

Unit 5:   **Scopes and forms of Comparative Public Administration Studies**

Unit 6:   **Comparison between Public Administration and Comparative Public Administration**

UNIT   1:BRIEF   HISTORICAL   DEVELOPMENT   OF   COMPARATIVE   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The emphasis on the shift from the traditional Public administration to comparative Public Administration was heralded after the Second World War because hitherto to that period, literatures on Comparative Public Administration were sketchy. However, in the early

writings on the subject, scholars such as L.D White and F.W. Taylor or the human relations movement adopted a "management" approach and their main concern was building a science of administration through the articulation of certain "Universal" principles of administration. It was the turn of events during and after World War II that influenced or changed the state of literature on Comparative Public Administration. Therefore, this unit focuses on the trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration and the factors that influenced the development of Comparative Public Administration as a sub-field of public administration.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Trace the origin and evolutionary trends of comparative public administration

(b) Identify the factors that influenced the development or evolution of comparative public administration

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Trends in the Emergence of Comparative Public Administration

Demand for Relevance Comparative studies have been conducted for centuries, producing broad comparative surveys leading to broad generalizations. Most of these cross-state comparisons have been cross-disciplinary (Deutsch 1987: 7). Perhaps the most prominent early user of such comparisons is Aristotle, who combined the Platonic methods of abstraction with the study of concrete cases. Aristotle sent his assistants around the Mediterranean to collect the constitutions of 128 city-states. The result was Aristotle's Politics, a valuable piece of theory which has endured over the centuries, and generating many important cross-disciplinary generalizations (Deutsch 1987: 7).

Although students of comparative administration may consider their subject a product of the post WW II era, actually a strong call for a comparative orientation of public administration goes back to much earlier time. Woodrow Wilson's famous article often referred to as the first articulation of public administration as a field of study, repeatedly emphasized the comparative approach as the foundation of developing administrative principles. Wilson believed that it is possible, indeed desirable, that we find the regularities and the principles of public administration through comparisons.

In 1887, Wilson wrote that "nowhere else in the whole field of politics, it would seem, can we make use of the historical, comparative method more safely than in this province of administration" (Wilson in Shafritz and Hyde 1997: 25). Profusion of systematic comparative public administration is a fairly recent activity, imprecisely linked to the downfall of colonialism. Scholars who bridged the interests of administration and politics took the lead in the early phase.

In 1953, the American Political Science Association had a committee on comparative administration, before the American Society for Public Administration created the Comparative Administration Group (CAG). During the 1960s, the CAG expanded its activities and attracted over 500 members that included academicians, students, management consultants, and operatives of technical assistance programs to developing countries. Subsequently, the CAG was merged to become the first section of ASPA that subsequently was named Section on International and Comparative Administration (SICA). Fred W. Riggs provided intellectual and organizational leadership to the CAG during its early days. He managed the group, attracted more members, and contributed significant writings that set new directions in comparative studies.

Other names that have been prominently involved during the early years of the comparative enterprise include Dwight Waldo, Milton Esman, Ferrel Heady, Frank Sherwood, Ralph Braibanti, John Montgomery, William Siffin, and others. In a report to the annual meeting of ASPA, April 1961, Fred Riggs specified three emerging trends in the comparative study of public administration: (1) a trend from normative toward more empirical approaches, (2) a shift from idio- graphic (distinct cases) toward nomothetic approaches (studies that seek explicitly to formulate and test propositions), and (3) a shift from predominantly non- ecological to an ecological basis of comparative study (Heady 1962: 2).

3.2 Factors that influenced the Development/evolution of Comparative Public Administration

From the foregoing analysis on the trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration, the specific factors that contributed to the raise and development of comparative public administration were inter alia:

(1) The revisionist movement in comparative politics due to dissatisfaction with the traditional approaches.

(2) The dissatisfaction with traditional public administration which was culture-bound.

(3) Intellectually oriented catalysts, that is, to develop universally relevant theoretical models.

(4) Exposure of American scholars and administrators to the new features of the administrative systems of developing countries during the World War II period.

(5) The emergence of newly independent Third World countries which attempted to achieve rapid socio-economic development, creating opportunities for scientific investigation.

(6) Policy oriented catalysts, that is, to develop the practical knowledge to make policy-formulation and policy-execution more effective.

(7) The scientific, technological and theoretical development which have influenced the

forms of administrative structures.

(8) The extension of American foreign aid programme (both political and economic) to newly emerged developing countries.

(9) The rise of behavioural approach in public administration as a reaction to the classical structural approach. However, the behaviour movement in Social Sciences led the students of Public Administration to move away from the traditional legal formal approach and to concentrate on the facts of actual behaviour of human beings in an administrative organization

(Bhagwan and Bhushan, 2006:58)

(10) The Comparative studies in sociology, anthropology and other areas.

(11) New scientific, theoretical and technological development that affect the nature of administration

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly trace the evolution of Comparative Public Administration and identify any five factors that influenced its growth

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have to terms with the fact that the major shift from the periodical thinking of public administration to comparative approach was stimulated by a number of factors starting with the World War II. During the War, there were post-war military occupations and accelerated technical assistance programmes sponsored by the United Nation, United States and some private foundations like the Ford Foundation. Numerous students/practitioners from the USA at the time participated in the Aid programmes. This offered them the opportunity and exposure to government systems and cultures of other foreign countries (often non-western). The result of this exposure was

the stimulation of a sense of "comparativeness" in general, while raising a number of questions about the appropriateness of principles and devices that had been adjudged as good or scientific principles of administration previously.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have highlighted the trends in the emergence of Comparative Public Administration as an area of interest under the broader field of Public Administration as well as the factors that influenced the emergence of the subject matter which were related to the events that took place during and after the Second World War II. Some of the factors include: the revisionist movement in Political Science that saw the need for Comparative study in bureaucracy or administration, the exposure of some Americans on the system of administration in developing countries, the emergence of free or independent states etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Trace the origin of Comparative Public Administration and briefly discuss any six factors responsible for it development as a specialized field of study

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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

Heady, F., and S. L. Stokes, eds. (1962). Papers in Comparative Public Administration. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute of Public Administration, University of Michigan.

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

Heady, F. (2001). *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective,* 6th ed. New York: Marcel Dekker.

UNIT 2: **CONCEPT OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

CONTENTS
1.0 **Introduction**
2.0 **Objectives**

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Good day everyone. I hope you have appreciated our discussion in unit one above which took us to the history of the subject matter of "Comparative Public Administration" and the factors responsible for the emergence or growth of the area as a specialized sub-field of Public Administration. Having done that, I will now take you through the definitions and meaning of Comparative Public Administration as defined by different scholars and groups.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand the conceptual and operationalmeaning of Comparative Public Administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition and Meaning of Comparative Public Administration

The concept of Comparative public administration has been defined in various ways. It is regarded as a sub-field of Public Administration. According to Comparative Administrative Group **(CAG),**"Comparative public administration is *a theory of public administration applied to the diverse cultures and national settings and the body of factual data by which it can be examined and tested*. "In his own view, Jong S. Junstated that"Comparative public administration has been predominantly cross-cultural or cross-

national in orientation."

Nimrod Raphaelidefined "Comparative public administrative as a study of public administration on a comparative basis." He traced the origin of comparative public administration to the 1952 Conference on Administration held at Princeton University inUSA. He said, "Comparative public administration is a new corner to the community of academic instruction and research.

Riggs (1973) noted in his definition, that the term "Comparative" should be used only for *empirical, nomothetic and ecological studies.*However, Marume (1976)is of the opinion that comparative public administration is that method of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous systematic cross-cultural comparisons of the structures, institutions actions and processes involved in the activity of running the public affairs

According to Woodrow Wilson (1887), Of ourselves, so long as we know only ourselves, we know nothing. Thus, Comparative public administration (CPA) is the study of administrative institutions, processes, and behaviors across organizational, national, and cultural boundaries. The CPA is a method of investigation and analysis that compares attributes and performance of administrative systems and subsystems as well as individuals or groups in positions of decision making to generate knowledge and enhance understanding of public management. Comparison recognizes similarities and differences and underscores successful practices, thus, expanding options and alternative strategies for improving the performance of public institutions.

Comparative Public Administration deals with administrative organizations or systems

pertaining with different cultures and settings whose similar or dissimilar features or characteristics are studies and compared in order to find out "causes" or "reasons" for efficient or effective performance or behaviour of administrators, civil servants or bureaucrats.

This comparison can be cross-national, namely –the comparison of municipal administration in Ceylon and India. Intra-national like the comparison of Rajasthan and U.P. Secretariat, it can be cross-cultural such as the comparison of budget administration of Nepal and Russia and cross-temporal, such as the comparison of administration of Chandra Gupta Maurya and Akbar or comparison of pre-colonial and post-colonial era/period in Nigeria or Africa in general.

The context (environment) of public administration consists of various external factors that exert significant influences on management action and behavior through different means and channels. External factors include societal values, legal norms, politics, international-global accords, culture, and the state of the economy. Together, these diverse external factors have considerable impact on public management, stimulating or stifling systemic traits and performance.

Consistently, the CPA seeks discovery of patterns and regularities of administrative action and behavior to produce new knowledge and insights and to affirm and refine existing information. The outcome, whether comparative research discovers new knowledge or validates existing information, is that public administration scholars and practitioners are better able to sort out and to adopt most worthy practices. "Comparison is so central to good analysis that the scientific method is unavoidably comparative" (Collier 1991: 7).

Similarly, social scientists regard the comparative approach as "the methodological core of the humanistic and scientific methods" (Almond et al. 2000: 33). As a requirement of the

scientific investigative process, the comparative approach has frequently been noted and emphasized in public administration literature since Woodrow Wilson's famous article in 1887. After many decades, Dahl's (1947: 8) widely quoted declaration remains true. Namely, as long as the study of public administration is not comparative, "claims of a science of public administration" sound rather hollow.

Dahl concluded that the development of an American, British, or French science of public administration is feasible. But he also inquired: can there be "a science of public administration" in the sense of a body of generalized principles, independent of their peculiar national setting? Comparative studies of organizations and institutions also reinforce under- standing of global influences while expanding the domain of intellectual inquiry beyond traditional, parochial tendencies.

Therefore, comparative public administration can be regarded as the study of public administration on comparative basis, in order to trace any regularities or otherwise in administrative patterns. It is mainly cross-cultural or cross-national, that is , it is not culture bound.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What do you understand by Comparative Public Administration?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is thebelief that generalizations relating to administrative structures and behaviour, emerging out of comparative studies in different nations and cultures can help to formulate theoretical constructs, which can provide a scientific basis to the study of public administration which according to Dahl is the only basis of regarding public administration as a science. Therefore, comparative public administration is a major shift

from the traditional public administration which is culture-bound.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit attempted a conceptual clarification of the subject matter of Comparative public Administration which is defined by different scholars and groups like Comparative Administration Group (CAG) etc. However, Comparative Public administration is the study of public administration across border that paves way for the universal application of a theory in different settings or cultures, it is cross-cultural study of the administration of various countries in the world, it is the shift towards empiricism, nomothetic and ecological studies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Discuss the concept of comparative public administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3:   RIGGS' CONTRIBUTION TO COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDIES

CONTENTS
1.0   Introduction

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Riggs is one of the foremost model-builder in comparative public administration. Ferrel Heady says that Riggs' book Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society (1964) continues to be probably the most notable single contribution in comparative public administration. Professor Riggs employed three analytical tools to explain his administrative theories. These are ecological approach (ecological perspectives); structural-functional approach; and idea models (model-building). Also Riggs is well known for his contribution in highlighting the trend in the study of comparative public administration.

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

(a) Identify and describe the trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration

(b) Understand the nexus between ecology and Comparative Public Administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Trends in the Study of Comparative Public Administration by Riggs

The trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration are related to the handy work of Fred Riggs. Riggs (1973) who was the chairman of Comparative Administration group (CAG) noted in his definition, that the term "comparative" should be used only

for empirical, nomothetic and ecological studies. Riggs outlines three trends in the comparative study of Public Administration studies thus:

a) Shift from normative approach towards more empirical approaches;

b) Shift from ideographic (individualistic) toward nomothetic (universals); and

c) Shift from a predominantly non-ecological to an ecological basis for the study of Public Administration.

(a) Normative to Empirical

Traditional studies of Public Administration were very muchinfluenced by the classical approach. These studies emphasised upon 'good administration' which was based on following certain ideal principles (What ought to be). Efficiency and economy were considered to be the primary goals of all administrative systems and there were certain principles of formal organisation which helped-in the achievement of these goals, therefore, a few models of administration, primarily of the western democratic world, were considered to be useful for all other administrative systems. As a number of developing countries emerged on the scene and with the success of the communist systems in various form of the world, it became clear that a limited culture-bound normative approach to the study of Public Administration was not adequate.

The behavioural approach highlighted the value of studying the facts and reality in significant manner and therefore the comparative studies of Public Administration after the Second World War started assigning greater importance to the study of administrative "reality" existing in differences countries and cultures. These studies were more interested in finding out facts about some patterns and behaviorism of administrative systems rather than in describing as to what was good for each system. In this context, it may be mentioned that two important trends have influenced the character of some administrative

studies in the past two decades or so. First, the concept' of Development Administration" which focuses on the goal-orientation of administrative system .Thoughconsiders reality as the basis of such goal orientation, the emergence of Development Administration focus inquiry since the early sixties.

Comparative Public Administration (encompassing the field of Comparative Development Administration) has evolved a synthesis between the normative and the elements of analysis. The second movement that best influenced the nature of Comparative administrative studies against Public Administration which stressed the idealistic goal and to be achieved and system and thus tried to bridge the gap between the "is" and "should" aspects of Public Administration. In the late sixties, the New Public administration marked the "post-behavioural" trend and its impact on most administrative analysis has been propounded. .

(b) Ideographic to Nomothetic

The words "ideographic" and "nomothetic" have been used by Riggs in specific contexts. An *ideographic approach concentrates on unique cases,* e.g. a historical event, study of single agency, single country or even a single cultural area. *Nomothetic approach, on the other hand seeks to develop generalisations and theories* which are based on analysis of regularities of behaviourof administrative systems. Thus earlier studies of Comparative Public Administration which were ideographic in character focused on the study of individual nations or institutions and their approach was primarily descriptive. No serious attempt was made to compare various nations and systems.

Generally, within a volume on comparative governmental administration, there were separate chapters on different nations, without any attempt to look at the similarities or

differences among such nations in terms of their administrative systems. These studies, therefore, were 'comparative' only in name and did not help in the process of theory-building or in developing generalisations concerning the functioning of administrative system in different settings.

Nomothetic studies analyse various administrative systems in comparative context in a manner that will help in the generation of hypothesis and theories. The objective of such studies is to look at the similarities and differences of various administrative systems existing in different nations and cultures and then draw certain generalisations relating to administrative systems functioning at various levels and in different settings. It may be noted that the emphasis on nomothetic comparatives studies is more noticeable in the United States of America than in Europe or Asia. Presently, a large number of comparative administrative studies are ideographic in character. Even these studies, it must beadmitted, contributed to knowledge in Comparative Public Administration. Analysis or theory-building has to be based on facts and description. And therefore, in the present state of comparative administrative studies, a co-existence of ideographic and nomothetic studies may have to be accepted.

(c) Non-ecological to Ecological
The traditional studies of Comparative Public Administration were mainly non-ecological. These studies mentioned about the environment of administrative system only in a casual manner, Therewas no serious attempt to examine the relationship between the administrative system and its environment, Thus, ithad become very difficult to identify the sources of differences among various administrative systems.

However, studies undertaken after the Second World Warhave been specifically looking at

similarities and differences among environmental settings prevailing-in different nation and cultures and have been attempting to examine the impact of environment on the administrative system on the other hand theinfluence of the administrative system on the environment. The well-known ecological approach relates to the study of interrelationship between the system and its environment. This approach, popularised by Fred Riggs, has been regarded as an important development in the study of Public Administration. It may be noted that most of the comparative studies of Public administration after the" Second World War have been referring to the environment of the administrative systems, but theemphasis is still on analysing the impact of the environment on Public Administrator. The analysis relating to the influences of the administrative system on the 'environment is still inadequate. Nevertheless, a change in emphasis is noticeable and the ecological orientation is gaining stronger footing in the contemporary comparative administrative analysis.

3.2 Ecology and Comparative Public Administration by Riggs

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Stimulated by generous grants from U.S. foundations and government agencies and motivated by financial and other advantages that were available as a result of the feverish competition of the Cold War, scholarship in comparative public administration flourished. Cross-cultural studies were significantly expanded, often in association with other field research activities covering most newly independent countries. The few references listed above are illustration of the intellectual productivity of this period. A particularly

significant aspect of this trend is the integration and the institutionalization of comparative and development administration in the educational systems of the United States and the rest of the world. Courses on comparative and development administration became central parts in many graduate programs in public administration and in training activities.

Apart from Riggs, the Structural-Functional Approach which was used in respect of explaining the link between ecology and administration was however adopted by Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, Marion Levy, Gabriel Almond, David Apter, and others.
According to the Structural-Functional Approach, every society has various structures which perform specific functions. Riggs identified five functions which are performed in each society. They are political, economic, social, symbolic and communicational functions. He stated that, same set of functional requisite apply to an administrative sub-system.

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

Outline the trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration by Riggs

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion,Riggs has contributed immensely in Comparative Public Administration studiesby consistently emphasizing that the comparative approach is indispensable. By

comparing societies, "we begin to discover whether any particular environmental feature is regularly accompanied by some administrative trait Riggs (1961: 3).

However, comparative public administration has to be empirically inclined, nomothetically inclined and based on consideration of the varied environmental factors.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit highlighted the trends in the study of Comparative Public Administration by Riggs and the contribution of Riggs in developing the ecological approach to the study of public administration. As earlier stated, the ecological approach to the study of Public Administration was popularly propagated by Fred W. Riggs who studied administrative systems in different countries (with emphasis on developing countries) and why there was a vast amount of disconnect among them.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Discuss the contributions of Riggs to the Comparative Public Administration studies

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4: RATIONALE FOR COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDIES

CONTENTS
1.0   Introduction

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Distinguished Ladies and Gentlemen Good day. You will agree with me that Comparison is essential to our understanding of public administration especially as it is practice in different settings. It has been claimed that one important dimension of science is to compare. In the process of theory building and in the process of interchange of ideas among human beings, comparison is quite imminent. Through comparison a scientific development of knowledge is quite essential or possible. Therefore, in this unit attempt will be made in discussing the rationale or significance of Comparative Public Administration.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and appreciate the significance of Comparative Public Administration studiesto the students of Comparative Public Administration

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Significance of Comparative Public Administration

The comparative approach (comparative public administration) has been an important thrust within the field of public administration, committed to human learning and to discovery through comparison. The CPA seeks to advance administrative knowledge by

focusing on administrative structures, functions, behaviors, and performance across organizational and cultural boundaries to improve reliability and applicability of administrative concepts and practices. As Bannister (2007: 171) notes, "The human urge to compare one's performance with that of others seems to be an intrinsic part of our psycho- logical make-up." Comparison is more prevalent in our expressions and formal judgments than commonly acknowledged. We often compare performance to previous years, to other people, to other organizations, to cost, to benchmarks, and to similar functions and activities across jurisdictions and across national boundaries.

The examination of administrative practices of other societies permits us to see a wider range of administrative actions and choices, beyond the horizon of our own experiences. Rephrasing Woodrow Wilson*, if we study only ourselves we know only about ourselves and remain isolated in an interconnected world*. The CPA scholarship, at various phases of its evolution, devoted much attention to learning about unfamiliar, non-Western countries and their aspirations to transform and to modernize their administrative systems.

Comparative research broadens knowledge of conditions conducive to strong or weak administrative performance by focusing on a range of patterns of administrative activities and characteristics of the systems performing them.

Much learning is achieved from practices that worked well and from those that did not. Not surprising, therefore, that administrative reform and capacity building are major concerns in the comparative literature. To learn from the best practices is to encourage the recognition and the utilization of the most appropriate organizational structures and processes. In many countries, irrespective of the results of reform plans for improving performance of public organizations, the contents of such plans have largely been based

on lessons learned through cross-cultural comparative investigations (Manning and Parison 2004). While explanatory research is essential for the advancement of scholarship, it also benefits practitioners by expanding their horizons of choice and their capacity to observe, learn, and improve performance.

However, Ramesh. K. Arora identified the four elements of the contribution of Comparative Public Administration as follows:

(1) It has widened the horizons of public administration.

(2) It has opened the doors of the discipline to all kinds of social scientists.

(3) It has made the scope of the field more systematic by studying different administrative systems in their ecological settings.

(4) It has stimulated interest on the part of its members in the problems of developing administration.

On the other hand, according to T. N Chaturvedi, the various contributions of comparative study in public administration are:

(i) It has helped to eliminate the narrowness of "provincialism" and "regionalism".

(ii) It has broadened the field of social science research, which was earlier confined to cultural limitations.

(iii) It has led to a greater scientific outlook in theory construction.

(iv) It has encouraged the process of broadening the field of social analysis.

(v) It has played an important role in making the subject of public administration broader, deeper, and useful.

(vi) It has brought politics and public administration closer to each other.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

As a student of Comparative Public Administration, state four significance of Comparative Public Administration studies

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, through comparison, a scientific development of knowledge is quite essential or possible. According to the political scientist W.A. Welsh "comparison is the basis of concept formation." People assign some characters (term or concept) to things that seem similar to one another. Comparative studies in public administration afford us as students, scholars, analysis and practitioner's greater understanding of public administration across national boundaries as bureaucrats or administrators of each country have their peculiar characters and behavior different from others in another country. Therefore, among the tasks of comparative public administration is to establish propositions about administrative behaviour which cover different political settings. Generally knowledge of comparative public administration saves scholars and practitioners some embarrassment and surprise when having the advantage to operate beyond their immediate political and cultural environment.

5.0   SUMMARY

Comparative public administration is imperative in understanding the patterns and regularities of administration across border which will pave way for determining the similarities and dissimilarities of administrative system in different settings. Therefore, we have outlined the significance of comparative public administration which on general note has widened our horizon in understanding how bureaucracy and government in general operate in different cultural setting and countries.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Critically discuss the rationale for the comparative public administration studies

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5: SCOPE AND FORMS OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Good day students of Comparative public administration class. In this unit we are going to focus on the scope and level of analysis of comparative public administration and the different forms or dimensions of comparative public administration studies.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Describe the scope and level of analysis of Comparative Public Administration

(b) Understand the different forms or dimensions of Comparative studies

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Scope and level of Analysis of Comparative Public Administration

In comparative (public) administrative studies, the unit of analysis (scope) is on administrative system. Therefore, the focus is either on the whole of an administrative system or on its various parts. Briefly, the subject matter of comparison would be one or all of the following phenomena:

(i) Environment of the administrative system.

(ii) The whole administrative system.

(iii) The formal structure of the administrative system with a focus on the pattern of

hierarchy, division of work, specialization, authority-responsibility network, decentralization, delegation, control mechanisms, procedures, **etc.**

(iv) The informal organizational patterns existing in an administrative set-up, including the nature of human groups, the relationships among individuals, motivational system, the status of morale, patterns of informal communication and the nature of leadership.

(v) The roles of the individuals.

(vi)The interaction between the personality of individuals and the organizational system.

(vii) The policy and decisional systems of the organization that link its various parts.

(viii) The communicational system, which also involves the feedback mechanism.

(ix) The performance of an administrative system.

You would notice from the foregoing discussion that an administrative system is not asimple entity. There are intricacies of its functioning which will be highlighted in any comparative analysis.

However, Comparative administrative studies can be conducted at three analytical levels: macro,middle-range and micro.

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

(b) The Middle-range studies: Theses are on certain important parts of an administrative system that are sufficiently large in size and scope of functioning. For instance, a

comparison of the structure of higher bureaucracy of two or more nations, comparison of agricultural administration in two or more countries or a comparison of local government in different, countries will form part of middle range studies. For instance, the Nigerian local government system can compare to that of Britain.

(c) Micro studies: These relate to comparisons of an individual organization with its counterparts in other settings. A micro study might relate to an analysis of a small part of an administrative system, such as the recruitment or training system in two or more administrative organizations: Micro studies are more feasible to be undertaken and a large number of such studies have been conducted by scholars of Public administration In the contemporary Comparative public Administration, all the three types of studies may exist.

3.2   Forms/Types of Comparative Public Administration Studies

The types of comparative administrative studies are broadly classified into five .They are:

(a)Inter-institutional Analysis

Inter-institutional analysis involves a comparison of two or more administrative systems **within anorganization**. For instance, a comparison of the structure and working of the department of human resource and department accounting such comparisons could involve the whole of an administrative organization or its various parts.

(b)Intra national Analysis

When an analysis in a comparative perspective is taken up among various administrative systems functioning **within a country,** it would be an intra-national analysis. For instance comparison of district administration in Northern (Unguja) and South district (Pemba) would be an example of such an analysis.

(c)Cross-national Analysis

When two or more administrative systems (or their parts) are compared in the settings of different nations, this would be cross-national analysis. For example, comparing the recruitment of higher civil service of China, Thailand and Tanzania will form an example of a cross-national analysis or comparing the promotion of senior public servants in Nigeria, Niger and Senegal.

(d)Cross-cultural Analysis

A cross-national analysis of administrative system involves countries forming part of different "cultures", this would be called a cross-cultural analysis. For instance, comparing the administrative system of the **USSR** (a socialist state) with the **U.S.** (a capitalist system) could be termed a cross-cultural analysis. Even a comparison between a developed country (e.g. Britain or France) with a developing country (e.g. Tanzania or Nigeria) or between a developing democratic country (e.g. Philippines) and a developing Communist regime (e.g. Vietnam) will be covered in a cross-cultural comparison. Thus, the word "cultural" in the category "cross-cultural" has a broad connotation and involves an aggregation of distinctive political, economic and socio-cultural traits of a particular system and its environment.

(e)Cross Temporal Analysis

Such a comparison involves different time-frames for analysis. For instance, a comparison between the administrative system prevailing during ancient Rome and modern Italy or between the administrative practices prevailing during the period of late AbeidAmaniKarume and Dr. Sheinor rather pre-colonial and post-colonial era of Africa or specifically Nigeria would fall under the rubric of cross-temporal analysis. A cross-temporal analysis may be inter-institutional, intra-national, and cross-national or cross

cultural. For instance, a comparison of the administrative control mechanisms prevailing during the times of late Gaddafi, Alexander, Mkapa and Nasser will be cross national as well as cross-cultural.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline any three forms of Comparative Public Administration studies

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, comparative public administration studies could be conducted in different analytical bases. It could be macro, middle range or micro analysis. Also, the comparative studies could be in the form of cross-national, cross-cultural etc.Sometimes, researchers are puzzle on the most suitable level analysis to use or on the form of analysis to engage in. Selecting the most fruitful approach for conducting comparative public administration research is inescapably an eclectic process. Students of the field have to be able and willing to choose from several options, but with full knowledge of the objectives as well as the potential and the limitations of each option. No one method will suit all occasions. Case studies, middle-range models, focus on structure and function, or a behavioral orientation—each provides valid techniques and perspectives. What is the appropriate approach depends on the nature of the type of questions and the objective of the study. Therefore, students have to clearly define the level of analysis before engaging of any study.

5.0   SUMMARY

In summary, the unit highlighted the scope and level of analysis in comparative public

administration studies and the different forms or types of comparative studies which are chosen and applied relative to the objective one intends to achieve.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Identify and briefly but critically discuss the level of analysis and different forms of comparative public administration studies you are familiar with.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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

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UNIT 6: COMPARISON BETWEEN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

After the attempt in looking at the different level of analysis and forms of comparative public administration, here, we are going to proceed by comparing the traditional (conventional) public administration with comparative public administration so that we identify the bottom line of differences between the latter and the former.Comparative public administration has been the first visible major development in the past world-war evolution of public administration. It aims at the development of a more systematic and scientific public administration by constructing and enhancing theory in public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Describe the Traditional Public Administration

(b) Briefly describe Comparative Public Administration

(c) Make comparison between Traditional and Comparative Public Administration

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Traditional Public Administration

In the literal sense of the term administration, it has a Latin origin from '*ad' and 'ministrare'- administrare,* meaning to serve. Pfiffner and Presthus define administration as the systematic ordering of affairs and calculated use of resources aimed at making those things which we want to happen and at the same time preventing the occurrence of those events that fail to meet our objectives. Frederick Lane defines administration as organizing and maintaining human and fiscal resources to attain a group's goals.

Piffner and Presthus (1960:3) defined Public administration as the getting the work of government done by coordinating the efforts of the people. "Public Administration is a broad-ranging and amorphous combination of theory and practice; its purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with the society, it governs, as well as to encourage public policies more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness, efficiency and the deeper human requisites of the citizenry".

However, in more comprehensive way, Nigro and Nigrosummarise the meaning of Public Administration:
(i) A cooperative group effort in a public setting
(ii) Covers all three branches of government, that is, executive legislative and judiciary and their interrelationships,

(iii) has important role in the formulation of public policy and thus a part of the political process,

(iv) More important than, and also different in significant ways from private administration, and

(vi)Closely associated with numerous private group and individuals in providing services to the community.

From all the foregoing definitions, it can be deduced that, Public Administration is a cooperative or group activities aimed at achieving predetermined aims and objectives of the government in order to achieve the objectives of public policies. It comprises the interrelationships among the three branches of government, i.e. executive, judiciary and the legislature.

In sum, public administration:

(i) is the non-political public bureaucracy operating in a political system;

(ii) deals with the ends of the State, the sovereign will, the public interests and laws;

(iii) is the business side of government and as such concerned with policy execution, but it is also concerned with policy-making;

(iv) covers all three branches of government, although it tends to be concentrated in the executive branch;

(v) provides regulatory and service functions to the people in order to attain good life;

(vi) differs significantly from private administration, especially in its emphasis on the public; and

(vii) is interdisciplinary in nature as it draws upon other social sciences like political science, economics and sociology.

3.2 Comparative Public Administration

As earlier stated, in our previous discussions, Comparative Public Administration, in simple terms, refers to a comparative study of government administrative systemsfunctioning in different countries of the world. The nature of Comparative Administration has vast ramifications and ranges from the narrowest of studies to the broadest of analysis. To understand the meaning of Comparative Public Administration, it would be desirable to look at the types of comparative public administration studies undertaken by scholars in the field.

Nimrod Raphaeli has defined Comparative Public Administration as **a** study of Public administration on a comparative basis. The Comparative Administration Group referred to Comparative Public Administration as "the theory of Public Administration applied to diverse cultures and national setting and the body of factual data, by which it can be examined and tested." Robert Jockson has defined it as the phase of study which is –concerned with making rigorous 'cross-cultural comparisons of the structures and processes involved in the activity of administering public affairs.

3.3 Public Administration and Comparative Public Administration Compared

Comparative public administration is different from traditional 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.

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

(a) The search for theory;

(b) The urge for practical application;

(c) The incidental contribution of the broader field of comparative politics;

(d) The interest of researchers trained in the tradition of administrative law; and

(e) The comparative analysis of ongoing problems of public administration.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly distinguish between Traditional public administration and comparative public administration

4.0 CONCLUSION

The primary goal of the discipline (comparative public administration) is in line with the scientific demand which is "to buildand test propositions about administration, an assumption that is universally shared within the public administration fraternity" (Sigelman, 1976: 621-25). It is committed to verifiable generalized statements about public administration across political systems and different environments. It is believed by scholar of comparative public administrative studies that public officials, political advisers, public administrators and the entire political process will perform better if public administration and its practice can be rooted in developed theoretical and empirical foundation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have looked at the traditional public administration and comparative public administration. The former can be seen as the one that emphasizes on normative (what ought to be) rather than empiricsm (what is)**.** It deals with the study of the cooperative effort of two or more people in other to achieve certain ends.On the other hand, comparative public administration is emphasizing in developing a theory of public administration after taking into cognizance the variation in culture, environment etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Comparative public administration differs in significant ways from traditional public administration. Expatiate

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 2: MODELS AND APPROACHES TO COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Unit 1:   Uses of Models and Approaches in Comparative Public Administration Studies

Unit 2:   Cross-cultural Approach to Comparative Studies

Unit 3:   Bureaucratic Approach to Comparative Studies

Unit 4:   Case studies Approach to Comparative Studies

Unit 5:   Institutional Approach to Comparative Studies

Unit 6:   Systems/Structural-functional Approach to Comparative Studies

Unit 7:   Prismatic Model and Comparative Public Administration

UNIT 1: USES OF MODELS AND APPROACHES IN COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Uses of models and approaches in Comparative studies

3.2 Models and Approaches Compared

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Our discussion in this unit will Centre on the concept of model and approaches. Models are to organise information and facts that constitute the entire study. Certainly unorganised facts are not going to serve any purpose of research. Research findings are useful only when it fits into our established framework or into our established knowledge. In fact, models are replacing our framework of the study. To some degree models are universal framework of analysis of similar problems under study.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand the uses of models and approaches on Comparative studies

(b) Briefly compare between Models and Approaches

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Uses of Models and Approaches in Comparative Studies

The word model is treated in this unit as treated by Waldo, to mean simply the conscious effort or attempt to develop and define concepts or cluster of related concepts. It is useful in classifying data, describing reality and hypothesising about it. We must also distinguish between the term 'model' and 'theory'. In fact, both 'model' and 'theory' are used interchangeably. Generally speaking, 'theory' is more sophisticated tool than 'model'.

The various models include the Max Weber's bureaucratic model which has the most popular use in comparative study of bureaucracies. Also, the model advanced

by Downemphasised the importance of career interests as determinants of administrative process. Rigg's 'prismatic-sala' model is an intellectual creativity of the model building clan in comparative public administration, particularly with reference to third world governments. Dorsey's information-energy model, the developmental model and Mathur's, model do represent distinctly different and yet in broad sense intellectually compatible models, each of which has proved to be useful in studying comparative administration.

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

1. To study the social, cultural, political and economic factors that influence comparative studies (Ecological Model).

2. To use concepts that characterise public administration as a series of actions or behaviours, involved in meeting changing environmental demands.

3. To conceptualise administrative activity in a system way with particular attention to the goal of political system.

4. To deal implicitly or explicitly with the requisites for effective operation of administrative system.

5. To be presented in such a way as to imply their general relevance for the study of public administration.

As noted earlier, the very use of models is to organiseinformations and facts that constitute the entire study. Certainly unorganised facts are not going to serve any purpose of research. Research findings are useful only when it fits into our established framework or into our established knowledge. In fact, models are replacing our frameword of the study.

6. To some degree models are universal framework of analysis of similar problems under study.

3.2 Models and Approaches Compared

There are significant differences between models and approaches. An approach is based primarily on one central concept that is thought to be especially useful in studying basic features of public administration. Models can be thought of as refined and more specific versions of approaches. Within Olle approach different models can be developed. Models are very specific towards a particular study. On the other side, approaches are general in nature.

The world model is treated in this guide as treated by Waldo, to mean simply the conscious effort or attempt to develop and define concepts or cluster of related concepts. It is useful in classifying data, describing reality and hypothesising about it. We must also distinguish between the term 'model' and 'theory'. In fact, both 'model' and 'theory' are used interchangeably. Generally speaking, 'theory' is more sophisticated tool than 'model'. However, Herbert Simon, Allen Newell, Waldo and Nimrod Raphaeli used 'model' and 'theory' interchangeably in paractice.

Models in public administration were first introduced impressively by Herbert Simon. His work like Administrative Behaviour (1947), Public Administration (1950), and Organisations (1958) are important contributions to 'model' building in public administration. Herbert Simon's 'bounded relational model' explained the rational way of arriving at decisions. Decision- makers are more contented with 'satisfying' rather than 'optimising model' in decision-making which is a major contribution to model building in public administration.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify four uses of model in comparative public administration

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is by analysing each model separately and its proper use in comparative study of public administration that we can discover the requirement of empirical investigation for some comparative research. We can also narrow down the collection of data, ordering data -and postulate relationship among variables. The existing 'models for comparison are of limited use because they fail to explain the causes of bureaucratic change. And even if they do, they may be in accurate. Most of the conclusions of comparative studies are very abstract.

However, without models or framework by which we can accumulate and relate information there is a difficulty of comparison. This proves the importance of familiarising ourselves with appropriate models to make a reasonable comparison. The choice of models thus is intimately related to the choice of a research strategy and to the most effective employment of limited resources.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have attempted a comparison between a model and approach as well as the uses of models in comparative public administration studies. None of the models may present a perfect analysis of contemporary administrative scenes in diverse cultural settings. But if carefully used models do serve as a framework for analysing different aspects of administrative phenomena in a comparative perspective.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Briefly define a model and critically discuss the uses and common attributes of model in comparative public administration studies

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2: CROSS-CULTURAL APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE STUDIES
CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Cross-cultural Approach

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Realizing the massive influence of unfolding globalism, comparative public administration opens the door for effective adjustment and transition from traditional, ethnocentric perspectives to a wider scope that integrates knowledge from various places and cultures. There is no one way to get to the place where public administration ought to be. Therefore, this unit focuses on the cross-cultural approach to comparative public administration studies.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand how to apply Cross-cultural approach in Comparative Public Administration studies

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Cross-Cultural Approach

A cross-national analysis of administrative system involves countries forming part or different "cultures", which would becalled a cross-cultural analysis. For instance, comparing the administrative system of the USSR(a socialist state) with the US(a capitalist system) could betermed a cross-cultural analysis. Even a comparison between developed countries (e.g. Britain) with a developing country (e.g. Nigeria) or between developing democratic countries (e.g. Philippines) and a developing Communist regime (e.g. Vietnam) will be covered in a cross-cultural comparison.

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly describe the cross-cultural approach

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, cross-cultural analysis is a commitment to human learning and discovery, unencumbered by geographical or political borders. It is compelling for many reasons: First, comparative public administration is a quest for patterns and

regularities of administrative action and behavior. Through comparative analysis, we are able to show not only the diversity of human experience, but also the amazing uniformity within and among states. Comparison extends our knowledge of how to explore, reflect, and better understand universal administrative attributes, instead of being confined to ethnocentric views. Thus, comparativeinformation and analysis have a balancing effect that reduces internalized biases and prejudices.

5.0   SUMMARY

The cross-cultural analysis of administrative system involves countries forming part or different "cultures", which would becalled a cross-cultural analysis.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Discuss the cross-cultural approach to comparative public administration study

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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

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UNIT 3: BUREAUCRATIC APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Max Weber (1864-1920) a classical theoristspresents an 'ideal type' of bureaucracy, which is capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and the most rational form of administration. Weber's idea about bureaucracy first published in 1921 based on legal-rational authority and was destined to dominate all other forms of bureaucracy because of its technical superiority over others. Therefore, in this unit three, we are going to look at the bureaucratic approach to comparative public administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Describe and understand how to apply Bureaucratic approach in Comparative Public Administration study

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Bureaucratic Approach

Weber's (1864-1920) model of bureaucracy was based on the political questions that dominated the nineteenth century scholars. He had integrated bureaucracy into the larger scheme of the three ideal types of authority. It is legal in the sense that it is based on a style of authority that is legitimated through legal processes.

It is rational in the sense that it controlled on the basis of knowledge. It is learnt that Weber was firmly committed to Models of Comparative Public Administration parliamentary democracy. He supported strong leadership andexpected the leaders to protect the mass against its own irrationality, and the individual against mob psychology. The identifying characteristics of bureaucracies were:

1. Fixed and official jurisdictions areas, controlled and ordered by written rules and regulations,

2. Clear division of labour with authority and responsibility equally clearly designated, maximising specialization and expertise,

3. The arrangements of all positions into a hierarchy of authority,

4. All officials appointed on the basis of qualifications,

5. Work viewed as a vocation, a full time occupation, and

6. Uniformity and impersonality "without regard to persons."

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline four features of bureaucracy by weber

4.0 CONCLUSION

Bureaucratic approach conceivesorganisation as having structural pre-requisites. No discussion on the conception of a bureaucratic organisation can proceed without reference to the Weberian model of bureaucracy.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, evidently, the Weberian and socialist conceptions of bureaucracy differ regarding its specific functions and role. Weber views bureaucratic organisation in avalue neutral context; it stands for rationality and machine-like efficiency. In Marxist-Leninist conception, it is an organ of political coercion in a class society. Weber underlines the continuity and permanence of bureaucracy and considers it an indispensable machinery for managing a complex industrial society.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Describe the Weber's bureaucratic approach to thecomparative public administration studies

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4: CASE STUDIES APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we have looked at the cross-cultural approach to the comparative public administration studies and the Weber's bureaucratic approach. However, a methodology of comparative administration, extended to the examination of a small number of cases instead of single-case analysis, produces more dependable results, better evaluation of hypotheses, and better verification of conclusions. By comparing a manageable number of administrative variables, researchers are able to have greater focus and provide an improved description and sharper definition of elements to be investigated. Information generated through case studies offers students and practitioners better evidence and more credible analysis of the causes and effects of administrative actions andbehaviors. We are going to discuss about case study approach in comparative public administration studies.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and know how to apply Case Studies approach in Comparative Public Administration study

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Case Studies Approach

The case study method is a systematic research tool concerned with the context as well as the variables. Primarily, it seeks to discover rather than confirm or test hypotheses. The methodological characteristics of the case study method are particularistic, descriptive, heuristic, interpretive, and inductive (Merriam, 1988). Also, the case study method varies in content and approach. The most relevant case study is the one developed from observation and experience, but not all cases are based on such observation. "The facts in the case may be focused toward specific theories, but seemingly irrelevant material will also be included" (Buller and Schuler 2000, v).

Ordinarily, cases are developed as synthesis of a variety of experiences. Others may be developed as hypothetical or abstract constructs, and may not represent concrete reality. Case studies that are based on participant observations benefit comparative administration by enhancing its relevance. Close analysis of a manageable number of these observations within few real cases, is a preferable venue for improving reliability and utility of results. Moreover, case studies provide comprehensive- ness (unless the focus is on a case component) that is hard to reach through other methods of research without sacrificing specificity and relevance. Well-written case studies serve as vehicles for organizing data and

materials that allow establishing regularities and identifying recurrent themes. Properly executed and fairly specified case studies of administrative reform, for example, are valuable sources of information about a variety of related elements. They inform us about processes, practices, and behaviors as well as environmental influences (cultural, political, and historical).

The patterns and regularities that may be found in comparing case materials are transformed into descriptive categories and characteristics that summarize experiences, integrate data, and synthesize conclusions. Abstractions often are unavoidable in the analysis of data collected by case study researchers. When such action takes place, however, most likely it is motivated by the need to connect and make sense of information gathered. From a practitioner's perspective, cases are enormously beneficial by providing rich details, for developing problem-solving skills, and for improving the ability to relate administrative practices to their conceptual foundations.

During the 1970s, under Dwight Waldo's leadership, the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) received a grant from the U.S. Office of Education for developing case materials for classroom use in graduate programs in public administration. The project resulted in a bibliography of over 250 "Cases in Public Policy and Management." The cases were classified in categories corresponding to major curricular areas in schools and departments that offer courses on public policy and management. They include topics such as political and institutional analysis, economic and public finance, quantitative methods, ethical and moral issues, budgeting and financial management, organizational behavior and interpersonal relations, personnel, and general management (Waldo 1978). Waldo's project mainly consisted of single case studies that may be used for different purposes. Although comparison is not the

central concern in compiling such cases, they presumably still may serve as useful material in comparative exercises. However, because the cases are based on observations mostly in the American con- text, they have limited utility for cross-cultural analysis.

Early contributions were largely single-case studies, such as Braibanti (1966) on Pakistan, Riggs (1966) on Thailand, Daland (1967) on Brazil, Esman (1972) on Malaysia, and so forth. Many foundational concepts and practical insights have been derived from such international experiences. Invariably, these scholars agreed that contextual or environmental constraints do influence organizational capacity to act effectively.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

Briefly explain the case study approach

4.0   CONCLUSION

Certainly, the significance of the early case studies is compelling. But at this time, comparing a few cases instead of a single case is necessary to proceed to the next phase of knowledge consolidation and to achieve a true reflection of current societal and global conditions.

5.0   SUMMARY

A case is a narration of what has actually taken place in administration, keeping in fact the context and all relevant dimensions. Ably, handled, the case method approach is a sensitive one, seeking as it does to reconstruct the administrative

realities and gives to students a flavour of the administrative Process. The case approach has been motivated by a commitment to the objectives and methods of social sciences. It has been shaped also by a considerable sensitivity to traditional concerns of humanities and by practical interest in pedagogy as against research.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Critically explain the use of case study approach in comparative public administration studies

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5: INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Hello everyone. Institutional approach to the study of comparative public administration is one of the oldest and in point of number, it has the largest followers. But it is least homogenous of all schools of public administration as it includes among its protagonists, teachers and research workers with varied training, ranging from political scientist to specialists in scientific management techniques. Therefore, we shall look at the institutional approach in comparative public administration study.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and know how to apply Institutional approach in Comparative Public Administration study

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Institutional Approach

The common features of this school which distinguishes it from other schools of administrative thought are as follows:

1. The followers of this school took policy administration dichotomy quite seriously. They defined the task of administration as nonpolitical or technical which lay merely in carrying out the will of political authority by either neutral means. They directed all their efforts to discover 'principles' of public administration.

2. The early work of this school is characterized by an empirical and pragmatic approach. Their sole aim was to describe a set of facts and not to build any theories. This view prevails particularly in United States during the period between the two world wars and its greatest exponents were Leonard.D.White and Luther Gulick.

Since the fifties of the last century, there has been a shift in this approach. Although the study has retained its institutional character, yet the policy administration dichotomy has been qualified after being found too hasty. More attention is being given to the normative aspects of public administration and administration is being viewed as an element in political theory and the accepted political Values. Scholars like John. M. Gaus and Paul Appleby of this school have frankly given up the technical view of public administration and they approach public administration from the broad political standpoint.

However,institutional approach to the study of comparative public administration concerns itself with the institutions and organizations of the State. The core area of this method lies in detailed study of the structure, the functioning, rules, and regulations of the executives, legislatures and the departments of the Government. The scholars who practice this approach consider administration to be an apolitical and technical function which lies only in the aspect of policy implementation.

Now, there were many authors like L D White and Luther Gulick who concentrated their effort in describing what an institutional structure was and did little to build any theory actually. The reader may be intrigued as to why this special attention was paid to define institutions. The present day definition of institution encompassing all kinds of rules, regulations and organizations is argued as inaccurate by many authors like B Guy Peters and Jon Pierre. Institutionalization of an organization takes time.

An organization keeps getting complex by adding informal norms and practices which happens through its interaction with the external environment and they are in a sense independent of the individuals who make an organization at a given point of time. However, according to Selznick (1957), any organization which is complex needs to be infused with value which is beyond the technical requirement of the tasks that are performed by that organization. This means that an organization has a distinctive sense of self and identity and its way and its beliefs become important for the society as well. It also starts representing the aspiration of the community and in turn influences the community with their own values and beliefs. A real institution becomes a symbol for the community in many ways, like the very building in which it is housed. It can be interestingly explained and seen all through the History that the revolting group often occupy the presidential palace or offices or the parliamentary buildings or pose a threat to the powerful and

symbolic structures like the terrorist threat on the Pentagon during 9/11 and the 26/11 Taj Hotel attack in India.

The above discussion becomes relevant with respect to the study of public administration and comparative public administration because Government organizations are institutional in many ways and represent the needs and aspirations of the community. Therefore, studying and understanding their administration becomes important to make them more efficient and result oriented.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly describe the institutional approach

4.0   CONCLUSION

This institutional approach focuses on the organizational structure, goals and principles as primary. So, a lot of attention was given to the problems related to the functioning of an organization like delegation, coordination and control and bureaucratic structure.

The main drawback to this approach was that little or no attention was given to the external sociological and psychological factors. These factors affect the organization in ways which are not always subtle, but have strong ramifications on the health and well-being of an organization.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit discusses the institutional approach to the comparative public administration studies which is regarded as one of the oldest approach used to compare the composition, structure and the nature of the administrative system.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Briefly but critically discuss the institutional approach to the study of comparative public administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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

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UNIT 6: STRUCTURAL-FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO COMPARATIVE STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1   Structural-functional Approach

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The adoption of structural-functional approach in the field of public administration was first suggested in 1955 by Dwight Waldo. Apart from Riggs, the Structural-Functional Approach was adopted by Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, Marion Levy, Gabriel Almond, David Apter, and others. According to the Structural-Functional Approach, every society has various structures which perform specific functions. Riggs identified five functions which are performed in each society. They are political, economic, social, symbolic and communicational functions. He stated that, same set of functional requisite apply to an administrative sub-system.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and applythe Systems/Structural-functional approach in Comparative Public Administration study

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Structural-Functional Approache

In structural-functional approach, for Structural-Functional Models to meet its obligations, government needs specialized institutions—agencies, and departments—to formulate and implement its policies. These administrative structures are often referred to as the bureaucracy. A government has other important structures such as the legislature, the judiciary, and political parties. Each of these structures performs specific functions. But one structure performing certain functions in a government does not mean that such structure will perform the same functions in all governments, nor will it perform with the same degree of competence and ethics across systems. Structure is defined as patterned activities and patterned behaviors that become standard feature of a social system (Riggs 1964: 20). So, regularity and standardization are characteristics of structures. The processes of decision making in a bureaucracy, and how bureaucracy makes rules and regulations in an agency, are important parts of its structures—just as making laws by a parliament or a congress is indicative of the legislative institution's structural characteristics.

Significantly, structure does not include all actions carried out by members of an organization; it includes only those that relate to its goals and purposes. The structures of formal organizations, as Selznick pointed out, "represent rationally ordered instruments for the achievement of stated goals" (1948, 127). We know

that structures vary in complexity, degree of formalization, functions served, and several other aspects. But in government, organizational structure has greater staying power than in a business corporation and, thus, exhibits different dynamism and distinct connection to performance. The point is that few public managers would really be "thriving on chaos" or on management relativism in implementing public policy, and fewer still would risk possible violation of laws that decree such policies. While high-tech, speculative industries may benefit by proposed revolutionary managerial techniques (if they do not fade away in the process), public organizations, in comparison, apply different rules of conduct, abide by different ethics, and serve different expectations (Jreisat 1997a).

Function is the consequence of actions or behaviors by members of an agency, bureau, department, or any other organization. The functions of administrative units range from education to maintaining orderly traffic on highways. Although structure is easier to define and has been more often studied, satisfying the functions of the unit is what ultimately matters most. More than any time before, today's public administration has been refocused on performance and consequences of administrative actions and behaviors. Political and administrative leaders in many countries—developed and developing—have been demanding that units of government practice result-oriented management. Indeed, many have concluded that this concern is also becoming a global shift in concepts and application, ushering in a "new public management." To prevent misunderstanding, emphasis should be on a balanced approach for comparative public administration that considers both structure and function simultaneously. As a minimum, researchers need to relate structures to their legitimate goals in any thorough cross-cultural analysis. Many structures appear impressive but actually harbor very low capabilities. Consider administrative units of education or public

health in a developing country, or even a legislative house, with their impressive buildings and huge staffs. The picture is incomplete without assessing the functions of education, public health, and legislation and to what degree and at what cost they meet society's needs. Appraising both of structure and function remains a very challenging task few comparative studies have adequately satisfied (Almond and Coleman 1960).

F.W Riggs in his book entitled The Ecology of Public Administration (1961) explored the dynamics of interaction between public administration and its external environment. He adopted the structural -functional approach in explaining the administrative systems from ecological perspective. According to the Structural-Functional Approach, every society has various structures which perform specific functions. Riggs identified five functions which are performed in each society. They are political, economic, social, symbolic and communicational functions. He stated that, same set of functional requisite apply to an administrative sub-system.

As earlier stated, based on the structural-functional approach, F.W. Riggs has constructed two 'ideal models' (theoretical models) to explain the administrative system in a comparative context. These are (i) agraria-industria model; and (ii) fused-prismatic-diffracted model. Riggs developed the agraria-industria topology in 1956. In this model, he distinguished between two types of societies-societies dominated by agricultural institutions and societies dominated by industrial institutions. These two polar types represented the Imperial China and contemporary USA. According to him, all societies move from agraria stage to industrial stage. This is a unidirectional movement. He identifies the structural features of the agrarian and industrial societies.

A major criticism of structural functional analysis is that it is conservative in its methodology. It focuses on the status quo, since it describes institutions as they are in a certain time; it provides a snapshot of the existing state. One will agree with Almond and his associates, however, in their response to this criticism: to describe political institutions precisely and comprehensively at some particular time is not to praise or defend them but to try to comprehend them" (Almond et al. 2000: 36). In public administration, studies of institutions, almost always, are geared toward finding ways and means to change them, to improve their performance, and to make them more responsive to citizens' needs. To a large extent, all frameworks applied in comparative public administration are judged in terms of their advancement of such objectives.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

4.0   CONCLUSION

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

5.0   SUMMARY

The structural-functional approach was used by Riggs to describe the degree   of formalization, the functions served, and several other aspects of the organizational complexities.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. What do you understand by the structural approach?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 7: PRISMATIC MODEL AND COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Riggs offered his prismatic model (as an attempt to conceptualise developing countries) based on the metaphor of a prism. When white light (that is, light made up of all visible wavelengths) passes (fused) through a prism, it is diffracted, broken into a variety of colors—a rainbow. Therefore, in this unit, we will take you through the prismatic model and the prismatic sala model that was used specifically to explain the nature of administration in developing countries.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and know the Riggs Prismatic Model in Comparative Public Administration study

(a) Understand and know how to apply the Riggs' Prismatic Sala Model to explain the nature of administration especially in developing countries like Nigeria

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Riggs' Prismatic Model

Riggs contended, societies in the process of development move from a fused mode, in which little or no differentiation exists, to a diffracted condition in which a high degree of functional specialization.

In administrative terms, this means a change from a situation in which a few structures performing a variety of functions, as in very under- developed conditions, to one in which many specific structures perform specific functions, as in highly developed societies like the industrial countries of the West. When the system begins to assign specific functions to specific structures, then it is evolving into a higher mode of differentiation. This phase is also referred to as transitional to the ultimate position of a complete differentiation.

Most developing societies, however, belong to this intermediate position called transitional, between the fused and the diffracted. Thus, during this transition, societies continually search to attain a higher level of differentiation and to acquire higher levels of specialization among their organizations and workforces. Other related variables, according to Riggs (1964: 31), are universalism and achievement that rank high with the diffracted (differentiated) systems.

In contrast, a fused model would be high on particularism and ascription. The prismatic model covers those states in intermediate phase on the continuum.

Thailand: The Modernization of a Bureaucratic Polity (1966) is a case study of political and administrative change in Thailand. In a comprehensive review of the society and its main characteristics, Riggs concluded that the country's weak political structures were unable to provide the necessary control over bureaucracy, which is incapable of modernization on its own.

3.2 Features/components of Riggs' Prismatic Model

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

i) Agraria Model: It is the Agricultural society and the characteristics are functional diffusion, particularistic norms, self-sufficiency, ascriptive (The attribution of something to a cause) values, stable local groups and limited or no mobility, differentiated stratification. Agraria is agriculture dominated society and Riggs takes China at the time for instance Imperial China. Occupational pattern is fixed that is Agriculture and carries on for many generations. Very few administrative structures and their functions/duties were not at all specified.

ii) Transitia Model: It is the in between society. It is in between or let's use the term in transition between the Agraria and Industrial society and bears features resembling to both. It is on the path to become a developed society from an agricultural society. Examples are India, Thailand, etc.

iii) Industria Model: It refers to a developed or Industry dominated society. Its characteristics are Universalistic norms, Achievement values, specific patterns, high degree of social and spatial mobility, well-developed occupational system, egalitarian class system, prevalence of associations which are functionally specific and non ascriptive. USA is an example of this society.

Also, Riggs came out with the improvised typology: i.e. Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model:

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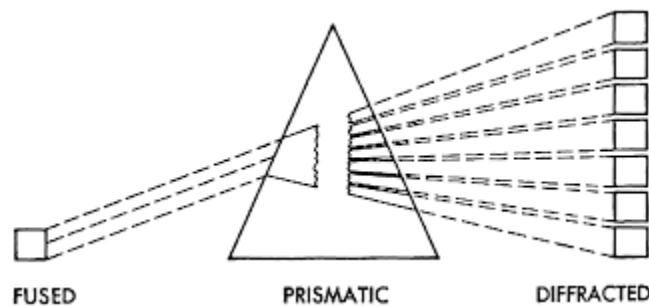
It is the more improvised and specified version of his previous typology where the fused society can be compared to the agrarian model, the prismatic society can be compared to the Transition model and the Diffracted society can be compared to the Industrial model. This Model was designed to silence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

This model effectively detailed all of the typologies. The new model is based on the principle of a prism and how it diffracts fused colours of white light back into the seven colours of the spectrum when passed through it. White light represents a society with very less degree of specialisation and development and the diffracted spectrum reflects the highly specialised and developed society. The in between prismatic society is the transition society. He stated that neither of the extreme sides exist in totality or as it is but yes, it is certain that they do but in varying degrees as suitable to the environment/ecology. First we will discuss the Fused and Diffracted model and then proceed to explain the Prismatic model. A good understanding of the Fused and Diffracted Model will only be the tool to understand the Prismatic Model features.

Fused Model (ex- imperial China and Thailand):

1) Heavily dependent on agriculture.

2) Economic system based on barter system.

3) King and officials nominated by the king carry out all administrative, economic and other activities.

4) Royal family and special sects dominate.

5) Ascriptive values dominate.

6) Having many administrative structures that are part diffracted (perform special functions they are given charge of) and part fused (many structures performing many functions which are not prescribed to them thus overlapping with the diffracted ones and confusing the system).

Diffracted Model:

1) It is the polar opposite of the fused society. Each structure carries out its own functions.

2) Attainment value in society.

3) Economic system based on market mechanism (demand and supply)

4) Responsive government

5) General consensus among all the people on all basic aspects of social life.

3.2 Prismatic Sala Model

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

The salient features of prismatic sala model are as follows:

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

(b)Formalism:(Excessive adherence to prescribed forms) - Discrepancy between formally prescribed and effectively practiced norms. Rules and regulations are prescribed but wide deviations are observed. Lack of pressure on govt. for programme objectives, weakness of social powers to influence bureaucratic performance, hypocrisy in social life, constitution formalism which means that there is a gap between stated principles and actual implementation are the major manifestations of formalism.

(c) Overlapping:Differentiated structures coexist with undifferentiated structures of fused type. New or modern social structures are created, but traditional social structures continue to dominate. Example - Parliament, Government, Offices exist but behaviour is still largely governed by family, religion, caste, etc.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly explain the Riggs' Prismatic model and Prismatic Sala model

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Riggs prismatic-sala model has been criticized on certain grounds. For instance, certain new words coined and used by Riggs to explain his concepts may create confusion rather than clarifying them.   The mere use of certain new words borrowed from physical sciences cannot make Public administration a science. Also, critics have said that the Riggsian prismatic-sala serves no purpose to find out the stages in the process of development. This model is not very useful

when the objective of development administration is social change, because of its doubtful utility in analysing the process of social change in development. Nevertheless, the prismatic sala model has contributed in explaining the nature of administration in developing countries.

5.0   SUMMARY

We have seen the prismatic model by Riggs which is used to describe the underdeveloped, developing and developed societies, i.e. the agrarian, transia and industria and the modified version of fused-prismatic and diffracted models. Also, we have discussed about the Prismatic Sala model which is used by Riggs specially to describe the systems of administration as manifested in developing countries Nigeria inclusive.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Use the elements of Prismatic sala model to explain the nature of administration in Nigeria

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 3: NATURE/SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Unit 1:   Concept of Bureaucracy

Unit 2:   Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developed Countries

Unit 3:   Nature of Administration/Bureaucracy in Developing Countries

Unit 4:   Systems of Administration in Developed Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Britain and France)

Unit 5:   Systems of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone Countries (Nigeria and Senegal)

Unit 6:   Problems and Prospects of Bureaucracy on Nation Building

UNIT 1:   CONCEPT OF BUREAUCRACY
CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Max Weber's Bureaucracy

3.2 Features of Bureaucracy

3.3 Civil Service

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Classic Bureaucratic Model Bureaucracy is a specific institutional structure that has received its initial designation and its characterization from the German sociologist Max Weber (1864–1920) in the early part of the twentieth century. Classic bureaucratic theory is linked to Max Weber's name as Scientific Management is to Frederick Taylor's. Although Max Weber devoted his studies to areas other than bureaucracy, his brief discussion of bureaucracy—as the form of administration functioning in a legal-rational system of authority—became the most widely recognized statement on the subject. Therefore, in this unit , we will look at the concept of bureaucracy, it features and the concept of civil service.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand the meaning of Bureaucracy as developed by Weber

(b) Identify the features of Bureaucracy

(c) Understand the meaning of Civil Service

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Max Weber's Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy or the administrative system of a country or its national bureaucracy refers to agencies, bureaus, units, organizations, departments, ministries, or appointed committees of the public sector. In large governments, these units employ thousands and, collectively, millions of public employees. They initiate, influence, interpret, and implement the authoritative policies and laws of the state

and its political subunits. Bureaucracy is regarded as a system because its parts and units are inter-related in serving the policies and goals of the state.

While agencies and similar units constitute subsystems of bureaucracy, each of these units and organizations by itself may also be considered a system. Viewing bureaucracy as a large system with many subsystems enables analysts to define and to measure its input of resources, goals, and public demands as well as its output of goods, services, and regulatory actions. Studying and analyzing bureaucracy as a system emphasizes functional and complex relationships among and between actors, offices, and their environment. Focusing on the national administrative system in comparative studies places the institution of bureaucracy at the center of analysis. At the outset, it is important to point out that the national administrative system is conceived flexibly to incorporate various subsequent theoretical and practical modifications, extensions, and adaptations to the classic model of bureaucracy.

At this macro level, one is able to delineate overall administrative characteristics and their significance to the function of governance. A close examination of the national bureaucracy also helps to bring out and to define crucial relations with the political order. Interdependence of the administrative and the political systems largely shapes the structure and defines the formal functions of bureaucracy. It is not surprising, therefore, that studies of comparative national bureaucracy and comparative politics converge or overlap on various aspects. Early comparative studies were preoccupied with attributes and functions of political institutions in a handful of Western countries and a scattering of developing countries (Heady 2001).

Generally, the term bureaucracy is used to denote national administration, as in the classic conceptions, and subsequent changes and adaptations that followed. A country's bureaucracy is its national administrative system in its present form and function. What a bureaucracy does in a particular country, and how it is doing it, are not assumptions to be made but empirical questions to be answered through empirical investigation and research.

3.2 Features of Bureaucracy

The core elements of the bureaucracy are:

- specialization,
- hierarchy of authority,
- impersonality,
- system of rules,
- written records, and
- recruitment process based on merit (education, training, and skills).

Weber's emphasis on generalizable properties of bureaucracy tends to challenge the claim that Western civilization and systems are distinct, thus superior. By accentuating the similarities among bureaucratic systems in the West and between these and other earlier and contemporary cultures, Weber's drive to make his theory of bureaucratic universal dictated that he play down the cultural differences while emphasizing the process, its rationality, and the need for its institutionalization. The political context, however, is a different issue altogether. The authority system dictates fundamental properties of the administrative system.

Weber identified three types of authority systems: In the first, the legal-rational system of authority, bureaucracy operates within carefully prescribed rules and processes. A main feature of this system is that obedience is based on legal and

impersonal order. Offices, rather than persons, are the basis of authority. These offices are organized in a hierarchy, occupied by staff paid on a scale tied to their positions in this hierarchy, and according to their levels of competence and expert knowledge. "The persons who exercise the power of command are typically superiors who are appointed or elected by legally sanctioned procedures and are on their own oriented toward the maintenance of the legal order.

3.3 Civil Service

The civil service is a typical bureaucratic organization made up of civil servants who are recruited on the basis of their skills, qualifications and expertise. The civil service has traditional values of unquestionable obedience and loyalty to authority, permanence and continuity of service, as well as consistency and secrecy of its role. The civil service according to the 1999 constitution, section 318 sub sections 1 is: Service of the Federation (state) in a civil capacity, staff of the office of the President, (Governor), the vice President, (Deputy Governor), a Ministry or Department of the federation (state), assigned with the responsibility for any business of the government of the federation (state), (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999).

The term civil service is normally used when referring to the body of men and women employed in a civil capacity and non-political career basis by the Federal and state Governments primarily to render and faithfully give effect to their decisions and implementation (Ipinlaiye, 2001).

Thesignificant features of the civil service are inter alia:

1. Generally civil services are regarded as politically neutral,

2. The basic function of the civil service in all modem states is to assist the political executive to conduct the affairs of the government.

3. A general code of discipline and harmony exists in the work place,

4. Permanency of the post held by the civil servants,

5. The work of the civil government is mostly governed by written procedures and rules,

6. They are trained for general and specialised tasks set by the government,

7. They enjoy certain privileges compared to the ordinary citizens.

8. They are holders of administrative powers but subservient to their political masters.

9. There are certain professional ethics which should be followed by the civil servants.

It is only from these major paradigms that a meaningful comparison can be made. The variance in the civil service system arises because they evolved from various historical political settings. For, they are continuously changing and the change agents are different in different countries. Thus, time is an important factor in analysing the features of civil services. Administrate reforms and modern public demands further erode the static nature of civil service. Internally, the organisational aspects of civil service affect the performance of governments and the output they produce.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define bureaucracy and list five features of bureaucracy

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the "Ideal-Type" Concept Ideal or perfect bureaucracy is never achieved. Yet, ideal-type theoretical construct serves useful analytical purposes such as guiding research, specifying relationships, and clarifying basic characteristics. The critics contend that idealizing a condition defies testing or verification in a systematic research and, therefore, cannot be elevated to the standing of a scientific knowledge. This is a major criticism of the classic bureaucratic model. Concurring with this notion should not mean accepting a derivative issue that a pure model is to be considered an idiosyncratic or a mere aberration. Actually, the real world of organization and management often is an approximation of ideal-type conceptions.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit attempted a discussion on the concept of bureaucracy, its features and the meaning and features of the civil service.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. What is Bureaucracy? Discuss any five features of bureaucracy with relevant examples

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2: NATURE OF ADMINISTRATION/BUREAUCRACY IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We are in a new era. "Today we have to deal with those problems we inherited from that time: the boom-and-bust economics, the social division, the chronic under-investment in our public service", British Prime Minister Tony Blair, marking the tenth anniversary of Margaret Thatcher's departure from office. Checking Central Powers, Building Institutions Advanced, developed, or industrial democracies are common designations denoting a group of countries that include Canada, Europe, Japan, and the United States. Among other attributes, each of these countries has a governance system that is relatively effective in making and implementing public policies. Generally, these countries also have a high consonance between adopted public policies and society's needs and demands. Citizens actively participate in governance, usually through constitutionally

established and maintained privileges. Therefore, the unit will look at the nature of administration in developed societies.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and describe the nature of Administration in developed countries

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Nature of Administration in Developed Countries

In developed societies, the enforcement of public policy is assigned to institutions that are legally entitled to make decisions and that have the ability to act on them. For a variety of reasons, developed countries enjoy higher overall standards of living than most others. Their citizens generally have higher levels of income, better health care, higher literacy rate, and equal protection under the law. Benefitting from the use of sophisticated and regularly refined technologies for production and for the delivery of services, these countries manage to consistently increase the outputs of their organizations and to augment their managerial efficiencies.

What administrative concepts and practices are commonly employed in industrial countries and how they evolved are subjects of universal relevance, irrespective of levels of development. To understand how administrative systems of developed countries have been instrumental in reaching fairly high levels of performance, one has to examine, broadly and retrospectively, institutions as well as the prevalent systems of governance. Generally, public administration literature passes over the tasks of creating a sense of tradition and of viewing institutions and societies as

constantly evolving. Although this discussion is not intended to be an exhaustive analysis of this aspect of industrial systems, it is an attempt to highlight critical events that left indelible marks on their institutions and processes of governance.

Contemporary literature extends a measured recognition that the European practices of the seventeenth century were the precursors to the emergence of modern bureaucracies. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were a foundational phase and are excellent sources of information on administrative structures and the influences that shaped them. Early in the seventeenth century, power drew away from the provinces and localities of Europe and became concentrated in the central government, requiring the active aid and development of administration and finance (Gladden 1972: 141). During this time, Germany led the West in "professionalizing" the public service. Government activities and services expanded, creating a need for appointees with particular knowledge and skills. Russia had the distinction of being the first modern state to introduce and develop a system of entrance examinations for the public service (Gladden 1972: 158, 163).

Between 1650 and 1850, the West experienced significant political and economic upheaval that resulted in reexamination and restructuring of its administrative systems. Historically, the West experienced revolutions against the status quo; but soon the consequences became far-reaching and universal. The English Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution of 1776, and the French Revolution of 1789 preceded the industrial revolution, which produced far-reaching consequences by the early twentieth century. The single and the collective impacts of these historical events have been profound political, economic, and administrative changes, reaching far beyond any one country (Jreisat 1997: 13). A revolution is the subversion and the abandonment of the status quo for the promise of a better

alternative. Thus, these British, French, and American political revolutions did more than usher in dazzling political alternatives. They also laid the foundations of the "organizational society" as we know it and advanced modern values such as reason, liberation, and egalitarianism.

By official design as well as a consequence of new socioeconomic realities, formal organizations and professional management became indispensable for the new states. Organizations, as newly invigorated social structures, and professional management, which had gained more autonomy in practicing their specialized craft, both became the trusted enforcers of public decisions. These public decisions have already become bound to the public will rather than to the ruler's personal authoritarian commands. Thus, the representation of societal interests rather than individual wants in public decisions finally was inescapable. The American Revolution, on the other hand, was managed differently by men of different outlooks and experiences. As the common wisdom had it, these men sought to reflect the Anglo-Saxon tradition, particularly the political and economic ideas of John Locke, David Hume, and Adam Smith. However, contemporary historians and researchers are finding evidence that ideas borrowed from native peoples and their influence on European immigrants to America goes much deeper than has been acknowledged. In all of this, the American experience made the autonomy and will of the individual paramount no matter what final political and economic designs were to be forged. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the feudalistic economic order dissolved and commercialism emerged, followed by the Industrial Revolution. As commercialism expanded, new urban centers took shape. Power struggles intensified for seaways, colonization of other peoples and territories, and domination of world trade. Western imperialistic expansions affected almost every area of the known world, particularly Asia and Africa. Comparative analysis of this

early period indicates that many important philosophical and practical changes were in the making. In England, the birth of constitutionalism inhibited the arbitrary rule of the Crown and instituted the supremacy of the Parliament.

In France, the attack on the excessive central authority set the stage for new centralized structures, such as those governing local authorities initiated during the Napoleonic period. In both France and England, the orientation as well as the structures of public institutions was dramatically altered. Managing the affairs of the state in the context of the new political and economic realities required different levels of skill, commitment, and values.

Therefore, in developed countries:

(1) There is high degree of task specialization. There are a large number of specific administrative structures each specialized for particular purpose-agricultural, transport, regulatory, defense, budgetary, personnel, public relations, planning etc. Moreover, a set of political structure - parties, elections, parliaments, chief executives and cabinets are designed to formulate the rules and lay down the targets which the administrative structures then implement. In Rigg's view this is highly differentiated political system.

(2) The roles are assigned according to the personal achievements of individuals rather than according to family status or social class. This system ranks high in terms of universalism and achievement orientation.

(3) Developed political system consists of formal political structures in which control is exercised in conformity with a formula or a pattern which is laid down. The making of political decision becomes the duty of politicians, administrative decisions of administrators. Political decisions and legal judgements are made

according to secular standards of rationality. Traditional elites (tribal or religious) have lost any real power to affect major governmental decisions.

(4) Government activity extends over a wide range of public and personal affairs.

(5) Popular interest and involvement in public affairs is widespread.

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

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

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

Outline five features of the administration system of developed countries

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, to understand how administrative systems of developed countries have been instrumental in reaching fairly high levels of performance, one has to examine, broadly and retrospectively, institutions as well as the prevalent systems of governance. Generally, public administration literature passes over the tasks of creating a sense of tradition and of viewing institutions and societies as constantly evolving.

5.0   SUMMARY

As stated, the administrative system of developed countries is characterized by high degree of task specialization , the roles are assigned according to the personal achievements of individuals rather than according to family status or social class developed political system consists of formal political structures in which control

is exercised in conformity with a formula or a pattern which is laid down ,government activity extends over a wide range of public and personal affairs etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Critically describe the nature of administration in developed countries

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3: NATURE OF ADMINISTRATION/BUREAUCRACY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Nature of Administration in Developing countries

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Many developing countries face an ongoing need to build institutions and organizations with abilities to overcome traditional barriers to effective implementation of developmental policies. The creation and use of these abilities have always been primary challenges of development administration. The absence and breaking down of these abilities have often been major factors in development administration's failure to meet satisfactory levels of performance. As a result, development administration has not fared well in some critical areas, such as the conception of an inspiring, compatible vision and managing effectively to achieve this vision. In utilizing modern techniques, development administration, for example, seems to lag behind the private sector in leveraging technology to improve internal operations and to enhance the overall effectiveness of development organizations. Unable to attain a timely correction of its deficiencies

or to learn from its failures, development administration largely remains burdened by a combination of inherited structures and behaviors and deeply internalized local cultural patterns. This combination of legacies has had the effect of impeding performance and wasting badly needed institutional energies on other than productive endeavors to accomplish developmental mandates. One finds a high measure of concurrence in the literature when searching to identify and to define typical problems and characteristics of these administrative systems.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and describe the nature of Administration in developing countries

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Nature of Administration in Developing Countries

The general attributes of public administration in developing countries especially those attributes defined by Fred Riggs (1964: 13–15, 31) as characterizing transitional systems seeking modernization include:

▪ Overlap and heterogeneity. The administrative system in a developing country gives an illusory impression of autonomy, whereas in fact it is deeply enmeshed in and cross-influenced by remnant of older traditional social, economic, religious, and political systems. Thus, to understand public administration in a heterogeneous social system, one must also study "overlapping" interrelationships.

▪ Formalism. Forms in developing countries do not always represent reality. Laws passed by legislators are not enforced by the administration, necessitating more rules, which remain as formalistic as the previous ones.

▪ Diffusion. This is an attribute of a low level of differentiation (or no differentiation) of administrative structures and functions: Everybody is doing everything. The opposite of diffusion—as used by Riggs—is diffraction, where structures of the system are specific and perform particular functions. Here, the system becomes differentiated, and the processes are universal and achievement-oriented. Thus, diffusion is low differentiation—a characteristic of underdevelopment.

▪ Particularism and ascription. Administration in developing countries tends to apply rules variably according to family connections, wealth, and influence rather than uniformly according to universal rule.

Based on experiences of many developing countries, these conclusions are widely acknowledged:

1. Genuine national development is not based on a priori economic assumptions, but on empirical understanding of local political, administrative, and economic realities.

2. National development is a collective effort that involves the full capacities of private and public institutions, in a partnership.

3. Sustainable development is not totally dependent on capital infusion from external sources, nor limited to export-orientation of the economy. Development is more dependent on self-reliance and on employing processes that address

community needs and demands and employ relevant technologies in creative ways to cause an overall improvement of productivity.

4. The development process is qualitatively enhanced when public decisions are transparent and accountability of public officials and institutions is affirmed.

5. Application of scientific and technological methods to achieve growth and increase production is unavoidable.

6. The process of development faces the continuing challenge of transforming institutions and cultures to embody efficiency, orderliness, rationality, and knowledge-based decision processes.

Finally, today's human development concept encompasses producing enabling environment for people to live productive, healthy, and creative lives, and to develop their full potential. Also, development entails sustainability and affirmation that people are the real wealth of a nation.

The Implementation Challenge Public managers in developing countries are particularly challenged by the complex requirements and needs of managing national development. Conceptually, development management (administration) is regarded as an outgrowth or a subfield of international and comparative administration.

A cluster of common administrative patterns typical of administration in developing countries, according to Heady (2001: 299–302):

(a) Imitation rather than development of indigenous public administration. This refers to the conscious effort to imitate some version of modern Western bureaucratic administration or to introduce it into developing countries.

(b) Bureaucracies deficient in skilled workers necessary for developmental programs despite high levels of unemployment. Bureaucracies in developing countries face shortages of trained managers with technical and managerial capabilities.

(c) Bureaucracies that are not production-oriented. Much of bureaucratic activities are channeled toward the realization of goals other than pro- gram objectives.

(d) Formalism. A widespread discrepancy between form and reality.

(e) Bureaucracies with generous amounts of operational autonomy. This is the result of several factors, including lack of transparency and poor institutional control. A cluster is derived from an examination of administrative systems of several developing countries, with special reference to the Arab states, confirming some of the characteristics suggested by Riggs and Heady, though with some different emphases. A number of studies have assessed implementation and outcomes of proposed reforms of administration in the contemporary Arab societies, and provided appraisals (Ayubi 1989; Jabbra 1989; Palmer, Leila, and Yassin 1988; Jreisat 1997; 1988). These are some the reported attributes of bureaucracies:

Overstaffed public organizations whose employees are underpaid and whose productivity is low. The growth of bureaucracies in most Arab states has been excessive without commensurate improvements of public services. The magnitude and the type of growth in public employment indicate that the bulk of expansion is at the central offices and not at the local government; the growth is also in the "conventional" rather than "developmental" jobs. Except for major oil-producing countries, in most Arab or African states, public employment is an opportunity to have a job in countries with chronically high unemployment rates, as in Egypt or Nigeria. The state has always been the largest employer, and its hiring practices

aimed at meeting minimum standards rather than seeking the most qualified applicant. In most of these states, wages as well as expectations of productivity are kept perennially low (Jreisat 1999: 29–30).

Administrative structures, mirroring the political context, that have not adapted to the urgent need for inclusive decision-making processes. Public employees have not experienced involvement and participation that induce them to improve their performance. Moreover, citizens (at least those directly affected) are not included in deliberations of policies that shape their lives and affect their futures.

These typical patterns of development administration survive as long as the political and cultural contexts have not embraced or internalized fundamental principles of a civil society, a term that has been used to denote the rule of law, property right, and human rights. Also, wherever the state is highly centralized and dominant in the economy through direct ownership or excessive regulations, the nongovernmental sector has been generally stymied, its functions limited, and its competitiveness constrained.

But, during the past few years, most nations have been attempting to correct traditional shortcomings by adopting more decentralized political and administrative systems, employing more trained workforce, and paying more attention to human rights issues as well as to matters of global concern such as migration, environment, security, and healthcare. Comparative analysis and continuing internationalization trends in public administration have enforced these tendencies (Jreisat 2005). Universal values are stimulating new needs for administrative knowledge and skills, thus the distinctiveness of development administration has been diminishing in the face of increasing internationalization

of management and the growing emphases on universal needs and values for public administration.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXCERCISE

Describe the nature of administration in developing countries

4.0   CONCLUSION

Overlapping and heterogeneity, formalism, diffusion, particularism, ascription, imitation rather than indigenous deficiency of skills, nonproduction- oriented bureaucracy, formalism autonomy, overstaffed public organizations Underpaid public employees Low productivity Lack of innovative and skilled public managers, excessively centralized decision making, corruption administration mirrors of the political context are some of the features of administration in developing societies.

5.0   SUMMARY

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Explain the cluster of common administrative patterns typical of administration in developing countries identified by Heady.

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UNIT 4: SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED ANGLOPHONE AND FRANCOPHONE COUNTRIES (BRITAIN AND FRANCE)

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Nature of Administration in developed Anglophone and Francophone countries

3.1.1 Britain

3.1.2 France

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

France is the example of a parliament under a hybrid presidential regime. The French government is responsible to parliament. But unlike in the United Kingdom, parliament power is circumscribed in controlling the executive and to legislate. This unit features discussion on the system of administration in both Britain and France

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and describe the nature of Administration in Anglophone and Francophone countries with reference to Britain and France

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Nature of Administration in developed Anglophone and Francophone Countries: Britain and France

3.1.1 Britain

While in the USA and France there were successful enough effort to differentiate the role of administration and government as a distinctive one, such distinctions never occurred in Britain till the beginning of the nineteenth century. The evolution of state system from the twelfth century to the nineteenth 'century, there were no clear distinctions between administrative and political role. Recruitment was largely by patronage to the members of royal families and to the feudals of landowning classes. Merit based recruitment and rational-legal modes of personnel administration in the UK started only by the nineteenth century. The modern personnel administrative system in the UK was formed by two major official investigations of civil service:

Generalist administrators' has been a unique contribution by the British experience of administration to the world. The Northcote-Trevelyan report recommended for merit system of recruitment and also firmly affirmed the need for generalist service. The Futton committee strongly opposed the generalist cadre of British top civil posts and it wanted to induce more professionalism into the service. Out of 158 recommendations the most striking recommendation was the creation of career management approach to public services. Thus, a permanent civil service systematic recruitment, and a clear division of authority and uniform rules for civil servants emerged only in the early part of the nineteenth century. The American experience of spoil system never took root in Britain. In the same way, the legacy

of past administrative institutions like that of the prefectoral system of France has not been an experience of the British personnel system.

However, by the beginning of the nineteenth century the UK, the USA and France never failed to conduct merit system in the recruiting process. Secondly, the clearly differentiated the political role from the administrative role. In these three countries civil service is largely regulatory in nature. But by the beginning of twentieth century, it expanded very widely and included many social services under the control of permanent civil servants. For instance, in the UK new kinds of services were included with the passage of the Old Age Pension Act of 1908, the Labour Exchange Act of 1909 and the National Health Insurance Act of 1911.13 It was rightly recommended by Professor Greaves that "the social service democracy of the twentieth century was born before the maladministration and paternalism of the eighteenth century had wholly disappeared.

The only major difference is that both France and Britain developed their personnel system from a centralised administrative framework. On the other side the USA expanded its civil service from the requirement of a federal polity.

Recruitment

Merit is highly followed in UK and they relied more on non-specialists in the career civil service system. It rested on open written examinations set by the civil service commission in academic subjects. After the successful written examinations, the candidates' personality is tested by interview methods. For the past 50 years in the UK, there are three kinds of non-specialist civil servants being recruited by fixing the following qualifications.

1. Administrative class-recruited primarily from university graduates. Age 21-28 years.

2. Executive class-recruited at matriculation standard, minimum age 18 years.

3. Clerical class-required qualification is a pass in the first major school examination (General Certificate of Education). Minimum age is 15 years but recruits are accepted up to the age of 59.

Training

In Britain, the Civil Service College (CSC) (1970) imparts training in three main ways:

1. Post-entry training for administrative recruits in economic, financial or social areas of government.

2. Courses in administration and management for specialists.

3. Conducting research into administrative problems.

One unique feature of the British training institute is that is also organises a wide range of shorter training courses for local government staff, industry, and the lower rungs of the civil service and the British training programmes are largely a product of their own tradition and based on the functional requirements of 'generalist' cadre of various departments.

The major weakness of training in Britain is largely due to the lack of in service training or indoctrination for specialist groups.

Promotion

At the top of civil service administration in the UK, promotions are made on merit but at the lower levels promotion tends to take place in accordance with seniority rules agreed to by the staff union. Such automatic promotion at the lower levels

was criticised by Fulton Committee report and suggested introduction of the system of promotion by merit for the entire system of administration.

In the UK, promotions of civil servants are made partly through centrally conducted competitions and partly by departments. In this regard, promotion to most of the highest positions in civil service, for instance, permanent secretaries, deputy secretaries, are approved by the prime minister who is advised in these matters by Head of the Home Civil Service.Automatic promotion based on seniority principle applies to Grade 7 from Grade 4 while a combination of merit based performance appraisals and seniority applies to Grades 3 and 4 for Grades 1 and 2 on purely political and merit consideration.

Retirement

1. Civil service pensions have been governed comprehensively by non-statutory (superannuation act) enabling act. Therefore, it is possible to make any change pension without further legislation.

2. Ten years minimum service is requirement to receive pension.

3. A civil servant is eligible to receive an annual pension of one-eighth of his average salary over the last three years of service.

4. Temporary civil servants who have served five years or more are eligible to receive a lump sum quantity.

5. No. contribution is made by a civil servant towards his pension.

6. Widows and children of the pensioner will get pension through contributory scheme.

7. Superannuation benefits are the same for men and women, except that an established women civil servant who chooses to resign on marriage after not less than six years' of reckonable service may be granted a marriage gratuity of one month's pay for each completed year of her established service, subject to a maximum of 12 months' pay.

3.2.2 France

The French Revolution was driven by hungry citizens who revolted against the whole sinking political and economic structure of privileges and monopolies granted by the king. This revolution made it the duty of government to provide for welfare of the people. It transformed the nature of politics and administration by the dramatic introduction of notions such as citizen, rights, liberty, equality, and justice (Jreisat 1997: 14).

France claimed to be the oldest form of public personnel system even through there are historical accounts which subscribe that well-established personnel system existed in China (353 BC) and Kautilya has accounted the existence of a well-established administrative system in his most celebrated book The Arthasastra. But these earlier personnel, institutions and practices of administration has been considered by western scholars for various reasons shall we refer, it was never western scholars' academic hegemony or they were ignorant such historical truths. The earliest known modern personnel system in France was the institution of prefects. It is an inheritance of the pre-1789 System of Intendants. Pre-1789 French society was administered by 30 Intendants under the direct control of the king of France. Each intendant was responsible for the administration of a single province and there were totally 30 provinces.

In 1800, Napoleon Bonaparte provided successors to the Intendants and replaced provinces with territorial divisions. Each territorial division was administered by prefects. During the nineteenth century the prefects took charge of the entire administration of the territory under their control. They were charge of public order, the police and the preparation of elections. In the course of Second, Third and Fourth Republic the prefectoral administrative power had steadily increased and they were also largely represented as the advisers of the cabinet ministers from earlier times.10 In England during the same period of historical development it was the parliament which asserted the right to control the crown, while in France a highly centralised administration was being established which asserted the right to assist the king and to control him. The French prefects were appointed based on the patronage, kinship and appointed by feudal lords. Despite various changes in the prefectoral system of administration since 1800, the basic original features are still maintained.Today, the prefects and sub-prefects are government's appointees at the local level in charge of local administration. However, the prefectoral career is now a regular civil service career. It is open to graduates of the EcleNationale Administration. The other pattern of personnel system was started by the French king and was reaffirmed by Napoleon. Democratic and rational legal administrative elements were introduced later by successive regimes, where liberal or authoritarian.

Recruitment

The French civil service is organised on the basis of "Corps" -categories of staff which form the groups into which recruitment occurs. The National School of Administration (NSA), the EcoleNormale, Superieure, the Ecole Poly technique (School of mining public works, etc.) and EcoleCentrale des Arts et manufacturers gives the country the greater part of its upper technical staff and also many of its

managers. Members of the 'grands corps' (which includes the senior level of general administrators) are recruited from the graduates of special competitive entry training schools founded by the state.

Training

The best method of training is imparted to the civil servants only in France.Training in France, unlike in the UK, the USA and India, starts before recruitment. Non-technical civil service training by Ecole Nationatrouale'd Administration provides the best training for the administrators than its counterparts elsewhere. The total training period is about 3 years and consists of the following packages:

1. One-year practical learning about public administration in prefectural provinces.

2. Specialised training by attending lectures and seminars which are necessarily spent at ENA, Paris.

3. At the end of the second year, the student joins a department of his own option and remains there on probation for 2 or 3 years.

Promotion

In France, promotion is affected only within the same corps and there is less scope for promotion unlike the USA, the UK and India where the scope of promotion is not limited but goes well beyond the compartmentalised administrative hierarchy. The restricted scope for promotion in France is due to the fact that each category and corps is classified on a three-fold basis such as grades, classes and echelons. Each of these grades differs in their authority and responsibility. Promotion of

echelon is automatic and mainly based on seniority and to some extent annual rating. A list is prepared every year by ENA and is submitted to an advisory committee composed of an equal number of staff representatives and the representatives of the official side. The committee is empowered to approve the list for promotion and can also solve any conflict of interests in the promotional list. There is also an existence of promotion outside the government organisation to provide bodies which is legally allowed in France. A civil servant can retain his authority of corps and is also empowered to get back his post after serving sometime in the private organisation. But such civil servants may lose their pension rights. Thatcherison (1979-89) strongly favoured such kind of disguised promotion and exchange of public and private pensions at the managerial level.

Retirement

In France, the retiring age for a civil servant is fixed at 60 years, 60 in the UK. There are certain services in the USA for which the retirement age is 70 (Judges of Federal and State Courts). In India, for Supreme Court Judges it is 65 years and for High Court Judges it is 62 years. To qualify for pension benefits different yardsticks are applied in France:

1. Pension calculated as a proportion of the last salary received.

2. Those who worked for 30 years will receive half the salary received last.

3. Those who spent 40 years in service will receive two- third of the salary received at the time of retirement.

4. To qualify for pension, a minimum of 15 years must have been spent in service.

5. Pension amount increases automatically when there is a pay increase in the civil service.

6. The widow of the pensioner will receive half the pension.

7. Children of the demised pensioner will receive 10 per cent of the pension amount till they attain 21 years of age.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly compare the administrative system of Britain and France

4.0 CONCLUSION

Both Britain and France are Unitary Systems, concentrating, power in the central government. France is more strongly unitary than Britain, because in Britain local government like cities and countries enjoy certain autonomy. A comparative political study of Britain and France is more feasible, since both of them are unitary governments. But the basic difference is that the British constitution grew gradually and peacefully while it is not so with France. While members of civil service are recruited by the open competition which is generally open to the society at large as it is practised in the UKthe French system is somewhat different. The French Civil Service has been organised on the basis of 'corps' categories of staff which form the groups into which recruitment occurs.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, we have looked at the system of administration in developed Anglophone and francophone using Britain and France as case. However, the recruitment, training, promotion and retirement criteria are used for the purpose of our discussions.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Compare the administrative system of Britain and France on the basis of the following criteria: recruitment, training and promotion

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UNIT 5: SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPING ANGLOPHONE AND FRANCOPHONE COUNTRIES (NIGERIA AND SENEGAL)

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

3.1 Nature of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone: Nigeria and Senegal

3.1.1 Nigeria

3.1.2 Senegal

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

While we can assume that the different methods of colonisation and colonial experiences influenced post- colonial methods of government, yet, apart from the fact that Belgian colonization was at least as different from the French as the English, the colonial masters themselves adopted quite different colonial practices depending on the territory occupied. For instance Morocco was not colonized in the same way as Algeria or Kenya, and the list goes on. Thus, risk of over-differentiation between francophone and anglophone systems some sources point to the fact that the difference traditionally highlighted between English indirect colonial rule and French direct (assimilation) colonization has been blown out of proportion and really does not tie in with actual and, in any case, uniform practice.

The unit discusses the system of administration in Nigeria and Senegal.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Understand and describe the nature of Administration in developing Anglophone and Francophone countries with reference to Nigeria and senegal

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Nature of Administration in Developing Anglophone and Francophone: Nigeria and Senegal

3.1.1 Nigeria

The Civil service/Bureaucracy

Legal basis

The legal basis is provided by the Civil Service Rules that replaced the General Order(GO)—bequeathed to the civil service by the British colonialists—and the Civil ServiceHandbook. Those covered by the Rules include all public officials, including thePresident of the Republic.The Civil Service Rules cover, among other issues: appointments to and separationfrom service, civil servants' discipline, salaries and increments, annual performanceevaluation reports and certificate of service, petitions and appeals, leave and traveland reward for outstanding work.

Federal Service Commission

The Federal Civil Service Commission is a constitutional body, established under Section 153(1) d of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Part of (D), Paragraph 11b of the Third Schedule of the Constitution vests the Commissionwith powers to appoint persons to offices in the Federal Civil Service;

and to dismissand exercise disciplinary control over persons holding such offices. Each of the 15 Commissioners is assigned to oversee a number of States and Federalministries/extra-ministerial departments. They meet regularly to consider briefs onrecommendations from ministries/extra-ministerial departments on appointments,transfer, promotion and disciplinary matters, etc.The Commission has delegated some of its powers on appointments, promotion anddiscipline of officers on Salary Grade Levels 01 to 06 and the promotion anddiscipline of officers on Salary Grade Levels 07 to 13 to ministries/extra-ministerial departments.

Recruitment

Appointments into the Federal Civil Service are done through recruitment, transfer and secondment. By recruitment is meant "the filling of vacancies by appointment ofpersons not already in the Civil Service"13. Transfer means "permanent release of an employee. A State Civil Service Commission holds the same powers regarding the State Civil Service. The Constitution also provides for a Federal Judicial Service Commission and a Police Service Commission vested with equal powers under their respective authority. The Commission has reserved the right to exclusively appoint the entry grades of

Senior Staff on Grade Levels 07 to 10. Appointments to posts graded – Grade Level 12 to 14 are done directly by the Commission "after due advertisement as the need arises"15. Appointments of directorate staff, Grade Levels 15 to 17, are made by the Commission "in consultation with the Head of the Civil Service of the Federation" and "in response to advertised vacancies"16. Appointments into the Federal Civil Service are determined by three (3) major factors. The first is the availability of vacancies. Vacancies for posts are to be declared by

ministries/extra-ministerial departments to the Commission through the Office of Head of Civil Service of the Federation.

The second factor is qualifications. The specific qualifications and skills required for every post are prescribed in Schemes of Service. The third factor that determines appointment into the Federal Civil Service is Federal Character. For the Federal Civil Service Commission, the major problem is how to confront the increasing and persistent pressure for employment into the Federal Civil Service. In 2000 alone, over 100,000 well qualified graduates applied for employment into the Federal Civil Service. This has serious implications on the logistics of the commission, and the selection of candidates for appointment into the Service.

Promotion

There are four major criteria that determine and influence promotion in Nigeria Federal Civil Service. The first is that the officer must have spent the required minimum number of years in his/her grade. For staff on Grade Levels 01 – 06, it is two (2) years; for officers on Grade Levels 07 – 14, it is three (3) years and for officers on Grade Levels 15 to 17, it is four (4) years. The fourth criterion is that affect the promotion of an officer is the availability of vacancies or jobs at a higher level.

Remuneration

One major problems of the Civil Service is the very poor remuneration package ofcivil servants. According to the Director of Recruitment and Appointment in the Federal Civil Service Commission in 2003, the civil servants are the most disadvantaged and depressed wage earners in Nigeria. Also, through a Government Circular issued on 27 June 2003, under the title "Monetization of Fringe Benefits

in the Federal Public Service", the Federal Government of Nigeria formally introduced its monetization policy into the core Federal Civil Service.

Training

In Nigeria, the Office of the Head of the Federal Civil Service is the body charged with this vital responsibility for providing central guidance in manpower development. Secretarial staff is trained at Federal centers to acquire basic secretarial skills, Technicians and Professionals aspiring to become managers of resources are given managerial training at, inter alia, the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON), Agricultural and Rural Management (ARMTI), Centre for Management Development (CMD), etc. Managers and senior administrators and professionals aspiring to occupy leadership positions are prepared at higher training and policy and institutions, especially the National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS), where a lot of emphasis is put on strategic policy studies.

3.1.2 Senegal

Senegal issituated between Mauritania and Guinea-Bissau. The country also borders on Gambia, which is almost an enclave within Senegal, Guinea, Mali, and the North Atlantic Ocean. Predominantly rural and with limited natural resources, Senegal earns foreign exchange from fish, phosphates, peanuts, tourism, and services. Its economy is highly vulnerable to variations in rainfall and changes in world commodity prices. Of Senegal's estimated 12.5 million people, approximately 51% live in rural areas. French is the official language, but it is used

regularly only by the country's literate minority. All Senegalese speak an indigenous language; of these Wolof is the one most commonly used. Other commonly spoken indigenous languages include Pulaar, Jola, and Mandinka. Ninety-four percent of Senegal's population is Muslim. The remaining 6 percent of the population adhered to the tenets of Christianity (5 percent) or indigenous beliefs (1 percent). Senegal was once part of the Mali Federation, which integrated Senegal and the French Soudan into one political entity. This Federation, formed in January 1959, became fully independent in on 20 June 1960, as a result of France's signature on a transfer of power agreement. Internal political difficulties caused the Federation to dissolve on 20 August 1960. The French Soudan (renamed the Republic of Mali) and Senegal declared independence. That same month, Leopold Senghor was elected to be Senegal's first president.

The Civil Service/Bureaucracy

Legal basis

The Senegalese law requires that its civil service sector be impartial, independent, and fairly managed. While the Senegalese constitution has no national regulations to prevent nepotism, cronyism and patronage within the civil service, because it has ratified the relevant UN convention such restrictions are automatically part of its legal provisions. (Article 98 of the country's constitution states that legally ratified conventions have immediate effect over the law.) Under Senegalese law, civil servants convicted of corruption are prohibited from future government employment.

Recruitment

Each sector of the public service has a unit responsible for the management of public servants. The head of this unit is assisted by two or three chiefs, one of whom is solely responsible for the management and monitoring of the careers of public servants: recruitment, assignment, disciplinary sanctions, and so forth. Public servants are briefed about the ethical standards by which they are bound during their pre-recruitment induction training. Prior to their recruitment, public servants attend a training course during which they are introduced to the values and standards concerning their future functions. It is only after satisfactory tests following such training that the public servant is given a permanent contract.

The Senegalese system is a combination of merit-based and loyalty-basedrecruitment. Merit is an important factor in this process, but personal, political andeconomic connections are significant as well.

Promotion

In practice, promotions in the civil service are not based on nepotism, cronyism or patronage, but are instead based on an individual's professional criteria. However, treatment can change based on the civil servant's political loyalties.

Remuneration

Civil servants are not known to receive high wages or salaries in Senegal. They do receive bonuses, but these bonuses generally constitute no more than 10 percent of total pay.

Training

Training for public officials is mandatory. Part of this training focuses on public service ethics.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly describe the system of administration in Nigeria and Senegal

4.0 CONCLUSION

Similar to former British colonies, francophone African states have often inherited and maintained the administrative and legal systems put in place by their occupiers. While formally reflecting the French administrative rules and ethics, these systems have usually failed to evolve to take into account changes and have not been modernised due to lack of political will and commitment, widespread corruption and little or no public participation in the administrative and political process. The administrative practice is often not in line with the written requirements and is characterised by a lack of public service ethics and a dominance of traditional behaviours, such as patronage and clientelism, which are not foreseen in the statutes.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, the system of bureaucracy between Nigeria (Anglophone) and Senegal (Francophone) were highlighted.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Compare the system of bureaucracy/administration between Nigeria and Senegal

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 6: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF BUREAUCRACY ON NATION BUILDING

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

3.1 Roles of Bureaucracy in Nation Building

3.2 Problems of Bureaucracy in Developing countries

3.3 Bureaucracy and privatization policy

3.4 Prospects of Bureaucracy

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Today's bureaucracy, however, has largely been customized and profoundly adapted to fit the conditions of its context. Also, within the national bureaucracy (administration), each organization is distinct in its practices and proficiency. Much advancement in knowledge of human behavior over the past several decades has resulted in modifications of Weber's classic formulations. The impact of change in managerial concepts and practices as a result of new approaches such as Human Relations School, Team Building, and Total Quality Management has been profoundly manifested. The rationale for the CPA in focusing on Bureaucracy is a

prevalent institution, operating in almost all countries, albeit with different competencies and accomplishments. It is hard to imagine governance of the state without the institution of bureaucracy that brings necessary insights and knowledge not only for delivery of public services, but also for the greater domain of policy making and policy implementation. Therefore, this unit focuses on the role of bureaucracy on nation building, problems of bureaucracy in developing countries, bureaucracy and privatisation and the prospect of bureaucracy on nation building.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

(a) Identify the roles of Bureaucracy in Nation Building

(b) Highlight the Problems of Bureaucracy in Developing countries

(c) Describe the link between Bureaucracy and privatization policy

(d) Identify the prospects of Bureaucracy especially in developing countries

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Roles of Bureaucracy in Nation Building

In developing countries, public bureaucracy has become the dominant structure. Countries included among the developing countries include: Nigeria, India, Ghana, Uganda, Tanzania, South Africa, Brazil, Mexico, Pakistan, Senegal etc. In the absence of other strong institutions in these countries, the role of bureaucracy has been of crucial importance. Generally, the major functions of bureaucracy in these countries are as inter alia:

(1) The most important functions are directed towards nation building and economic growth.The importance of public administration in the emerging countries of Africa and Asia goes beyond directing the organisational process an economic and social fields. It has the immense task of creating a national unity and national personality capable of surmounting the centrifugal force of tribal and regional rivalries and on the other hand, instilling the ferment of change in traditional societies. Differences of race, ethnicity, language, religion, region and tribe often threaten the unity, stability and progress of many developing countries. Therefore, it is the task of public bureaucracies to either eliminate or satisfactorily enmesh the sub-cultural differences. This task may prove to be more difficult than economic development.

(2) Another area in which public bureaucracies in developing countries may play a critical role is the establishment of democracy. Most of these countries lack a genuine commitment to democratic values and process despite the lip service they pay to them. In some countries like India, Israel and Mexico, democracy ranks with economic development as a major goal. The issue is important because bureaucracy is inherently undemocratic and a strong bureaucracy may be a threat to democracy.

(3) In developing countries, bureaucracies help tomaintain the framework of a unified polity as well as the capacity to absorb varied demands and to regulate them effectively. Not only were they important instruments for unification and centralisation, but they enabled therulers to implement continuous policy. In addition, they also served as important instruments for mobilization of resources -taxes, manpower and political support.

(4) In many of these countries, bureaucracy performs the important function of political socialisation.   In many cases, in addition to being administrative arm, it constitutes itself as an effective executive or part of it.   It plays a part in setting up, determining and implementing political goals, and establishing major policy directives.   In many developing countries, apart from the head of the executive, it is the only body capable of formulating clear political or administrative objectives.

(5) Bureaucracy is one of the main channels of political struggle in which and through which different interests are regulated and aggregated.

(6) Bureaucracy in most of these countries is also the Major instrument of social change.   It maintains service orientation to both the rulers and the major strata of society.

3.2 Problems of Bureaucracy in Developing Countries

Undeniably, powerless public institutions, often controlled by corrupt and authoritarian leaders, have been at the root of the myriad of economic, political, administrative, and social problems afflicting a large number of developing countries. In numerous cases, processes of public policy formulation and implementation—major vehicles of the governance processes—have been rendered almost inoperable. The catalog of failures and deficiencies of governance in these situations can be quite lengthy. Political leaders regularly decline the opportunity to develop reliable methods of succession that evoke citizens' confidence and trust. They fail to advance sustainable and equitable political and economic policies that are institutionally rather than personally based. From Latin America, to Asia, and to Africa, the similarities of issues and problems of governance are truly remarkable: issues of leadership succession, poor results of developmental policies,

and lack of enforce- able legal rights of citizens within a civil society. Finally, the evolving complex global reality requires compliance or participation by all countries to share in its promised benefits and to minimize any potential negative consequences. Such involvement is not fruitful without developing competent and ethical institution of national bureaucracy.

Interestingly enough, it seems that a mixture of caricature approximation, with a measure of distortion, provided the backdrop for Osborne and Gaebler's (1992) characterization of bureaucracy to justify their "reinvention of government." A less subtle but still depreciating bureaucracy is the claim that the traditional public administration is superseded by "a new approach to public sector governance, i.e. contractualism" (Lane 2000: 3). The common assumption is that bureaucracy, preoccupied with standardization, setting rules and routine, tends to turn into a rigid, nonchanging, noncreative edifice impeding effective governance. Less recognized, however, are the conditions that induce the occurrence of such tendencies. Misunderstood also is the fact that lack of rules and standards could create far more damaging conditions in managing public or private organizations. The issue, then, is excessiveness in reliance on rules and standards, notion sociologists refer to as "ritualism" in applying rules that they become the end rather than the means. In this context the following concepts are germane:

(1) Compliance with rules and regulations is a common phenomenon encountered in managing organizations of all types. Rules are tools for ensuring accountable behaviors and preventing chaos.

(2) Excessive compliance often results from an organizational culture that punishes mistakes by employees, fosters dis- trust among various echelons of positions, and

centralizes decision-making powers in the hands of the few at the top of the organization.

(3) Over-compliance could follow overall management incompetence that employees use rules to cover lack of wits and inability to exercise judgment. Accountability and responsiveness to citizens' needs and demands by public employees come to the forefront of discussion. But accountability involves various relationships, types of incentives, degree of control, and behavioral expectations (Romzek 1997: 35). Organization theory faces a real dilemma on this feature. To improve administrative responsiveness and effectiveness, critics and reformers seek deregulation and removal of layers of rules, regulations, and constraints. This means also decentralization and more discretion and flexibility at lower levels of authority. Problem is the result may be loss of control and even loss of account-ability.

As Romzek (1997: 36) points out, the trends correspond to a pendulum that swings between two extremes: one is the direction of control, red tape, and rigidity and the other is towards greater discretion and flexibility. Recent calls for eliminating red tape, streamlining procedures, adopting customer service orientation, engaging entrepreneurial management, and similar acts of managerialismare another swing of the pendulum in the opposite direction of the bureaucratic rigidity. Fearing for their jobs in societies with high unemployment levels, and dreading unrestrained political and administrative powers at the top, public employees seek safety through compliance and by avoiding risk. "Following the rules", usually means minimizing the chances of making punishable mistakes. Under these conditions, changing organizational culture, empowering employees, and training and personnel development usually go a long way to remedy some of these symptoms and to stimulate creativity and change. Addressing the issue of costly bureaucracy

in the Pentagon, Secretary of Defense Robert Gates pointed out that a simple request for a dog-handling team in Afghanistan must be reviewed and assessed at multiple high-level headquarters before it can be deployed to the war zone. The secretary continued to say, "Can you believe it takes five four-star headquarters to get a decision on a guy and a dog up to me?" (Jaffe 2010: A03).

3.3 Bureaucracy and Privatization Policy

By redefining Public Administration role toward the Private Sector it role is being reexamined, and proposals for employing market mechanisms of competition for achieving higher efficiencies in public organizations have been at the center of debate. Public policy making in advanced states often seems to face the dilemma of choosing between efficiency, on the one hand, and government's obligations to realize accountability, equity, and justice, on the other. The market claims commitment to and competence in the domain of efficiency. The state seeks a balance of the two, never totally sacrificing one at the expense of the other. Larry Terry pointed out, "the blind application of business management principles and practices can undermine the integrity of public bureaucracies and so threaten our democratic way of life" (1999: 276). Other alternatives have been considered with some success. The possibility of joint public-private ventures is increasingly appealing, particularly in Europe. In these ventures, links with the private sector are kept consistent with the principles and values of public service.

The most notable example is the practice of creating joint public-private partnerships (PPPs) instead of cloning business practices and substituting them for public management. The "partnerships between the private and public sectors to fund and operate infrastructure projects (have been significantly) set to take off in Europe" (Timmins 1999: 3).

The use of private money and private companies to finance and operate infrastructure that used to be entirely publicly funded is a "profound cultural change" (Timmins 1999: 3). PPPs may become an alternative to a wholesale privatization, which often seeks to exclude government entirely, except as a remote regulator. In a partnership, government is a party to the activity, and private funding is a factor in expediting the implementation of such ventures. This is an example of how public administration remains involved and how public service values are kept as an important factor of governing. Developed countries have not ignored the internal processes of public organizations. In fact, they have introduced many administrative changes aimed at building overall managerial capacities.

3.4 Prospects of Bureaucracy

To be sure, developing countries are truly displeased with the rules of the game, but they are not against globalization itself. To be equal players, not mere subjects of a new imperialist capitalism, these countries must recognize that good governance is no less important than the free markets. Moreover, in preparing globally competent administrators and organizations, "the ability to manage diverse, multi-disciplinary and multi-organizational work teams is critical" (Klingner, 2009: 19).

Effective governance and a properly functioning legal system and regulatory process, supported by an accountable, legitimate political authority are also important for professional bureaucratic performance in diverse global context. However, team building, networking, and developing cooperative systems are increasingly becoming central elements in global administration. This review

chapter is an attempt to convey the complexity and the diversity of views on the subject of bureaucracy. Many of the assessments of bureaucracy are directed at its dysfunctions rather than addressing its wide range of features and functions with detachment. This is not to ignore the dysfunctions and unanticipated consequences of the model, but to state that they are neither intended nor inevitable.

Certainly, applying the bureaucratic model in its value neutral sense would make it a functional framework for comparative analysis until we are able to devise a more appropriate research model. In the meantime, while comparative analysis is deliberating its own limitations and how to revive its research commitment, the comparative study of bureaucracy raises additional questions and challenges. The resolution of most of these issues and concerns is possible only through more empirical research and field observations. Effective application of comparative methods of research is the most likely venue to resolve many pressing practical issues and concerns as it is the certain path for the advancement of theory and practice of public administration.

Also, today, one finds plenty of proposed ideas on what is needed to transform the habits, culture, and performance of contemporary public organizations. Some even promise to "reinvent" the government and to redefine it. The ideas for change vary in their range of coverage as well as in their sense of reality. Recommendations for change of governance offer different recipes:

(1) Limit or substitute public bureaucracy by promoting mission-driven entrepreneurial leadership, enhancing competition and deregulation, reducing civil service, privatizing and contracting out as much as possible of public functions, and relying on the magic of the market to attain the desired end.

(2) Restrict, define, and reduce administrative power and discretion by invigorating oversight and revitalizing the policy making process.

(3) Reinvent government, focusing on the customer, fostering "total quality management," decentralizing to local authorities, and privatizing wherever feasible. Regardless, in adapting the political-administrative exchanges and linkages, the managerial leaders have not only to change their organizations, but also they need to learn how to manage their interdependence with elected politicians and apply political skills in the process of managing performance and change (Milner and Joyce 2005: 1). The various ideas for change are not mutually exclusive, but they are often contradictory (Carroll 1995; Moe 1994). For generations, reformers have been attempting to separate certain activities from the political heat.

Public administration at all levels of governance has been making measureable progress in improving definition of mission and objectives, empowering employees, empowering independent regulatory agencies, stressing the values of public service, emphasizing ethics of public service, improving civil service and budget processes, fostering human rights in public service, and actively improving professional education and training for preparing future generations of competent and ethical managers. "There have always been innovators in the public services, but the pressure to reform and modernize the public service are predominantly political" (Milner and Joyce 2005: 1). The role of public administration is established in enabling statutes and other instruments that provide administration with the necessary authority for rule making, regulation, and administrative adjudication. No private sector organization is qualified or capable of substitution for public management authority or taking over its legitimate duties and responsibilities in the modern state. Actually, the reality of the modern state

indicates that administrative discretion is essential for defining, interpreting, and enforcing public policy decisions. The obvious fact is that eliminating administrative—"bureaucratic"—discretion in the modern state is impractical as it will bring about a paralysis of public institutions and governance itself.

However, the future of bureaucracy lies in the New Public Management (NPM) which has been touted as a remarkable change sweeping public management in the industrial systems and around the world (Kettl 2005: 1). Therefore, "Public administration across the world is supposedly converging around a new paradigm of public management" (Common 1998: 59). The problem is that this new paradigm of NPM is hard to define and has become a collection of concepts and practices that vary according to the user. The NPM has been described as contradictory, haphazard, lacking precise definition (Common 1998: 59), and a "shopping list" that countries choose from (Pollitt 1995: 133). In the United States, the NPM conjures familiar images of "reinvention," applying market economic practices, fostering competitiveness, privatization, and downsizing of government programs. Advocates of the NPM in the United States were well represented in the government movement to reform the federal management through the efforts of the National Productivity Review, during the Clinton-Gore administration. Across the Atlantic, despite the well-known criticisms, the image of NPM is somewhat different from that in the United States. \

"NPM has been understood as a trend exemplified by the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Australia," wrote Barzelay (2001: 9). Even if no agreement can be established on what exactly NPM is, let alone pinpointing where it started, the general conception is different. European scholars believe that the approach of the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and some European countries was more focused on the institutional and the policy side of change, relying on economic and

political science concepts and methods (Lane 2000; Hood 1995; Barzelay 2001; Pollitt 1996).

Nevertheless, enormous managerial changes are in progress in many locations, involving all aspects of public management, at both the conceptual and at the operational levels. The call for administrative reform has become universal, induced by legacies of costly failures of many governments that have been attempt- ing to implement their policies and reach their national objectives. Administrative reform successes in some countries also have encouraged a much wider pursuit of change. "The integration of the American governmental reform movement into a larger international movement" (Roberts, 1997: 466) is only one outcome of such efforts.

Other significant drives for management improvement have been initiated in countries such as members of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom, among others. Although these cases of administrative reforms constitute a reliable source of information, they have not yet resulted in definitive generalizations, which can only evolve through systematic comparative assessments and evaluations. Within a dimly defined domain of the NPM, comparative analysis is largely underdeveloped, and generalizations, however tentative, remain under-specified (Jreisat 2001: 540). Nor has the profusion of scholarly contributions and country reports, regularly recounting cases of management reforms, produced an agreement on a reliable and coherent approach for achieving reform (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004). At the dawn of the twenty-first century, public administration literature is overflowing with examinations and reviews of various attempts to modernize and to adapt the management of public organizations in changing political, social, and economic contexts. Even when the NPM is presented as a

major "paradigm shift" (Kettle 1997; Osborne and Plastrik 1997: 15; Roberts 1997; Mascarenhas 1993), ushering in a "new world order" of management, there is no consensus on the content, much less on the practice, of this NPM. Economics-Based "New Paradigm" Canada is one example of the countries that have substantially restructured their public services in line with what the OECD has called the "new paradigm" in pub- lic management, which has accepted many of the NPM prescriptions. The restruc- turing of the Canadian federal and provincial governments is similar to reforms undertaken by other Western democracies, particularly the United States (Roberts 1998). The precise purpose is to make government "work better and cost less." This "new paradigm," the foundation for the recent Canadian reform efforts, has been applied by OECD countries in the 1990s. Basically, the reforms have had three key objectives: (1) cut all "nonessential" or "noncore" public spending, (2) rely less on conventional government bureaucracies for delivering public services, and (3) make public institutions rely less on tax revenue to finance their operations and more on nontax revenues such as fees for services (Roberts 1998: 1). Christopher Hood (1995, 1991) and June Pallot (1998, 1996), for example, consider the dominant features of the NPM as the removal of private-public distinctions and the imposition of explicit standards and rules on management practices. According to Pallot (1996: 2), the following are the main characteristics of the NPM:

- Greater segregation of public sector organizations into separate "product" centers

- A shift toward competition among the separate units offering the services

- The use of management practices (e.g., accrual accounting, organizational design, career structure and remuneration practices) broadly drawn from the private sector

- An emphasis on efficiency and cost reduction

- The rise of new managerial elite

- More explicit and measurable standards of performance

- Attempts to control public sector organizational units through preset output measures.

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

1) Human rights enforcement.

2) Disinvestment of public sector enterprises.

3) International interdependency of bureaucracies.

4) Study on citizen charter.

5) Role of people in promoting or resisting administrative reforms.

6) Debureaucratisation.

7) Role of private sector.

8) Role of voluntary agencies/non-governmental organisations.

4.0   CONCLUSION

It should be noted that most of the sins attributed to bureaucracy are either magnified misdeeds or consequences of misapplication. A basic question is whether bureaucracy indeed exerts a hobbling effect on political development. Although bureaucracy can accumulate excessive powers, more often than not, it remains subservient to the political order. Bureaucratic power is the result of attributes that make bureaucracy imperative in the first place such as expertise and continuity in office. But, an effective political system has the oversight means to check bureaucratic deviations, maintain reliability of the processes of performance, and continually stimulate administrative improvement to counterbalance any excess of bureaucratic influence. To bypass some traditional shortcomings of bureaucracy in developing countries, development administration was prescribed with features that promise to serve better the objectives of national development.

5.0   SUMMARY

We have discussed the role of bureaucracy and development administration in developing countries.   The most important functions are directed towards

nationbuilding and economic growth.The importance of public administration in emerging countries of Africa and Asia goes beyond directing the organisational process in economic and social fields. However, the future of bureaucracy lies in the New Public Management (NPM) which has been touted as a remarkable change sweeping public management in the industrial systems and around the world and greater segregation of public sector organizations into separate "product" centers and shift toward competition among the separate units offering the services.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

Q1. Critically discuss the role of bureaucracy in nation building. What are the prospects of bureaucracy in developing countries?

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