

COURSE GUIDE

POL 805 POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

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COURSE DESCRIPTION

Meaning of political behaviour; Scope and delineation of political behaviour; Personality and attitude; Political culture; Socialization and participation; Theories of social order; Voting and voting system; Ethics, accountability and transparency in elections; Gender and politics; Peace and conflict studies; Mass media and the democratic process. Collective action, leadership, bargaining, negotiation. Theoretical and empirical perspectives on voting and other forms of political participation, parties, interest groups, public opinion and propaganda.

INTRODUCTION

This course is designed to provide comprehensive understanding of attitudes of people towards politics. It provides answers to the many questions of why people act the way they do towards politics, political institutions and issues pertaining to politics. The course covered areas of political behaviour such as: the meaning of political behaviour; Scope and delineation of political behaviour; Personality and attitude; Political culture; Socialization and participation; Theories of social order; Voting and voting system; Ethics, accountability and transparency in elections; Gender and politics; Peace and conflict studies; Mass media and the democratic process. Collective action, leadership, bargaining, negotiation. Theoretical and empirical perspectives on voting and other forms of political participation, parties, interest groups, public opinion and propaganda.

COURSE AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The general aim of this course is to provide in-depth knowledge of Political behaviour in the contemporary society.

The specific objectives of the course are to:

- a) Educate learners on the meaning, sources and rationale for the study of political behaviour;
- b) Reveal to learners the approaches, factors that shape peoples/groups political behaviour from childhood to adulthood and how these affect the outcome of politics in a political system.
- c) To ensure that learners are abreast with the differences in the approaches to the study of politics
- d) To complete the course, you are required to read the study units and other related materials. You will also need to undertake practical exercises for which you need a pen, a note-book, and other materials that will be listed in this guide. The exercises are to assist you in understanding the concepts being presented. At the end of each unit, you will be required to submit written

assignment for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, you will be expected to write a final examination.

THE COURSE MATERIAL

In all of the courses, you will find the major components thus:

- 1) Course Guide
- 2) Study Units
- 3) Textbooks
- 4) Assignments

STUDY UNITS

There are 20 study units in this course. They are as hereunder:

Module 1 Political Behavior: Definition, Application, and Limitations

- | | |
|--------|--|
| Unit 1 | The concept of political behavior |
| Unit 2 | Approaches to the study of politics |
| Unit 3 | Institution system approach |
| Unit 4 | The structural –functional approach to the study of politics |

Module 2 The Evolution of Behaviorialism in Political Science

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | The evolution of Behaviouralism and Graham Wallas |
| Unit 2 | Behavioural revolution and Charles Merriam (1874-1953). |
| Unit 3 | The Intellectual foundations of behavioralism according to David Easton |
| Unit 4 | Differences between Behavioralism and post-behavioral theory. |

Module 3 The Scope and Delineation of Political Behavior

- | | |
|---------|--|
| Unit 1 | The scope of political behavior. |
| Unit 2 | Political culture and political belief |
| Unit: 3 | Political culture between Almond and Verba classification of political culture |

Module 4 Factors that Shape Political Behavior

- | | |
|--------|-----------------------------------|
| Unit 1 | Political Socialization |
| Unit 2 | Socialization Agent |
| Unit 3 | Economic and political conditions |
| Unit 4 | Ethnic and Caste System |

Module 5 Election and electoral process

Unit 1	The electoral process
Unit 2	Political institutions and separation of powers
Unit 3	FPTP electoral system.
Unit 4	Nature of Political Parties and Their Functions
Unit 5	Political Institutions and Separation of Powers

COURSE OVERVIEW PRESENTATION SCHEME

There are 16 units in this course. You are to spend one week on each unit. One of the advantages of Open and Distance Learning (ODL) is that you can read and work through the designed course materials at your own pace, and at your own convenience. The course material replaces the lecturer that stands before you physically in the classroom. All the units have similar features. Each unit begins with the introduction and ends with reference/suggestions for further readings.

Units	Title of Work	Week Activity	Assignment (End-of-Unit)
Course Guide			
Module 1	Political Behavior: Definition, Application, and Limitations		
Unit 1	The concept of political behavior	Week 1	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Unit 2: Approaches to the study of politics	Week 2	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Institutional and systems approaches	Week 3	Assignment 1
Unit 4		Week 4	Assignment 1
Module 2	The Evolution of Behaviorialism in Political Science		
Unit 1	Unit 1: The evolution of Behaviouralism and Graham Wallas	Week 5	Assignment
Unit 2	Behavioural revolution and Charles Merriam (1874-1953).	Week 6	Assignment 1
Unit 3	The Intellectual foundations of behavioralism according to David Easton	Week 7	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Differences between Behavioralism and post-behavioral theory.	Week 8	Assignment 1

Module 3	Module 3: Paradigms of Political Analysis		
	The Scope and Delineation of Political Behavior		
Unit 1	The Group Theory	Week 9	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Game Theory	Week 10	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Systems Theory, Structural–Functional Theory	Week 11	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Political System / David Easton Systems Theory	Week 12	Assignment 1
Module 4	Factors that Shape Political Behavior		
Unit 1	Political Culture and Political Socialization	Week 13	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Political parties as Agents of political Socialization	Week 14	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Ethnic and Caste Systems as factors of political party orientation.	Week 15	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Difference between political culture and political socialization	Week 16	Assignment 1
Module 5	Electoral Systems and Election of Rulers		
Unit 1:	The electoral process	Week 17	Assignment 1
Unit 2:	Nature of Political Parties and Their Functions	Week 18	Assignment 1
Unit 3:	Political Institutions and Separation of Powers	Week 19	Assignment 1
Unit 4:	Political Institutions and Separation of Power	Week 20	Assignment 1
	Revision	Week 21	
	Examination	Week 22	
	Total	22	

WHAT YOU WILL NEED IN THE COURSE

There will be some recommended texts at the end of each module that you are expected to purchase. Some of these texts will be available to you in libraries across the country. In addition, your computer proficiency skill will be useful to you in accessing internet materials that pertain to this course. It is crucial that you create time to study these texts diligently and religiously.

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

The course provides sixteen (16) hours of tutorials in support of the course. You will be notified of the dates and locations of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutor as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group. Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, and watch you as you progress in the course. Send in your tutor-marked assignments promptly, and ensure you contact your tutor on any difficulty with your self-assessment exercise, tutor-marked assignment, and the grading of an assignment. Kindly note that your attendance and contributions to discussions as well as sample questions are to be taken seriously by you as they will aid your overall performance in the course.

ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

There are two aspects to the assessment of this course. First is the Tutor-Marked Assignments; second is a written examination. In handling these assignments, you are expected to apply the information, knowledge and experience acquired during the course. The tutor-marked assignments are now being done online. Ensure that you register all your courses so that you can have easy access to the online assignments. Your score in the online assignments will account for 30 per cent of your total coursework. At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final examination. This examination will account for the other 70 per cent of your total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAs)

Usually, there are four online tutor-marked assignments in this course. Each assignment will be marked over ten percent. The best three (that is the highest three of the 10 marks) will be counted. This implies that the total mark for the best three assignments will constitute 30% of your total course work. You will be able to complete your online assignments successfully from the information and materials contained in your references, reading and study units.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final exam for POL805 will be of two hours duration and have value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of TMAs and POPs which will reflect the practice exercises and assignments you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed. It is important that you use adequate time to revise the entire course. You may find it useful to review your tutor marked assessments before the examination. The final examination covers information from all aspects of the course.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

1. There are 20 units in this course. You are to spend one week in each unit. In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suites you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading to do. The study units direct you when to read and which are your text materials or recommended books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you in a class exercise.
2. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with other units and the course as a whole. Next to this 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. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chance of passing the course.
3. The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your reference or from a reading section.
4. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor or visit the study centre nearest to you. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.
5. Read this course guide thoroughly. It is your first assignment.
6. Organize a study schedule - Design a 'Course Overview' to guide you through the course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units.

7. Important information; e.g, details of your tutorials and the date of the first day of the semester is available at the study centre.
8. You need to gather all the information into 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 and schedule of work for each unit.
9. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it.
10. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind in their coursework. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor or course coordinator know before it is too late for help.
11. Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
12. Assemble the study materials. You will need your references for the unit you are studying at any point in time.
13. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.
14. Visit your study centre whenever you need up-to-date information.
15. Well before the relevant online TMA due dates, visit your study centre for relevant information and updates. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the examination.
16. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to space your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule.
17. After completing the last unit, 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).

CONCLUSION

This is a theoretical as well as empirical course and so, you will get the best out of it if you can read wide, listen to as well as examine international arbitration, wars, and get familiar with international law and diplomatic affairs and reports across the globe.

SUMMARY

This Course Guide has been designed to furnish you with the information you need for a fruitful experience in the course. In the final analysis, how much you get from it depends on how much you put into it in terms of learning time, effort and planning.

I wish you all the best in POL805 and in the entire programme!

MAIN COURSE

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MODULE 1 POLITICAL BEHAVIOR: DEFINITION, APPLICATION, AND LIMITATION

UNIT 1 THE CONCEPT OF POLITICAL BEHAVIOR

Units Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Political behavior as a concept
- 1.4 Approaches to the Study of Politics
- 1.5 Institutional behavioral and systems approaches
- 1.6 Structural-functional approach
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Self-assessment questions
- 1.9 Possible answers to self-assessment questions
- 1.10 Bibliography/Additional Readings

1.1 Introduction

Welcome to module of POL805, the study of political behavior. In this module you will learn the definition of political behavior and various ways to the study of politics before the revolution of behavioralism in Political science. The study is divided into four units. Ensure to study each unit very well to enable you practice the self-assessment questions for better understanding of the module.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Explain the concept of political behavior.
- Narrate the four approaches to the study of politics
- Distinguish different approaches to the study of politics

3.1 Main section Introduction

Political behavior can be seen as the way people behave toward politics, political institutions and political phenomena. To this end, the essence of this section is to explore concepts such as political behavior, definitions of political behavior, its applications, and also Limitations. In this section we will therefore, interrogate various lenses for which scholars have viewed political behavior and its reality to unravel different conceptions of political behavior. The question that readily comes to mind may be how can we define politics given that most social science concepts defile conventional and acceptable definition? This question

and many others will be answered as you progress in the section. Please pay attention to details as you study for better understanding of the section.

The concept of political behavior

Political behavior is the study of the ways people think, feel, and act with regard to politics. This course is designed to touch on the major areas of research in political behavior, including the meaning of political behavior; Personality and attitude; political culture; socialization and participation; social order theories; voting and voting systems; election ethics, accountability, and transparency Gender and politics: Studies on peace and conflict; Mass media and the democratic process Collective action, leadership, bargaining, and negotiation. Theoretical and empirical perspectives on voting behavior as well as other forms of political participation; parties, interest groups, public opinion and propaganda, amongst many others.

The study of political behavior presents many intriguing puzzles. Millions of people overcome the rational calculation to "free ride" by voting in presidential elections every four years, even though they know that their vote will not count or affect the outcome of the election. Approximately 60% of Nigerians identify with one of the two major political parties, but a substantial proportion of people are unable to recognize the name of their National Assembly representative or know which party holds a majority in the National Assembly. Democratic theory is built on the principle that citizens can make informed and rational choices, yet emotion influences our political opinions and actions. In this course, we will discuss these and other topics from broader perspectives. To set the ball rolling, the first topic for us is the approaches to the study of politics before the advent of political behavior. What are the traditional approaches to the study of politics? This question refers to how people were studying politics before the behavioral revolution in 1945. This brings us to the first topic approach to the study of politics such as the institutional approach.

Accordingly the upholders of the institutional approach views political behavior as the study of organization and functioning of government, its various organs, political parties and other institutions affecting politics. Classification of governments, starting from Aristotle (monarchy, tyranny, aristocracy, oligarchy, polity and democracy) to modern classification (democracy and dictatorship, parliamentary and presidential, unitary and federal, etc.), identification of levels of government (federal, state and local) as well as branches of government (executive, legislative, judicial), composition and powers of each of these and their interrelationships (largely in legal terms), etc. are the

chief concerns of this approach. It aims at giving an elaborate description of facts. Hence it exemplifies a shift from normative to empirical approach and from a historical to a contemporary concern within the sphere of traditional approaches. However, it relies heavily on description rather than explanation. Hence, it fails to qualify as a contemporary approach.

As an aspect of political science attempt to quantify and explain the influences that define a person's political views, ideology, and levels of political participation. Political behavior is the subset of human behavior that involves politics and power. Theorists who have had an influence on this field include Karl Deutsch and Theodor Adorno. There are numerous ways to define politics. For instance, politics has been described as, among other things, the process of deciding who gets what when and how, the contest for power, and the official allocation of values. Additionally, it was determined that politics, by their very nature, are present in all social interactions. This simply implies that no human grouping or organization has yet existed when the available elements of power are sufficient. For example, politics has been defined as the authoritative allocation of values, as the struggle for power and as the process of determining who gets what when and how, amongst others. It was also established that the nature of politics makes it exist in all social interactions. This simply means that there is yet to be any human grouping or organization in which the available elements of power are enough to go round. This is why every organization needs an accepted mechanism to regulate the inevitable conflicts that may arise over the struggle for power and to allocate the scarce resources.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1.1

Give a definition of political behavior?

Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

Political behavior is the study of the ways people think, feel, and act with regard to politics. It also covers other study areas personality and attitude; political culture; socialization and participation; social order theories; voting and voting systems; election ethics amongst others.

Approaches to the Study of Politics

Traditional approach

The traditional approach is value based and lays emphasis on the inclusion of values to the study of political phenomena. The adherents of this approach believe that the study of political science should not be based on facts alone since facts and values are closely related to each other. Since the days of Plato and Aristotle “the great issues of politics” have revolved around normative orientations. There are a large number of traditional approaches like legal approach, philosophical approach, historical approach, institutional approach etc.

According to Alan C. Isaak, an approach to political inquiry may be defined simply as "a general strategy for studying political phenomena. In the opinion of Vernon Van Dyke, it is a term that denotes the criteria employed in selecting the questions to ask and the data to consider in political inquiry. Thus, while a particular approach may, for instance, emphasize economic or sociological data, another may focus on psychological and ideological factors. We can therefore suggest that an approach in political research is a type of lens for focusing on a particular aspect of political research or a type of lens through which to view political reality. An approach to research leads the political scientist to concentrate on specific aspects of political phenomena and thereby condense his duty.

The question that readily comes to mind may be how we can study politics. What then are the approaches to the study of politics? There are some recognized approaches to the study of politics, such as traditional approach philosophical approach, sociological approach, systems approach.

Most authors do not distinguish between the approaches but it is important to and methods to the study of politics because they seem synonymous. According to Johari “an approach is a way of looking at and then explaining a given phenomenon which includes everything related to the collection and selection of evidence necessary for investigation and analysis of hypothesis. Method on the other hand is a way of organizing a theory for application to data. According to Salvador method is the technical device used for gathering data and point of view of the expert.

Van Dyke believes that a approaches consist of criteria for selecting problems and relevant data whereas method are procedures for gathering and utilizing data. Approaches to the study of politics can be categorized into two major categories; the traditional and the modern approach.

The traditional approach is value based and lays emphasis on inclusion of value to the study of political phenomenon. The adherent of this approach believes that the study of political science should be on facts alone since facts and values are closely related to each other. Since the days of Plato the study of politics have revolved around normative orientations, accordingly there are a number of traditional approaches like legal approach, philosophical approach, historical, institutional approach etc.

Historical approach believes that the study of political is anchored on the premise that the study of political phenomenon should be based on the historical factors such as age, situation. Political thinkers such as Machiavelli, Sabine amongst others believe that politics and history are intrinsically related and that the study of politics should have historical perspective since every past is related to the present thus historical analysis provides chronological order of every political phenomenon.

Many approaches exist in political science, and each of these focuses different ideas and aspects of political reality. In the first place are the normative approaches, which seek to describe ideals and to prescribe standards of what "ought" or "should" be the right political order or conduct. The second category consists of the empirical approaches, which, in contrast, emphasize facts and statistical inquiries. You should also note that political scientists sometimes employ research approaches that are derived from other disciplines. Such approaches are usually labelled after these fields of study. Among them are the philosophical, historical, sociological, economic, and geographical approaches.

According to Stephen Wasby, approaches to political science research can also be categorized into three groups based on the aspects of political phenomena that they emphasize. The three groupings consist of the philosophical and ideological approach, the institutional and structural approach, and the behavioral approach. This is yet another reason why understanding categories is critical in the study of politics. Hence, the political system generates data in large quantities and at random. A student of politics therefore needs an analytic approach in order to enable him make a coherent choice of the data to concentrate on and to arrange them logically. More importantly, these approaches suggest hypothetical relationships among political forces and events that can be investigated by researchers. We shall now attempt to present a synopsis of some of the leading approaches in political science. It may be necessary to note that there is some overlap among the approaches. No approach is right or wrong (although some may be more useful than others. Each approach helps to throw some light on specific aspects of political life.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1. 2

The traditional approach lays emphasis on

- 1) Political events and phenomenon
- 2) Values and inclusion of values in the study of political phenomena
- 3) Lays emphasis on political behavior of actors

Answer to the Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1. 2

The answer to the question is B.

Values and inclusion of values in the study of political phenomena

The philosophical approach

According to Vernon Van Dyke, philosophy denotes "efforts" to arrive at the truth through the use of reasons. Philosophical inquiries usually result in statements of preference, descriptions of ideals, and prescriptions of values. The application of a philosophical approach in political science usually leads to a focus on the great ideas, values, and doctrines of politics and on the reflections of great political thinkers. The objectives of such efforts have been identified as being to 'establish standards of the good, the right, and the just and to appraise or prescribe political institutions and practices in the light of these standards.

Secondly, the philosophical approach aims at evolving "standards of right and wrong" for the purpose of a critical evaluation of the existing institutions, laws and policies. Philosophical approach to the study of political science could be traced to the writings of ancient philosophers like Plato and Aristotle. Leo Strauss who was one of the ardent supporters of this approach believed that "the philosophy is the quest for wisdom and political philosophy is the attempt truly to know about the nature of political things and the right or good political order." This approach lays stress on ethical and normative study of politics and is idealistic in nature. It deals with the problems of nature and function of state issues of citizenship, rights and duties etc. Its themes are generally concerned with moral reasoning which cannot be subjected to scientific test

Historical approach believes that political phenomena could be understood better with the help of historical factors like age, place, situations etc. Political thinkers like Machiavelli, Sabine and Dunning believe that politics and history are intricately related and the study of politics always should have a historical perspective. Sabine is of the view that Political Science should include all those subjects which have been discussed in the writings of different political thinkers from the time of Plato. Every past is linked with the present and thus the

historical analysis provides a chronological order of every political phenomenon. The term 'historical approach' to politics may be used in two senses. Firstly, it may denote the process of arriving at the laws governing politics through an analysis of historical approach.

The sociological approach

As a discipline, sociology studies human behaviour within the context of the social environment. Its basic premise is that membership and interaction within human groups affect the behavior of the individual. Political scientists who adopt the sociological approach therefore investigate issues such as the relationship between the social environment on the one hand and political behaviour on the other hand. Such analysts make considerable use of sociological concepts like society, culture, status group, and role. They also employ sociological variables such as education, income, and occupation in their studies.

The psychological approach

Psychological studies behaviour by reference to the individual. Accordingly, political scientists who employ the psychological approach seek to investigate the impact of personality and other psychological variables such as motivation, perception, and attitude on politics. For instance, studies of public opinion, voting behavior, and socialization have often involved the use of psychological data of citizens.

Geographical approach

The geographical framework of politics seeks to explain political phenomena by reference to certain facts of geography, such as location, climate, rivers, mountains, seas, availability of natural resources, etc. Students of international politics have regularly relied on geographical features to explain and predict the foreign policies of different countries. For instance, the presence of crude oil is generally perceived as an important element of the power of the Nigerian state and a major determinant of its foreign relations.

The political economy approach

As a frame of reference for the analysis of political phenomena, the political economy approach derives from the writings of Karl Marx, a German philosopher. The central premise of his perspective is that the mode of production in material life determines the general character of the social, political, and spiritual processes of life. The political economy framework thus requires the analyst to take cognizance of the "mode" of production," which refers not only to the state of technique... but technique but to the way in which the means of production were owned and the social relations between men that resulted from their connections with the process of production. In effect,

Marxian In effect, Marxian political economy provides a framework for an integral study of political reality by reference to relevant economic, social, legal, and moral factors.

The Institutional approach and the systems approach

The institutional approach

This approach is closely related to legal approach, yet it is different. Significantly, this approach does not solely bank on other disciplines—philosophy, history or law—for understanding politics. Amongst the traditional approach method it alone gives independent identity to the systematic study of politics. Institutional approach lays emphasis on the study of political institutions and structures like executive, legislature, judiciary, political parties, interest groups etc. Among the ancient philosopher Aristotle is an important contributor to this approach while the modern thinkers include James Bryce, Bentley, Walter Bagehot, Harold Laski, etc. The champions of the institutional approach proceed to study the organization and functioning of government, its various organs, political parties and other institutions affecting politics. Classification of governments, starting from Aristotle (monarchy, tyranny, aristocracy, oligarchy, polity and democracy) to modern classification (democracy and dictatorship, parliamentary and presidential, unitary and federal, etc.), identification of levels of government (federal, state and local) as well as branches of government (executive, legislative, judicial), composition and powers of each of these and their interrelationships (largely in legal terms), etc. are the chief concerns of this approach. It aims at giving an elaborate description of facts. Hence it exemplifies a shift from normative to empirical approach, and from a historical to a contemporary concern within the sphere of traditional however, it relies heavily on description rather than explanation. Hence, it fails to qualify as a contemporary approach.

More concretely, an institution has been conceived as ‘offices and agencies arranged in a hierarchy, each agency having certain functions and powers. Accordingly, the institutional approach to political inquiry focuses on the formal structures and agencies of government. Political science research which is informed by this approach usually describes and classifies the agencies of government such as legislatures, the judiciary, the executive agencies, party systems, etc. Such studies also examine the constitutional and legal arrangements of governments. The institutional approach has been criticized for the neglect of the informal aspects of politics, norms, beliefs, values, attitudes, personality and the processes.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1.3

Explain institutional approach

Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1. 3

The institutional approach to political behavior is the political inquiry that focuses on the formal structures and agencies of government.

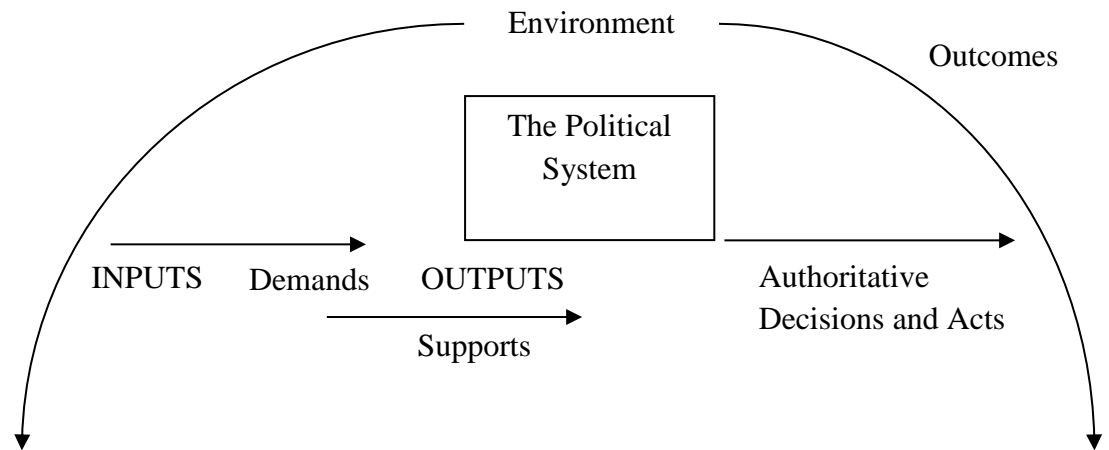
Again, please revisit the format given for writing course materials and follow the steps. For instance, in all the units so far, one cannot find the summary. So many discussions are just hanging without any clue as to what they represent. Perhaps, it is attributable to verbatim lifting of previous works, which is not permitted as works consulted must be fully acknowledged.

The systems approach

David Easton is usually credited with pioneering the application of the systems approach to the analysis of the political process. He defines the political system as ‘the system of interactions in any society through which binding or authoritative decisions are made and implemented. He considers the political system as existing within an environment of other systems – physical, biological, social, psychological, etc., which affects it and are in turn affected by the political system – through continuous transactions and exchanges.

According to Easton, the political system functions by getting inputs from its environment. Inputs are events in the environment which evoke response from it. The inputs could be demands that values be allocated in a particular way or they could be supports, that is, expressions of approval for particular decisions. The inputs from the environment undergo a conversion process within the political system and come out as outputs, which are usually authoritative decisions such as government policies, judicial decisions, acts of parliament, etc., promulgated by the authorities. These authoritative outputs usually affect the environment as outcomes and in turn excite some form of feedback, that is, changes in the intensity and volume of demands and support from the environment. The Eastonian systems model has been summed up in the diagram below. It may be noted, however, that his formulations have been criticized as being too abstract, and too isolated from concrete reality. However, the approach can be considered helpful in the understanding of political events that we do not directly experience.

Essentials of a political system



Source: Austin Ranney, *The Governing of Men*, 4th ed., Hinsdale: The Dryden Press, 1975, p. 31

Structural-functional approach to the study of politics.

Structural functionalism has been found particularly useful in the comparison of political systems. According to Gabriel Almond, one of the chief proponents of the approach in political science, every political system performs certain functions. Taking Easton's systems analysis as a starting point, Almond looks for the functions which could be included among the input and output functions of all political systems. On the input side are the functions of (1) interest articulation and (2) interest aggregation. Second, on the output side are the functions of (3) rule making, (4) rule-application and (5) rule adjudication. The function of (6) political communication is undertaken to inform all within the political system and outside of these diverse activities. Additionally, every system performs (7) systems maintenance and adaptation functions through political socialization and recruitment of people. According to Almond, the functioning of any political system may also be viewed in terms of its capabilities defined as 'the way it performs as a unit in its environment.' The concepts of *regulative*, *extractive*, *distributive* and *responsive* capability are employed as criteria to assess how a system is performing within its environment, how it is shaping its environment and how it is being shaped by it.

Almond's formulations have been faulted on three grounds. First, it has been noted that it is not easy to distinguish between the 'deliberate aims of the participants' and what takes place because the systems seem to achieve certain aims.' Second, the identification of functions is alleged to rest on the interpretation the analyst places on observed developments. Thus, there cannot be complete objectivity. In effect, the number of the identified functions can be more or less than the seven

listed by Almond. Third, the approach has been seen as culturally bound since the functions attributed to the political system are too closely modeled on Western political systems. However, Almond's structural-functional approach has been recognised as the major existing tool for genuine comparative analysis of political systems and has been described as a "fairly realistic interpretation of the nature of political life."

Arthur Bentley is widely acknowledged to have originated the group approach to the understanding of politics in his classic, *The Process of Government*. The framework got further elaboration from David Truman in his book *The Governmental Process*. The group approach seeks to explain politics by reference to groups. As Bentley, puts it: "When the groups are adequately stated, everything is stated. When I say everything, I mean everything. The complete description will mean the complete science, in the study of social phenomena as in any other field. This statement clearly equates a description of group activity to a description of all politics. There are, however, proponents of the group approach who do not share this extreme position. Instead, such theorists, including David Truman, hold that politics is not the sum of group behavior but is at the center of the political process.

To most group theorists as with most political scientists, 'a political group exists when men with shared interests organize, interact, and seek goals through the political process.' What is emphasized is not the structural composition of a group but its activities. The interaction among its members must be both relatively frequent, sufficiently patterned and be directed towards the attainment of certain interests by its members. The group approach conceived of society as a mosaic of numerous interest groups with cross-cutting membership. Exponents of the approach posit that the form of politics of any society is ultimately determined by the interaction among groups within the society and the competition among such groups of influence government in the allocation of societal resources and exercise of power. Each group therefore seeks to gain access to decision points within the government and its success in this regard is usually affected by factors such as group cohesion and organization, status, quality of leadership and wealth. Although the group approach has been criticized for leaving out the characteristics of individuals and for not considering the nation, the state and the society, it still remains a useful framework for explaining politics. It has also been found useful in the study of community power structure.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1.4

Explain David Easton the political system can be defined as---

- a. He defines the political system as 'the system of interactions in any society through which binding or authoritative decisions are made and implemented
- b. The environment of political system
- c. The demand system

Answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1.4

The answer to the question is (A)

He defines the political system as 'the system of interactions in any society through which binding or authoritative decisions are made and implemented.

Decision-making approach

The decision-making approach has been widely employed in the study of international relations and in public policy analysis. The central assumption of the approach is that if we seek to understand any political action, we must analyze it from the position of the actors. According to Richard C. Snyder, one of the foremost exponents of this approach, decision-making lies at the heart of all political actions, and, therefore, it alone provides the common focus under which we can bring together the political *actors, situations, and processes* for the purposes of analysis. He posits that understanding a particular political action requires the analysis (a) to ascertain who made the decisions that resulted in the action and (b) to examine the interactive and intellectual factors that influenced the decision-makers.

Snyder categorizes the factors which prompt decision-makers into three sets, namely, (i) the internal setting, (ii) the external setting, and (iii) the decision-making process. According to him, the internal setting includes such variables of the local society as public opinion, dominant value orientations, organizational dynamics, and social structure. The external setting consists of such factors as the actions and reactions of other actors in the international (or national) arena and the physical environment. Among the forces which make up the decision-making processes are the organizational division of spheres of competence, the flow of communication, and the motivation of decision-makers. The motivational factors comprise the interests that an official acquires in the decision-making organization and personality traits acquired from childhood. It is the combined impact of these factors that influences decision-makers and, thereby, their actions.

The decision-making approach has been faulted for requiring an analyst to take cognizance of too many factors and for attributing too much rationality to the process of decision-making by assuming that officials

carefully weigh the pros and cons before arriving at any particular decision. It has also been alleged that the approach emphasizes the process of decision-making and not the outcome of the decisions made. Regardless of its shortcomings, the decision-making approach has helped to underline important variables in the analysis of foreign and domestic policies.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1. 5

Snyder categorizes the factors which prompt decision-makers into three sets:

Which of these sets below

- a. The internal setting, the external setting, and environmental processes
- b. Internal setting , External setting and intellectual factors
- c. the internal setting, the external setting, and the decision-making process
- d. the internal setting, (ii) organizational and (iii) the decision-making process

Answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1. 5

The answer to that exercise is d.

The internal setting, the external setting, and the decision-making process

Summary

You learnt that political scientists who adopt the sociological approach investigate issues such as the relationship between the social environment on the one hand and political behaviour on the other hand. Such analysts make considerable use of sociological concepts like society, culture, status group, and role. Accordingly, political scientists who employ the psychological approach seek to investigate the impact of personality and other psychological variables such as motivation, perception, and attitude on politics. For instance, studies of public opinion, voting behavior, and socialization have often involved the use of psychological data of citizens. As a frame of reference for the analysis of political phenomena, derives from the writings of Karl Marx, a German philosopher otherwise known as Marxian ideology provides a framework for an integral study of political reality by reference to relevant economic, social, legal, and moral factors. Again in unit 1.5, the institutional approach and the systems approach, the institutional approach closely related to legal approach, yet it is different. Significantly, this approach does not solely bank on other disciplines—philosophy, history or law—for understanding politics. Accordingly, the institutional approach to political inquiry focuses on the formal structures and agencies of government. Political science research which is informed by this approach usually describes and classifies the

agencies of government such as legislatures, the judiciary, the executive agencies, party systems. The approach studies the constitutional and legal arrangements of governments. The institutional approach has been criticized for the neglect of the informal aspects of politics, norms, beliefs, values, attitudes, personality and the processes.

1.8: Self-Assessment Questions:

SAQ1: What are the differences approaches to the study of politics that you?

Political behavior is the study of the ways people think, feel, and act with regard to politics. This course is designed to touch on the major areas of research in political behavior, including the meaning of political behavior; Personality and attitude; political culture; socialization and participation; social order theories; voting and voting systems; election ethics, accountability, and transparency Gender and politics: Studies on peace and conflict; Mass media and the democratic process Collective action, leadership, bargaining, and negotiation. Theoretical and empirical perspectives on voting and other forms of political participation; parties, interest groups, public opinion and propaganda, amongst many others.

The study of political behavior presents many intriguing puzzles. Millions of people overcome the rational calculation to "free ride" by voting in presidential elections every four years, even though they know that their vote will not count or affect the outcome of the election. Approximately 60% of Nigerians identify with one of the two major political parties, but a substantial proportion of people are unable to recognize the name of their National Assembly representative or know which party holds a majority in the National Assembly. Democratic theory is built on the principle that citizens can make informed and rational choices, yet emotion influences our political opinions and actions. In this course, we will discuss these and other topics from broader perspectives. To set the ball rolling, the first topic for us is the approaches to the study of politics before the advent of political behavior. What are the traditional approaches to the study of politics? This question refers to how people were studying politics before the political behavior revolution in 1945. This brings us to the first topic approach to the study of politics.

SAQ2: Distinguished between the philosophical approach and sociological approach?

The philosophical approach

According to Vernon Van Dyke, philosophy denotes "efforts" to arrive at the truth through the use of reasons. Philosophical inquiries usually result in statements of preference, descriptions of ideals, and

prescriptions of values. The application of a philosophical approach in political science usually leads to a focus on the great ideas, values, and doctrines of politics and on the reflections of great political thinkers. The objectives of such efforts have been identified as being to 'establish standards of the good, the right, and the just and to appraise or prescribe political institutions and practices in the light of these standards.

Secondly, the philosophical approach aims at evolving "standards of right and wrong" for the purpose of a critical evaluation of the existing institutions, laws and policies. Philosophical approach to the study of political science could be traced to the writings of ancient philosophers like Plato and Aristotle. Leo Strauss who was one of the ardent supporters of this approach believed that "the philosophy is the quest for wisdom and political philosophy is the attempt truly to know about the nature of political things and the right or good political order." This approach lays stress on ethical and normative study of politics and is idealistic in nature. It deals with the problems of nature and function of state issues of citizenship, rights and duties etc. Its themes are generally concerned with moral reasoning which cannot be subjected to scientific test

Historical approach believes that political phenomena could be understood better with the help of historical factors like age, place, situations etc. Political thinkers like Machiavelli, Sabine and Dunning believe that politics and history are intricately related and the study of politics always should have a historical perspective. Sabine is of the view that Political Science should include all those subjects which have been discussed in the writings of different political thinkers from the time of Plato. Every past is linked with the present and thus the historical analysis provides a chronological order of every political phenomenon. The term 'historical approach' to politics may be used in two senses. Firstly, it may denote the process of arriving at the laws governing politics through an analysis of historical approach.

The sociological approach

As a discipline, sociology studies human behaviour within the context of the social environment. Its basic premise is that membership and interaction within human groups affect the behavior of the individual. Political scientists who adopt the sociological approach therefore investigate issues such as the relationship between the between the social environment on the one hand and political behaviour on the other hand. Such analysts make considerable use of sociological concepts like society, culture, status group, and role. They also employ sociological variables such as education, income, and occupation in their studies.

SAQ3: Give a definition of political economy approach to the study of politics?

The political economy approach derives from the writings of Karl Marx, a German philosopher. The central premise of his perspective is that the mode of production in material life determines the general character of the social, political, and spiritual processes of life. The political economy framework thus requires the analyst to take cognizance of the "mode" of production," which refers not only to the state of technique... but technique but to the way in which the means of production were owed and the social relations between men that resulted from their connections with the process of production. In effect, Marxian In effect, Marxian political economy provides a framework for an integral study of political reality by reference to relevant economic, social, legal, and moral factors.

SAQ4: Explain the institutional approach to the study of politics?

This approach is closely related to legal approach, yet it is different. Significantly, this approach does not solely bank on other disciplines—philosophy, history or law—for understanding politics. Amongst the traditional approach method it alone gives independent identity to the systematic study of politics. Institutional approach lays emphasis on the study of political institutions and structures like executive, legislature, judiciary, political parties, interest groups etc. Among the ancient philosopher Aristotle is an important contributor to this approach while the modern thinkers include James Bryce, Bentley, Walter Bagehot, Harold Laski, etc. The champions of the institutional approach proceed to study the organization and functioning of government, its various organs, political parties and other institutions affecting politics. Classification of governments, starting from Aristotle (monarchy, tyranny, aristocracy, oligarchy, polity and democracy) to modern classification (democracy and dictatorship, parliamentary and presidential, unitary and federal, etc.), identification of levels of government (federal, state and local) as well as branches of government (executive, legislative, judicial), composition and powers of each of these and their interrelationships (largely in legal terms), etc. are the chief concerns of this approach. It aims at giving an elaborate description of facts. Hence it exemplifies a shift from normative to empirical approach, and from a historical to a contemporary concern within the sphere of traditional however, it relies heavily on description rather than explanation. Hence, it fails to qualify as a contemporary approach.

More concretely, an institution has been conceived as 'offices and agencies arranged in a hierarchy, each agency having certain functions and powers. Accordingly, the institutional approach to political inquiry focuses on the formal structures and agencies of government. Political

science research which is informed by this approach usually describes and classifies the agencies of government such as legislatures, the judiciary, the executive agencies, party systems, etc. Such studies also examine the constitutional and legal arrangements of governments. The institutional approach has been criticized for the neglect of the informal aspects of politics, norms, beliefs, values, attitudes, personality and the processes.

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MODULE 2 THE EVOLUTION OF BEHAVIORIALISM IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

Unit1	Behavioral Revolution as it relates to Charles Merriam 1874- 1953
Unit2	The Contribution of Graham Wallas to Behaviouralism
Unit3	The 8 Intellectual Foundations of Behaviouralism According to David Easton
Unit3	Distinctions between Behavioral Revolution and Post- Behaviouralism

Unit 1 Behavioral Revolution as it relates to Charles Merriam 1874- 1953

Units Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning outcome:
- 2.3 Behavioral Revolution as it relates to Charles Merriam 1874-
1953
- 2.4 The Contribution of Graham Wallas to Behaviouralism
- 2.5 The 8 Intellectual Foundations of Behaviouralism According to
David Easton
- 2.6 Behavioral Revolution and Post- Behaviouralism
- 2.7 Summary
- 2.8 Self-assessment questions
- 2.9 Possible answers to Self-assessment questions

2.1 Introduction

This module deals with the behavioral revolution in political science. Prior to the behavioral revolution the study of politics was basically carried out in the traditional ways. The advent of behaviouralism ushered in the study of individual/group behaviors towards politics. The study as usual is divided into units. Each unit deals with a subunit of the section. Please study the units and be abreast of them. This will help you to assimilate and retain the study for long time purposes. Best of lucks as you study.

2.2 Learning outcome

At The End of the Session You Should Able To:

- Explain Behavioral Revolution as it relates to Charles Merriam 1874-1953
- Give a narration of the Contribution of Graham Wallas to Behaviouralism

- Discuss the 8 Intellectual Foundations of Behaviouralism According to David Easton
- Explain the distinctions between Behavioral Revolution and Post-Behaviouralism

2.3 Main section Introduction

Generally, contemporary approaches to the study of politics signify a departure from the traditional approaches in two perspectives: 1. they attempt to establish a separate identity of political science by focusing on the real character of politics and 2. They try to understand politics in totality, transcending its formal aspects and looking for those aspects of social life which influence and are influenced by it. Contemporary approaches are many and all of them may not fulfill those conditions. The following may be regarded as the most important: a. behavioral and post-behavioral approaches and other important models of political analysis such as communication approach, structural functional approach, the systems approach amongst others (Gaubatz 2007).

2.4 The contributions of Graham Wallas to Behaviouralism

Behavioralism, or the behavioral approach to the analysis and explanation of political phenomena, is particularly associated with the work of American political scientists after the Second World War (1939–1945). But its origins may be traced back to the works of Graham Wallas (*Human Nature In Politics*) and Arthur Bentley (*The Process of Government*), both published as early as 1908. Both Wallas and Bentley were inclined to place greater emphasis on the former process of politics and less on political institutions in isolation. In this book, Wallas sought to introduce a new realism in political studies in the light of new findings in contemporary psychology.

While classical economics, the champions of the laissez-faire doctrine, tried to show man as a rational being following his own self-interest, the new psychology has revealed that man was not a rational creature in this sense, that his political actions were not totally guided by reason and reason alone. Human nature is too complex to be explained by simplistic utilitarian propositions. Therefore, Wallas insisted on exploring facts and evidence to understand human nature and its manifestations in human behavior. His main message was that understanding the political process required analyzing how people actually behave in political situations rather than speculating on how they should and would behave. On the other hand, Bentley a pioneer of the "group approach" to politics, primarily sought not to describe political activity but to provide for new tools of investigation. He was so fascinated by the study of former groups that he tended almost completely to ignore the former

political institutions. Greatly inspired by sociology, he proceeded to undertake a study of the roles of pressure groups, political parties, elections, and public opinion in political processes.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2. 1

Explain the contributions of Graham Wallas to Behaviouralism?

Possible answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2.1

Behaviouralism in relation to Wallas can be explained in the following ways:

Behaviouralism can be traced back to the works of Graham Wallas (Human nature in politics) and the works of Arthur Bentley (the process of government), both published as early as 1908.

Both Wallas and Bentley were inclined to place greater emphasis on the former process of politics and less on political institutions in isolation.

In his book, Wallas sought to introduce a new realism in political studies in the light of new findings in contemporary psychology.

2.5 The Intellectual Foundations of Behavioralism David Easton

Charles Merriam (1874–1953) was another pioneer of the behavioral approach. He is also famous as the father of the Chicago school, which made substantial contributions to the behavioral movement in the article (*The Present State of the Study of Politics*) published in the American Political Review in 1921 and in his book, *New Aspect of Politics* (1925). Merriam criticized contemporary political science for its lack of scientific rigor. He deprecated the work of historians as they have ignored the role of psychological, sociological, and economic factors in human affairs. He argued that students of politics should make full use of recent advances in social sciences in order to develop the interdisciplinary and scientific character of political science. He called for renewed scientific endeavor and emphasized the need for "policy science" by using quantitative techniques already developed in the fields of psychology and sociology. In his presidential address to the American Political Science Association in 1925 Merriam exhorted political scientists to look at political behavior as one of the essential objectives of inquiry. Apart from being an exponent of scientific methodology for the study of politics, Merriam was also an ardent champion of democracy. In fact, he worked hard to put science at the service of democratic principles. He saw no consistency in promoting science and democracy together. However, William B. Munro, an exponent of scientific method, argued that it was not a proper function to teach democratic citizenship. G.E.G. Catlin advanced the case for a value-free "pure science" in his *Science and Method of Politics* (1927). He treated power "as the essence of politics" and argued that analysis of power should not be inclined in favor of a particular value system. Harold D. Laswell (1900–1981) elaborated on the view of politics as the science of

power as well as the case for treating politics as a policy science. He revealed in office politics: who gets what, when, and how. 1936) proved to be a landmark in the empirical approach to politics as the study and analysis of power.

Despite these early attempts, behavioralism in political science was systematically developed only after the Second World War, particularly through the writings of American political scientists. David B. Truman contributed a paper in 1962 on the impact of "the behavioral approach on traditional political science," and David Easton contributed a paper in 1967 on "the current meaning of behavioralism in political science." Heinz Eulau's article on "political behavior" in the national encyclopedia of the social sciences, published in 1968, was also an important contribution to the series. In a nutshell, behaviouralism stood for a shift of focus in the study of politics, from the former behavior, that is, the behavior of actual actors in the political field, such as power holders, power seekers, and voters. As such, behaviorism came to be understood as something broader than the study of political behavior, though political behavior remains its primary focus. It would therefore be profitable to define "political behavior" at the outset.

According to Geoffrey K. Roberts in a Dictionary of Political Analysis (1971), political behavior as an area of study within political science is concerned with those aspects of human behavior that take place within a political context, that is, within a state or other political community for political purposes or with political motivation. Its focus is on the individual person-as voter, leader, revolutionary, party member, opinion leader, etc., rather than the group or the political system but it necessarily takes account of the influences of the group on the individual's behavior, the constraints of the system on the individual's opportunities for action, and the effect of political culture and his activities and political habits.

Accordingly, the political scientists who undertook the study of political behavior sought to account for the psychological and social influences on the behavior of an individual in a political situation. This involved the study of such processes and factors as political specialization, political ideologies, political culture, political participation, political communication, leadership, decision-making, and even political violence, and the understanding of most of these processes involved inter-disciplinary and cross-disciplinary research. In any case, behavioralism as a movement in political science did not remain confined to individual-based political behavior but developed into a set of orientations, procedures, and methods of analysis. In practice, it embraced all that lends a scientific character to modern political science.

Behavioralism's Intellectual Foundations of David Easton

According to David Easton, the intellectual foundations of behavioralism consist of eight tenants:

Regularities: it implies that there are discoverable uniformities in political behavior that can be expressed in theory-like statements so as to provide for the explanation and prediction of political phenomena.

Verification requires that the validation of such theory-like statements must be testable, in principle, by reference to relevant behavior.

Techniques: it means that the means for acquiring and interpreting data should be examined self-consciously, refined and validated for the purpose of observing, recording and analyzing behavior.

Quantification

Quantification is necessary because precision in recording of data and statement of findings requires measurement, which should be expressed in terms of actual quantities to facilitate proper analysis.

Values

The behaviouralist drew a clear distinction between ethical valuations and empirical explanations, which were considered with values and facts respectively.

Systematization stands for establishing a close relationship between theory and research because research untutored by theory may prove trivial while theory unsupportable by data may turn out to be futile.

Pure science holds that the understanding and explanation of political behavior is essential to utilizing political knowledge in the solution of urgent practical problems of society.

Integration: it signifies integration of political science with other social sciences in order to evolve a comprehensive review of human affairs and to strengthen the validity and generality of its own results.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2. 2

Mention the eight intellectual foundations stones of Behaviouralism?

Possible answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2. 2

The 8 intellectual foundations stones of Behaviouralism are:
Regularities, Verification, Techniques, Quantification, Values
Systematization, Pure science and Integration:

Post-Behavioralism

According to the Behaviouralist, any political inquiry conducted according to these guidelines will be most conducive to generating reliable theories and scientific explanations. The behavioral movement had such a profound effect on political science that these tests became the rule of political inquiry. Behaviorism gives primacy to a higher degree of reliability and, vice-versa, a higher degree of generality. As a

result, concentrate on the questions that can be reliably answered using the methods at hand. As Vernon Van Dyke has aptly illustrated, "the student who takes a behavioral approach is not likely to ask broad and vague questions like what caused the decline and fall of the Roman Empire; nor is he likely to focus on ideologies or constitutions or laws or upon the organizational structure of institutions (political science: a philosophical analysis, 1960). In short, behaviorism focuses on micro-level situations rather than macro-level generalization.

In the post-Behaviorism revolution, by the mid-1960s, behaviorism gained a dominant position in the methodology of political science. However, its critics like Leo Strauss ("What is Political Philosophy?" *Journal of Politics*, 1957) have started arguing that the rise of behavioralism was symptomatic of a crisis in political theory because of its failure to come to grips with normative issues. Sheldon Wolin, (*Political Theory as a Vocation*) *American Political Science Review*, 1969) declared that the preoccupation of political science with method signified an abdication of the true vocation of political theory. Within the sphere of philosophy of science, the publication of Thomas Kuhn's *The Structure of Scientific Revolution* (1962) promoted the view that the significance of scientific method lies in its capacity for problem-solving and crisis management, not a methodological sophistication. By the end of the 1960s, even the exponents of behavioralism realized that its strict adherence to pure "science" was responsible for its failure to attend to the pressing social and political issues of the period. In 1969, David Easton himself, in his presidential address to the American Political Science Association, announced a new revolution in political science, "a post-behavioral revolution" that represented a shift of focus from strict methodological issues to a greater concern with public responsibilities of the discipline and with political problems.

Relevance and action are the twin slogans of post-behaviorism. It represented no complete break from behavioralism. Rather, it stood for consolidating its gains and applying them to problem solving and crisis management. Easton drew the attention of contemporary political scientists to the impending threat of a nuclear bomb, internal conflicts with the United States that could lead to civil or dictatorship, and the undeclared war in Vietnam, which was disturbing moral consciousness around the world.

He lamented that behavioral political science was taking refuge in their "ivory tower", seeking to perfect their methodology as if they were not at all concerned with the outside world. Easton warned that if intellectuals and historians fail to play their roles in protecting civilization's human value, they will be reduced to mere technicians or mechanics tinkering with society. Reminding them of their

responsibility to reshape society, Easton concluded that scientists could adopt a rational interest in value construction and application without denying the validity of their science. Therefore, post-behavioralism seeks to reintroduce a concern for values into the behavioral approach itself. In contemporary social science, the behavioral approach has shown increasing concern with solving the prevailing problems of society. In this way, it has largely absorbed the post-behavioral orientation within scope.

2.7 Differences behavioralism revolution and Post behavioralism revolution

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BEHAVIORIAL AND POST BEHAVIORAL			
The Issues		Behavioral	POST-BEHAVIORAL
1	Nature of inquiry	Search for pure knowledge and theory	Search for applied knowledge and practice
2	Purpose of inquiry	Knowledge for knowledge sake, not interested in action	Relevance of knowledge to satisfy social needs and action for problem solving
3	Focus of study	Micro level analysis; focus of small units Process of decision making	Macro level analysis; focus on the role big units' content of decision.
4	Attitude towards values	Value neutral	Interested in the choice of value
5	Attitude towards social change	Interested in statuesque, not interested in social change	Interested in social change for solving social problems

Source: *Introduction to political theory fourth edition y O P Gauba 2009*

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2.3

Give 3 difference between Behavioralism and post-behavioral?

Answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2.3

Three differences between and Behavioralism and post-behavioral are:

1. Purpose of inquiry: the behavioral believe in knowledge for knowledge sake, not interested in action but the post-behavioral believe in relevance of knowledge to satisfy social needs and action for problem solving
2. Focus of study: the behavioral insist on micro level analysis while the post-behavioral focus of small unit process of decision making, Relevance of knowledge to satisfy social needs and action for problem solving
3. Attitude towards values: the former believes in value neutral while the later post-behavioral is interested in the choice of value.

2.8 Summary

From the study of this module you discovered learnt that Wallas and Bentley laid greater emphasis on the former process of politics and less on political institutions in isolation. Wallas sought to introduce a new realism in political studies in the light of new finding of contemporary psychology and insisted on exploring facts and evidence for understanding human nature and its manifestations in human behavior. His chief message was that the political process could be understood only by analyzing how people actually behavior in political situations, not manly by speculating on how they should and would behave. Bentley, on the other hand, a pioneer of group approach'' to politics primarily sought not to describe political activity but to provide for new tools of investigation. Charles Merriam (1874-1953) criticized contemporary political science for its lack of scientific rigor. In the fact he vigorous sought to put science into the service of democratic principle. He saw no consistency in promoting science and democracy together. William B. Munro and exponent of scientific method however, argued that it was not a proper function to teach democratic citizenship. The evolution of the behavioral approach to the study of politics change the narrative to the study of politics fro from normative and value ridden studies to the study of human actors in politics. Having eight (8) foundation stones to the study of political behavior. Consequently, behaviorism become a very veritable method of study in political science and political actors. Political behavior'' at the outset as the intellectual foundations of behavioralism laid by David Easton.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2.4

Explain Behavioural revolution as it relates to Charles Merriam (1874-1953)

Possible answer to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2. 4

Charles Merriam (1874–1953) was another pioneer of the behavioral approach.

He is also famous as the father of the Chicago school, which made substantial contributions to the behavioral movement in the article (the present state of the study of politics) published in the *American Political Review* in 1921 and in his book, *New Aspect of Politics* (1925).

Merriam criticized contemporary political science for its lack of scientific rigor.

He deprecated the work of historians as they have ignored the role of psychological, sociological, and economic factors in human affairs.

He argued that students of politics should make full use of recent advances in social sciences in order to develop the interdisciplinary and scientific character of political science.

He called for renewed scientific endeavor and emphasized the need for "policy science" by using quantitative techniques already developed in the fields of psychology and sociology.

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MODULE 3 PARADIGMS OF POLITICAL ANALYSIS

Unit 1 The Group Theory

Units Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Understanding of Paradigms as model of Political Analysis
- 3.3 Group Theory as a Model of Political Analysis
- 3.4 Game Theory as a Paradigm of Political Analysis
- 3.4 Systems Theory, Structural–Functional Theory
- 3.5 The Political System / David Easton Systems Theory
- 3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs)
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

3.1 Learning outcome

At the end of the session you should be able to:

- Show an understanding of Paradigms of Political Analysis
- Explain Group Theory as a Model of Political Analysis
- Explain Game Theory as a Paradigm of Political Analysis
- Narrate Systems Theory, Structural–Functional Theory
- Give an Account of the Political System / David Easton Systems Theory

Main section introduction

Paradigm is a Greek word for pattern, example, or sample. The advanced dictionary defined it as the standard or typical example, epitome, or a prototype. It is the generally accepted perspective of a particular discipline at a given time. The word paradigm comes from Greek (paradeigma), it refers to pattern, example, and prototype. Paradigms illustrate similar occurrences not meant to take the audience to a conclusion, but to help guide them there. Philosophers like Thomas (1996) Kuhn in his book "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions." Plato and Thomas Kuhn used the word paradigms at different times and different examples.

According to Sampson (2003) the best way of understanding how a paradigm is meant to guide would be an example of a personal accountant. It is not the job of a personal accountant to tell their client exactly what (and what not) to spend their money on, but to aid in guiding their client as to how money should be spent based on their financial goals. We will discuss some of these models here.

3.2 Understanding of Paradigms as model of Political Analysis

In political science paradigms are models and perspectives use in the explanation of politics and political behavior and how politics work. Paradigms are there to help us understand the situations and circumstances of political life. Paradigms are models, perspectives, or theories like the group theory, the elite theory, the game theory, structural-functional theories amongst many others. Paradigms are important because they define how we perceive reality. As such, everyone is subject to the limitations and distortions produced by their socially conditioned nature.

The term paradigm shift refers to a major change in the concepts and practices of how something works or is accomplished. A paradigm shift can happen within a wide variety of contexts. Paradigm shifts often happen when new technology is introduced that radically alters the production process or manufacturing of a good or service. These shifts are key drivers in many of the processes that a society undergoes such as the American Industrial Revolution. The discovering of machine engines and the current internet world changed the way we do things in the 21st century. The use of the internet has changed our former means of production of goods and services tremendously. Before the discovering of the internet the traditional model of schooling was face-to-face mode but today there is a paradigm shift in the former mode of schooling. Prior to the internet people never imagined that education could be given miles away but today that is not the case. This means there is a paradigm shift. Paradigms can be described as the lenses through which we see the world at a point in time that could change following scientific discovering or revolution.

Understanding Paradigm Shifts

Although the idea of paradigms has been around for quite some time, the concept of paradigm shifts was explored by American physicist and philosopher Kuhn contested that paradigm shifts characterize a revolution to a prevailing scientific framework. They arise when the dominant paradigm, under which normally accepted science operates, is rendered incompatible or insufficient, facilitating the adoption of a revised or completely new theory or paradigm.

Paradigms are important because they define how we perceive reality. As such, everyone is subject to the limitations and distortions produced by their socially conditioned nature. These shifts have become much more frequent in the past hundred years, as the industrial revolution transformed many social and industrial processes. These processes are likely to become even more commonplace in the future as our rate of technological advancement increases.

In the business world, a paradigm shift is often a change in the perception of how things should be thought about, done, or made. A paradigm shift can require entire departments to be eliminated or created. In some cases, millions or even billions of dollars of new equipment need to be purchased while the old equipment is sold or recycled. Reacting well to key paradigm shifts has a lot to do with the long-term success of a business. Such is the case of the assembly line, which created a substantial paradigm shift in the auto industry and all other areas of manufacturing as well.

Example of a Paradigm Shift

The internet created a paradigm shift in the way business is conducted. Email and scan replaced the fax machine and courier services. Orders for securities can now be placed online directly by the client and are sometimes executed in seconds. Before the advent of the internet, it was not so. All of the old-time equipment such as order tickets, fax machines, and the like are now obsolete, thanks to the paradigm shift brought on by modern technology.

Perhaps the greatest barrier to a paradigm shift, in some cases, is the reality of paradigm paralysis: the inability or refusal to see beyond the current models of thinking. The Covid-19 invasion of the world has further changed the world and proved that technology is as a means of production is inevitable. Our world has and we are also changed and our paradigms have also changed you don't want to be left behind otherwise you too would be obsolete so move on and catch the train.

3.3 The Group Theory

Dye (1972) in his book *understanding public policy* postulates that the Group theory begins with the proposition that interactions among groups is the central fact of politics. Individuals with common interest band together formally to press their demands upon government. According to political David Truman, an interest group is a shared attitude group that makes certain claims upon other groups in the society; such groups becomes political if and when it makes a claim through or upon any of the institutions of government.

Individuals in Group theory

Individuals are important in politics only when they act as part of, or on behalf of group interest. The group becomes the essential bridge between the individual and his government. Political is really the struggle among groups to influence public policy.

The task of the political system is to manage group conflict by (1) establishing rules of the game in the group struggle (2) arrange compromises and balancing interest, (3) enact compromises in form of public policy and (4) enforce these compromises. Equilibrium reached in the group struggle. This equilibrium is determined by relative influence of interest groups. Changes in the relative influence of any interest groups can be expected to result in changes in public policy, public policy will move in the direction desired by the groups gaining in influence and away from the desires of groups losing influence.

Group theory believes that what we refer as public policy is actually the equilibrium reached in the group struggle at any given moment, and it represents a balance which the contending factions or groups constantly strive to tip in their favor. The legislature referees the group struggle, ratifies the victories of the successful conditions, and records the terms of the surrenders, compromises and consequences in the form of statutes.

The influence of group is determined by their numbers, wealth, organizational strength, leadership, access to decision makers, and internal cohesion.

The theory also purports to describe all meaningful activity in terms of the group struggle. Policy makers are viewed as constantly responding to group pressures – bargaining, negotiating and compromising among competing demands of influential groups. Politicians attempt to form a majority coalition of groups. In so doing, they have some latitude in determining what groups are to be included in the majority coalition. The larger the constituency of politician the greater number of diverse interest and the greater his latitude in selecting the group to form a majority coalition. Thus, congressmen have less flexibility than senators who have larger and generally more diverse constituencies, and the president has flexibility than congress men and senators. Executive agencies are also understood in terms of their group constituencies.

Parties in Group theory

Parties are viewed as coalition of groups. The whole interest group system- political system itself is held together by several forces. First of all, there is a large, nearly universal latent group in America society which supports the constitutional system and prevailing rules of the game. This group is not always visible but can be activated to administer overwhelming rebuke to my group that attacks the system and threaten to destroy the equilibrium.

Secondly overlapping memberships helps to maintain the equilibrium by preventing one group from moving too far from the prevailing values. Individuals who belong to any of one group also belong to other groups,

and this fact moderates the demand of groups who must avoid offending their members who have other group affiliations.

In group theory checking and balancing resulting from group completion also helps to maintain equilibrium in the system. No single group constitutes majority in American society. The power of each group of each group is checked by the power of the competing groups. Countervailing centers of power function to check the influence of any single group and protect the individuals from the exploitation.

3.4 Game Theory

For us to understand the operation of the game theory it is first necessary to grasp some relatively straightforward definitions and assumptions of the theory. A basic assumption made by game theory involves a special kind rationality, borrowed in its essential from economics offered by (Downs 1951)

According to Downs a rational man is one who behaves as follows: (1) he can always make a decision when confronted with a range of alternatives (2) he ranks all the alternatives facing him in his order of preferences in such a way that each of is either preferred to , or inferior to each other (3) his preference ranking is transitive (4) he always chooses from among the possible alternatives that which ranks highest in his preference ordering and (5) he always makes the same decision each time he is confronted with the same alternative.

Following the above assumptions by Dawns Game theory is the study of rational decisions in situations in which two or more participants have choices to make and the outcome depends on the choices made by each of them. It is applied to policy making where there is no independently both choices that one can make –where the best outcomes depend up what others do. The idea of game is that decision makers are involved in choices that are interdependent. Each player must adjust his conduct to reflect not only his own desires and abilities but also his expectations about what others will do. Perhaps the connotation of game is unfortunate suggesting that that game theory is not really appropriate for serious conflict situations. But just the opposite is true : game theory can be applied to decision about war and peace , the use of nuclear weapons , international diplomacy , bargaining and coalition building in congress or the United Nations , and a variety of other important political situations , A player may be an individual , a group, or a national government . Indeed, anybody with well-defined goals that is capable of rational action

Dye (1972) argued that Game theory is an abstract and deductive model of policy making. It does not describe how people actually make

decisions but how they would go about it making decisions in competitive situations if they were completely rational. Thus, game theory is a form of rationalism, but depends on what two or more participants do.

The rule of the game describes the choices that are available to all the players. The choices are frequently portrayed in a matrix- a diagram which presents the alternative choices of each player and all the possible outcomes of the game. A two –by-two matrixes is the simplest, there are only two players and each player has only two alternatives to choose upon.

Lieber (1972) in *Theory and World Politics* maintained that Game theory is a special kind of analysis of bargaining and conflict. Its essential elements can be found in such diverse situations as poker, chess, and negotiations over the purchase of property, or confrontation with other real life situations. But game theory is particularly applicable to politics, especially to the study of decision making, diplomacy, strategic deterrence and war-fare.

The significance of game theory is that it allows us to analyses social situations which taking into account the existence of conflict as an often inevitable accompaniment rather than as an evil that must be eliminated. it also offers a means of dealing with making in which one side has incomplete control of the final outcome because the presence of other independent decision makers.

Game theory provides a number of advantages for the analysis of international relations. It requires that a conflict situation or decision process be examined from the point of view of the utilities and disadvantages that alternative courses of action offer to each participant. Since it postulates a setting in which both sides make rational calculations of their own self-interest, game theory offers the opportunity of viewing one's antagonist as something other than an incompetent swine or omniscient superman. Given to the fact that game theory can offer the opportunity for qualitative procedures and for the systemic treatment and comparisons of otherwise divers situations, advocates of game theory have tended to argue that if problem is genuinely understood it can also be represented by a mathematical model (Shubik 1964).

Opponents of game theory mathematical model argue that such representation can result in oversimplification and sterility. There are elements of truth in the both argument,. While in principle, any precision and analytic powers of the mathematical model are often obtained by a narrowing of focus and by the omission of complex

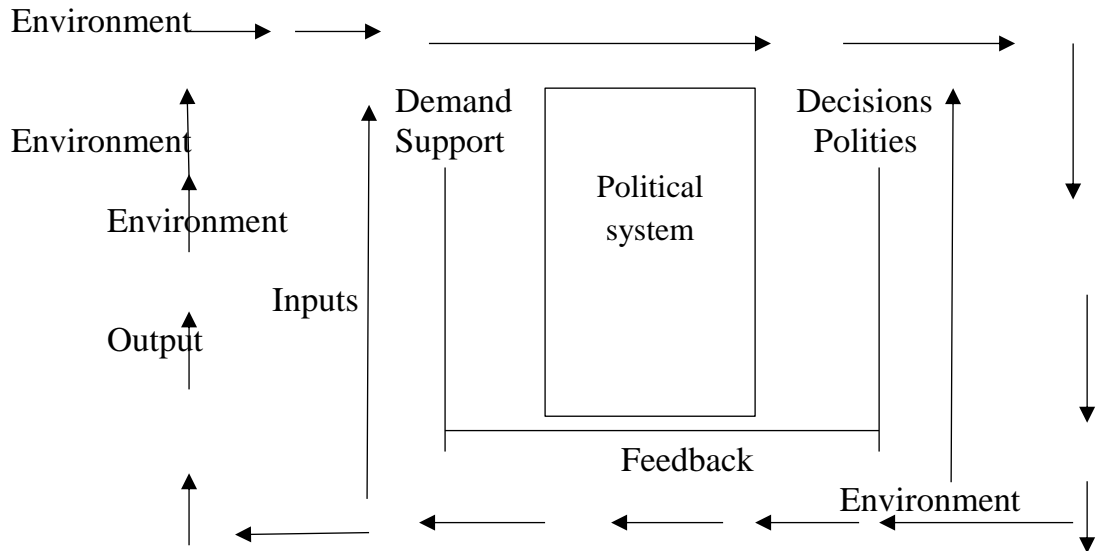
qualifying statements. But a good model nonetheless enables us to pursue a line of reasoning that would otherwise be difficult or impossible to follow.

3.5 Systems Theory, Structural–Functional Theory and Communication as Models of Political Analysis Systems Analysis

This is the pioneering model of political analysis. It conceives politics in terms of a political system. What is a system? As Robert Dahl, has elucidated: any collection of elements that interact in some way with one another can be considered a system. For example, a galaxy, a football team, a legislature, a political party (modern political analysis, (1991). For the purpose of analysis elements of a system should be looked at in an abstract way rather than as concrete things. Hence, elements of a political system should not be seen as a group of individuals constituting a government or its organs, but as abstract elements interacting with each other in the sphere of politics.

A model of a political system in this sense was first developed by David Easton (an approach to the analysis of political system; World politics 1957) who was regarded to be the pioneer of systems analysis. Easton defined politics as the authoritative allocation of values, which broadly constitute the political process. This does not take place in a close circuit; it ends are connected with the social process. It is in this sense that political system has been described as an open system. In other words, allocation of values is made because their corresponding demands from the society or environment; it becomes authoritative because it gets support from the environment. In David Easton terminology, the political system, receives inputs from the environment, inform of demands and supports, it produces outputs in the form of policies and decisions. The outputs flow back into the environment through feedback mechanism, giving rise to fresh demands, etc. this may be illustrated.

**Diagrammatic illustration of systems-
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM / DAVID EASTON SYSTEMS
THEORY**



Easton has characterized demands as the raw materials out of which finished products called decisions are manufactured. He has described supports as the energy in the form of actions or orientations enabling the political system to convert the demands into authoritative decisions and policies. Demands may arise from any source – the people, politicians, administrators, opinion leaders, and so on and so forth- depending on the expectations of the people from the political system. Variability of support is bound affect the destinies of political authorities (often called government), the regime (democratic, authoritarian, and the like), and political community. Outputs are produced by political system through special processes that ensure their acceptance as binding by most members of the society most of the time. Easton has also given the elaborate classification of demand, supports and outputs which illustrate their nature thoroughly.

Structural Functional Analysis

Like the systems theory, structural –functional analysis is also based on the concept of political system. This model of political analysis has been more widely used in the sphere of comparative politics because it provides for standard categories of different types of political systems. It originated in the sphere of social anthropology in their writing of Radcliffe-Brown and B Malinowski. Then it was developed in the field of sociology by Talcott Parsons, Gabriel Almond and his associates developed it into a tool of political analysis.

Gabriel Almond and J.S, Colman (the politics of developing Areas 1960) identified four characteristics of the political system; a. all political systems have political structures b. the same functions are performed by all political systems with different frequencies and by

different kinds of structures; c. all political structures all multifunctional and d, all political systems are mixed systems in the culture sense i.e, they are based in a culture which is always mixture of the modern and the traditional.

This approach was further developed by Gabriel Almond and G.B Powell in comparative politics a developmental approach 1960. Almond and his associates argued that all political systems, regardless of their type, and must perform a specific set of tasks if they are to remain in existence as systems in working order, or in equilibrium, i.e as on-going systems. These are the functional requirements of the system. With this assumption, they sought to modify David Easton's model of political system, suggesting that inputs and outputs recognized by Easton can be understood as functions or functional requisites of political system. They sought to redefine these inputs and outputs with deeper understanding of political process and proceeded to identify various structures corresponding to these functions, in order to evolve a structural functional framework. They conceded that in various political systems, these functions may be performed by different kinds of political structures and sometimes, even by structures which are not overtly recognized as being, primarily political.

According to Almond and his associates discerned four input functions and three output functions. Input functions are: (1) political socialization and recruitment (2) interest articulation, (3), Interest aggregation and (4), Political communication. Output functions are; (5), rulemaking, (6) rule application and (7), rule adjudication. Of these output functions correspond to conventional governmental functions, which are performed by formal governmental organs viz- a-vie legislature (rulemaking) executive (rule application) and judiciary (rule application). Almond has paid special attention to input functions which are performed by non-governmental structures or institutions. Although all structures are multi-functional, yet some structures are specifically suited for specific functions.

Political socialization is the process where an individual acquires attitudes and orientations towards political phenomena; it also implies the process whereby society transmits political norms and beliefs from one generation to the next. Recruitment stands for the process whereby political groups obtain members for various important roles in the political process, either in addition to the existing members or replacement for other members. Since political socialization prepares the individual to assume various important roles in the social structure, it is instrumental to recruitment also. Family, schools and other primary groups are most suited to perform the function.

Interest articulation implies the process whereby opinions, attitudes, beliefs, preferences etc are converted into coherent demands on the political system. Thesis function may be performed by various structures, but interest groups are most suited to perform this function.

Interest aggregation is the process whereby various divergent interest are collated and transmitted into concrete demands of a very large section of the society (preferably appealing to all sections of society), policy proposals and programs of action etc. Political parties are most suited to perform this function.

Communication Theory

Political communication is the process whereby components of a political system, such as individuals, groups and institutions, transmit and receive information regarding the functioning of the political system. Mass media or the organization controlling the media of mass communication are best suited to perform this function.

Communication theory represents another model of political analysis derived from the concept of political system. Karl Deutsch (the nerves of government: models of political communication and control 1963), is the chief exponent of this approach. Deutsch sought to apply the concepts and methods of modern information technology as well as a physiology of nervous system to an analysis of the political system. He particularly introduced the techniques of cybernetics to the sphere of political analysis. Cybernetics is the study of the operation of control and communication systems; it deals both with biological systems and manmade machinery. Deutsch declared that his work was concerned less with the bones or muscles of the body – politics than with the nerves – its channels of communications and decisions.

Communication theory regards the functions of communication as the centre of all political activity. An analysis of communications flowing from and flowing into political system would, therefore be very helpful in description, classification, analysis and explanation of the important aspects of political life. Deutsch argues that it is profitable to look upon government somewhat less as a problem of power and somewhat more as a problem of steering, i.e., directing the course of its activity which is the main function of communication. He therefore, regards political system as a network of communication channels. It is largely a self – regulating or self-controlling system which evolves its own processes and mechanisms for the acquisition, collection, transition, selection and storage of information.

The problem of communication may be studied in three contexts a communication within the political system, b, and communication between political systems. Its analysis involves the study of several

components , including a. the structures meant for sending and receiving messages; b., the channels use for the purpose of communication (along with their capacities and rates of utilization, expressed in terms of their load and load capacities , rates of flow , amount of lag and gain ie, delay or promptness in responding to the information that is received) c, processes of storage of information, d feedback mechanism e, the codes and languages applied for the purpose of communication, and 1 the content of the messages transmitted etc.

Communication is by no means a smooth process. We must be very careful in detecting distortions. The exponents of communication approach to political science emphasize the importance of distinguishing between what goes out from the source and what is exactly received at the other end. Which shall we examine – what a government agency says it says or what the recipient says he hears? (Contemporary political analysis 1967) if the distortion could be corrected appropriately, lots of problems can be prevented or minimized. As Charlesworth has further observed, In order to correct for distortions we must study the determinants of distortion. Hence, communication is a legitimate methodological segment of political Science. This study is unfortunately not well developed, nor is standardized or unified. If it were, we should have fewer industrial strikes, slum riots, university sit-in, and crackpot picket lines.

In Political Science this approach is particularly useful for an analysis of the processes of bargaining, conflict resolution, decision making, evaluation of polities, estimating the impact of publicity and propaganda as well as understanding the dynamics of international relations. However, this approach is hardly useful in the analysis of power structure of society, ideologies, allocation of resources, or in explaining the phenomena of violence and revolutions etc, communications theory can therefore be commended for application only in a limited sphere of Political Science.

3.6 Summary

Paradigm is a Greek word for pattern, example, models or sample the advanced dictionary defined it as the standard or typical example epitome or a prototype. It is the generally accepted perspective of a particular discipline at a given time. In political science paradigms are models and perspectives use in the explanation of politics and political behavior and how politics work. Paradigms are there to help us understand the situations and circumstances of political life. Paradigms are models, perspectives, or theories like the group theory, the elite theory, the game theory, structural-functional theories amongst many others. Paradigms are important because they define how we perceive

reality. The Group Theory explains that interactions among groups are the central fact of politics. The theory goes on to argue that individuals with common interest band together formally to press their demands upon government in a political system. According to the Game theory a rational man is one who behaves as follows: (1) he can always make a decision when confronted with a range of alternatives (2) he ranks all the alternatives facing him in his order of preferences in such a way that each of is either preferred to , or inferior to each other (3) his preference ranking is transitive (4) he always chooses from among the possible alternatives that which ranks highest in his preference ordering and (5) he always makes the same decision each time he is confronted with the same alternative. On the other hand, systems analysis conceives politics in terms of a political system. On the other hand, Structural-Functional Analysis as a model of political analysis has been more widely used in the sphere of comparative politics because it provides for standard categories of different types of political systems. Political communication is the process whereby components of a political system, such as individuals, groups and institutions, transmit and receive information regarding the functioning of the political system.

3.7 Reading reference

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MODULE 4 POLITICAL PARTIES AND FACTORS THAT SHAPE POLITICAL BEHAVIOR

Unit1 Political parties as Agents of political Socialization

Units Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning outcome
- 4.3 Political parties as Agents of political Socialization
- 4.4 Political Culture and Political Socialization
- 4.5 Agents of political socialization
- 4.6 Difference between Political Culture and Political Socialization
- 4.7 Ethnic and Caste Systems as factors of political party orientation
- 4.8 Summary
- 4.9 Self-assessment questions
- 4.10 Possible answers to self- assessment questions
- 4.11 References/Further Readings

4.1 Introduction

Welcome to module four, in this study you will learn several factors to help to shape individual's political behavior in life which starts from the family to other societal factors. As you already know by now, the module will be divided in units for easy understanding of the units. Please ensure to read between the lines as you study.

4.2 Learning outcome

At the end of the course, you should be able to:

- Explain political socialization
- Narrate the agents of political socialization
- Explain ethnic and caste systems
- Explain the role of mass media and the democratic process

4.3 Main section introduction

Political parties are central to all political activities in any democratic polity. Parties are important agencies which aggregate and articulate group interests within a political system. They control the institutions of governance in the state and ultimately when in government determine the formulation and implementations of public policies (Nnoli, 2003). Also, parties are instruments of collective human actions and creatures of political elite – either politicians trying to control governments or government's elite trying to control the masses. In a more organized and competitive political system parties are structured to affect the attitudes

and behaviour of the population. It is very difficult in any society to think of democracy without functioning politicians, political parties and party systems (Adetula & Adeyi, 2013). It is argued that political parties perform important functions in the helm of democratic states.

4.4 Political parties as Agents of political Socialization

Political behavior is defined as the study of how people think, feel, and act in relation to politics (Settle2014). The study of political behavior includes not only the study of behavior as such but also political opinions, political attitudes, beliefs, and values more broadly, all of which are part of political behavior. The study of actual human behaviors in the political process is an important component of comparative politics. Again, voting behavior, political participation and leadership recruitment all form an integral part of comparative politics. Political culture and public opinion are linked but are not the same—political culture focuses on long-standing values, attitudes, and ideas that people learn deeply. Public opinion concerns people's reaction to specific and immediate politics and problems, e.g., sending troops to ECOMOG, a woman's opinion of her neighbor's religion, for example, would not be considered public opinion, but rather her feelings about prayer. In political science, public opinion refers to political and social issues, not private matters. What factors influence the attitudes of individuals and, consequently, the people that cumulate in the people's political culture?

On the other hand, political socialization is the process by which political culture is passed down from generation to generation (Smita 2012). Merriam-Webster defines socialization as "the process of learning to behave in a way that is acceptable to society. In the life of a Homo sapiens, socialization begins in the pre-school years. Socialization is also the process that begins during childhood by which individuals acquire the values, habits, ideologies, and attitudes of a society that they internalize and exhibit as they interact with their environment. Socialization encompasses both learning and teaching and is thus "the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained" (Cromdal, 2006). To the MLA, socialization is strongly connected to developmental psychology, which believes that humans need social experiences to learn about their culture and survive (Billingham, 2007). Socialization essentially represents the whole process of learning throughout the life course and is a central influence on the behavior, beliefs, and actions of adults as well as of children. The MLA requires social experience is learned through socialization.

Although some are formally taught, most are absorbed by imitating others. In the same way, political socialization teaches political values and specific usages. Learning to pledge allegiance to the flag, to sing the

national anthem, and to obey authority figures, from the president to police officers, is imparted by families, friends, school teachers, and television. Children raised in cultural ghettos, such as minorities in America's inner cities, pick up their subculture, which is sometimes at odds with mainstream culture. This is why political socialization is very crucial to a stable government.

4.5 Political Culture and Political Socialization

Political socialization has two distinguishing levels; these are primary and secondary. Primary socialization takes place through relationships with others, this is usually mostly informal relationships like peer groups, family members, social groups, etc. This form of influence is most often subliminal; the persons are usually unaware that they are being conditioned to think a certain way about their political system, situation and or standing. Individuals develop a basic attitude toward authority and power through this form of socialization and as a result this is what is emanated further in their political views and attitude towards politics.

The secondary level of political socialization is more formal in nature and is found mostly in the wider social network. These range from schools, churches, media, political parties, social groups, etc. The way in which a person reacts to and interacts with their political system is heavily influenced by what they hear and observe from others within their society. For example, depending on the religious beliefs of an individual their political views will be affected as such, depending on the influence of their instructors in school they will be affected, the influence of the media is a major factor in the ways an individual views the social system he operates in and so is the case for social groups and the policies and views pushed forth by political parties.

Another major factor in political socialization is social status/standing; this has a major influence on the way in which a person would choose to deal with social issues, and the way in which they would try to influence policy. Demographics also play an important part in the way people respond to politics as their different situations affect differently by their political system. By looking at both these concepts we can see how they are directly intertwined and co-dependent on each other. Without political culture there would be no political socialization and without political socialization there would be no political culture. They work hand-in-hand to develop a political system in which everyone accepts the basic underworking of the way in which the political machine runs.

4.6 Agents of Socialization

Political Socialization forms political culture and political culture influences political socialization. Political socialization is part of the continuous process of social order which is responsible for teaching certain political behaviours to the new members of a society in order to make them think in keeping with the changing political system they are living in (Almond & Verba, 1963). It appears that every society may succeed in maintaining its political culture through the process of political socialization; because by accessing cultural transfer channels of the society, the means to improving those set of values that contribute to the political stability and solidity of a society may be achieved by the society (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

Those groups and institutions which contribute to the process of political socialization are known as the agents of socialization. These sources affect the development of political values and attitudes differently, but they all contribute to the individual's understanding of and orientations toward politics. The primary agents of socialization are those that directly develop specific political orientations such as the family. Whereas, the secondary agents of socialization tend to be less personal and involved in the process of socialization in a more indirect manner such as the media (Wake Forest University, 2006).

Parents are the first models for a child whose manner of treating others, conduct, culture, politics, norms and values are all formed in family environment. If a family fails to play its role in this respect, socialization will be impaired right from the start. To sum, one of the most important and effective factors influencing political culture is socializing different political subjects in families.

Family, what children encounter earliest – the family usually outweighs all other factors. Attempts at overt socialization by government and schools generally fail if their values are at odds with family orientations. Communist countries such as Poland had this problem: the regime tried to inculcate socialist values in a child, but the family taught the child to ignore these messages. The family and the government values are generally congruent, as, in the United States, the two modes of socialization reinforce each other. Parents influence our political behavior for decades. Most people vote as their parents did. More basically the family forms the psychological make-up of individuals, which in turn determines many of their political attitudes. It impacts a set of norms and values', including the political aspect and transmits beliefs and attitudes such as party loyalty, trust and cynicism about government. Conditioning and training in the early years have the strongest effect especially from ages 3-thirteen. Children accept many

parental norms, values, and attitudes unconsciously and uncritically and retain them all their lives people often give back to the world as adults what they got from it as children.

Most of the political socialization that takes place in the family is informal, as when the father lays down the law and refuses to hear any argument or when a mother complains about the burdens of housework, unknowingly they are shaping the political behavior of the future of the next generation.

The School

More deliberate socialization occurs in schools. Most governments use schools to reach their citizens to show that they are a national community. Many African nations try to unify their tribes, usually with different languages and histories, by teaching in English or French about a mystical past when they were great and United Nations. In Nigeria, national values are taught through civic education and social studies or national values. The amount of schooling a person receives also affects their political attitudes. People with many years of education show a stronger sense of responsibility to their community and feel more able to influence public opinion than do less educated citizens. They are more participatory. University students are more tolerant and open-minded, especially on questions of race, than secondary school dropouts, who are often parochial in outlook. This is because education impacts more open-minded attitudes and because educated people generally enjoy higher income status, which by themselves encourages interest and participation.

Peer group

Friends and playmates also form political values. For example, children who went to school with children of higher social classes tend to take on the political attitudes of those classes, but when they attend schools with working-class peers, their attitudes do not change. With both parents working, children may be socialized more by parents than by families.

Self-assessment exercise SAE 4.1.

Name three agents of political socialization?

Possible answers to Self-assessment question 4.1.

The three agents of political socialization are as follows:

Family, school, and peer group

Economic and social conditions

Economic and social conditions influence political behavior. For example, in India, the most important factor lies in India's poverty. It is so widespread and has proved so difficult to reduce. Like most

countries, India suffered centuries of occupation and colonization, first under the Mughals and later the British. India's experience with imperialism was typical in many ways. Foreigners made all the decisions that mattered, which, among other things, served to destroy much of the economic base. The British never directly ruled the entire country. They allowed a massive independence movement to develop following the creation of the Indian National Congress in 1885. As a result, the Indian regime that gained its independence in 1947, had widespread popular support and experienced leaders headed by the first Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru, gave the country a generation of stability that deepened popular support for democracy and that has helped the country to survive more serious conflict since the 1990s.

India also has three dominant religious groups. Hindus make up slightly more than 80% of the population, but the proportion varies by major region. Different linguistic groups practice a different version of the religion. About 10% are Muslims, but they represent the full range of beliefs, from fundamentalists to highly assimilated and secularized people who have, for all intents and purposes, stopped practicing their religion. Most of the rest are Sikhs. This religion has at its roots an attempt to blend Hindu and Muslim traditions, emphasizing peace and otherworldliness. But today, Sikhs are now known for their ferocious fighting ability and their dissatisfaction with their status in Punjab.

4.7 Differences between political culture and political socialization

There are some striking differences between political culture and political socialization. To enrich the understanding of knowledge of political culture and political socialization, it is therefore pertinent to discuss some of these differences. It is a widely known and accepted fact that man is a social creature and his identity and culture are formed in the society from which he develops and almost all of his activities and functions are directed through the society; there are few human activities which are not affected by community.

Following Munroe, (1985) the term Political Culture means the attitudes, feelings, ideas, and values that people have about politics, government, and their own role, and more generally about authority in all its various forms. Political culture has further been referred to as the beliefs, habits, behavioural patterns, values and overall distinguishing attributes that make up and characterize a political community. A political culture is the way in which the individuals within the social setting view their political system, the way in which they perceive it to function and the level of acceptance that pervades as a result (Munroe, 1985).

The political culture of a people is more than just their collective opinions, it is the way in which they choose to live as a result of their political beliefs, and it is the measure of what they are willing to accept, it guides their general thinking of a people (politically) and is somewhat steady in nature; i.e. the beliefs of the parents would more than likely be passed on to their offspring. Again, it is worthy of note that culture may be the same within a society this does not in any way mean that the people would agree on the same issues or that what may be important to one individual would be important to another, it simply means that the way in which they choose to approach and deal with these issues would be in essence quite similar. Political culture usually means that they people have basically the same level of awareness of their rights, obligations and expectations as citizens. You must also understand that Political culture varies from one country to another simply because the beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values of people vary. For example; the political culture of Grenada would be different from that of America or Japan for instance, just as it would vary between those two. One cannot understand the politics of a country without first looking at its political culture (Munroe, 1985).

Political Socialization on the other hand is termed as the process whereby society develops attitudes and feelings towards politics in each of its members (Munroe, 1985). This basically means that political socialization is the process by which political culture is developed and maintained. It is what is taught to the people through their interactions with one another, through the media and through observation. Whereas Political culture deals with the collective, political socialization deals with the individual, it focusses on the upbringing of and interactions of the individual that result in the adherence to and acceptance of the political culture.

4.8 Ethnic and Caste Systems as factors of political party orientation

Ethnic and Caste systems on political socialization

Ethnicity which is believed to be related to the region sometimes plays a distinct role of its own, especially in multi-ethnic states like Nigeria, India, and the United States, where some ethnic groups form political subcultures. America has long been touted as being the melting pot of immigrant groups, but ethnic consciousness lasts many generations. American politics is often defined in ethnic terms.

Caste system:

Historians traced the caste system back nearly four thousand years, when, in all likelihood, the light-skinned Aryans established it to

minimize “ with the darker-skinned Dravidians. There are four main castes. The Brahmins, historically, were the priests and the most prestigious caste. The Kshatriyas were rulers and soldiers, and the Vaisyas were merchants. These three upper castes were often referred to as twice-born, reflecting the belief that they were further along in the Hindu cycle of death and reincarnation. The lowest-caste Sudras traditionally were farmers but did respectable enough work to warrant their inclusion in the caste system.

The untouchables, or Dalits, are outside the caste system altogether because their ancestors were sullied by their occupations as scavengers and collectors of night soil. About 8 percent of the population are tribals "who do not use the caste system." About the same number are part of even smaller ethnic groups that were never a part of this unusual system. Each caste is in turn broken down into hundreds of sub-castes known as jatis. The caste and jati have elaborate rules for most social situations, including such things as what to wear and what to eat. Until recently, people rarely broke out of their caste's restrictions. The constitution officially abolishes the status of outcaste and outlaws discrimination against untouchables and tribes. In practice, caste remains a volatile political issue. Discrimination against those at the bottom of the hierarchy is still as pervasive as racism is in the United States or Western Europe.

Mass Media and the Democratic Process

The social media is a means of interaction amongst various people of the world in which, they create, share and exchange information and ideas through an electronic mediums or hand held devices powered by the internet etc. This could not have been possible without the development in the means of communication. This development was facilitated by the breakthrough in rocket and space-craft technology. Rockets are launched into space for varying reasons including communication, etc. This means that, the Twenty First (21st).

Social media depends on mobile and web based technologies to create highly interactive platforms through which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss and modify user generated content. Social media has brought about changes in communication between organizations, communities and individuals according to Egbecho (2014). In social media everybody that has access to android, iOS, apple phones amongst other devices could become a content creators. With the aid of the social media citizens advertise themselves and disseminate information in the internet. Social media has brought with it good and bad as political information is easily disseminated like a wide fire in a speed of light through the social media.

It is the most possible way that citizens air their opinion without fear of the authority or public officials. This is as a result of the fact that 80% of individual's personal information on social networks is bogus. Individuals air their views candidly having it in mind that they can't be spotted. This is exactly where the social media strengthens democracy and freedom of speech especially in a country like Nigeria where democracy has been swept under the carpet. Many broadcast station has their own social media pages today in order to keep being in watch of what citizens will say concerning the daily conflicts that occur in their various societies and in the same vein express the decisions of the government which makes it a two way media just in one interactive platform. The social media has become so outstanding as a place where people appear more light- hearted and settle the slightest conflict with their opponents as fast as possible. Conclusion The social media plays an important role today in the world in diverse areas especially in the area of transmitting information to people. There are many twitter handles that we can send and receive information to the world. As a result, the use of social media should be encouraged in settling conflicts. It is not expensive and, therefore, can easily be used to settle disputes when face to face issues are not involved. It is in this area that social media can go a long way in settlement of disputes. With citizen's interactions in the social media people form their political opinions and also form alliances and affiliations.

4.9 Summary

There are many factors that affect individual's and group political behavior. Some of these factors include Political socialization, Agent of Socialization Economic and Social Conditions, Ethnic and Caste System Caste system: Language, Historical development amongst others. The above stated factors influence the political orientation of individuals and therefore forms the collective political culture of the state. Political socialization is the process where an individual acquires attitudes and orientations towards political phenomena, it also implies the process whereby society transmits political norms and beliefs from one generation to the next. Recruitment stands for the process whereby political groups obtain members for various important roles in the political process, either in addition to the existing members or replacement for other members. Since political socialization prepares the individual to assume various important roles in the social structure, it is instrumental to recruitment also. Family, schools, and other primary groups are most suited to perform the function. Interest articulation implies the process whereby opinions, attitudes, beliefs, preferences, etc are converted into coherent demands on the political system. These functions may be performed by various structures, but interest groups are most suited to perform this function. Interest aggregation is the

process whereby various divergent interests are collated and transmitted into concrete demands of a very large section of the society (preferably appealing to all sections of society), policy proposals and programs of action etc. Political parties are most suited to perform this function.

Self-assessment questions

SAQ 4.1: Give a definition of political socialization

SAQ4.2: Mention and explain three agents of political socialization that you know?

SAQ4.3: List these fundamental divisions' differences between men and women

4.10 Possible answers to self-assessment question

Give a definition of political socialization? Political behavior is defined as the study of how people think, feel, and act in relation to politics (Settle2014). The study of political behavior includes not only the study of behavior as such but also political opinions, political attitudes, beliefs, and values more broadly, all of which are part of political behavior. The study of actual human behaviors in the political process is an important component of comparative politics. Voting behavior political participation, leadership recruitment, forms an integral part of comparative politics. Political culture and public opinion are linked but are not the same—political culture focuses on long-standing values, attitudes, and ideas that people learn deeply.

Mention and explain three agents of political socialization that you know? The three agents of political socialization are as follows:

Family, school, and peer group.

Family: what children encounter earliest – the family usually outweighs all other factors. Attempts at overt socialization by government and schools generally fail if their values are at odds with family orientations. Communist countries such as Poland had this problem: the regime tried to inculcate socialist values in a child, but the family taught the child to ignore these messages. The family and the government values are generally congruent, as, in the United States, the two modes of socialization reinforce each other. Parents influence our political behavior for decades. Most people vote as their parents did. More basically the family forms the psychological make-up of individuals, which in turn determines many of their political attitudes. It impacts a set of norms and values including the political aspect and transmits beliefs and attitudes such as party loyalty, trust and cynicism about government. Conditioning and training in the early years have the strongest effect especially from ages 3-thirteen. Children accept many parental norms, values, and attitudes unconsciously and uncritically and retain them all their lives people often give back to the world as adults

what they got from it as children. Most of the political socialization that takes place in the family is informal, as when the father lays down the law and refuses to hear any argument or when a mother complains about the burdens of housework, unknowingly they are shaping the political behavior of the future of the next generation.

The School

More deliberate socialization occurs in schools. Most governments use schools to reach their citizens to show that they are a national community. Many African nations try to unify their tribes, usually with different languages and histories, by teaching in English or French about a mystical past when they were great and United Nations. In Nigeria, national values are taught through civic education and social studies or national values. The amount of schooling a person receives also affects their political attitudes. People with many years of education show a stronger sense of responsibility to their community and feel more able to influence public opinion than do less educated citizens. They are more participatory. University students are more tolerant and open-minded, especially on questions of race, than secondary school dropouts, who are often parochial in outlook. This is because education impacts more open-minded attitudes and because educated people generally enjoy higher income status, which by themselves encourages interest and participation.

Peer group

Friends and playmates also form political values. For example, children who went to school with children of higher social classes tend to take on the political attitudes of those classes, but when they attend schools with working-class peers, their attitudes do not change. With both parents working, children may be socialized more by parents than by families.

List these fundamental divisions' differences between men and women?
Biological differences between men and women many include the followings:

1. Physical strength in warfare: those that are of this school of thought believe that men show their greater and women are constrained by nature to perform an elaborate role in the productive function.
2. Sexuality: apart from biological differences. physical strength some scholars see sexuality as an instrument of control of woman by men while others focus on
3. While many others focus on male violence as the bases of this control.

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MODULE 5 ELECTORAL SYSTEMS AND ELECTION OF RULERS

Unit 1	The electoral process
Unit 2	FPTP electoral system.
Unit 3	Nature of Political Parties and their Functions
Unit 4	Political Institutions and Separation of Powers

Units Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning outcome
- 5.3 The electoral process
- 5.4 Nature of Political Parties and their Functions
- 5.5 Political Institutions and Separation of Powers
- 5.6 Political Institutions and Separation of Powers
- 5.7 Summary
- 5.8 Self-assessment questions
- 5.9 Possible answers to self- assessment questions
- 5.10 References/Further Reading

5.1 Introduction

Hello, and welcome to yet another comparative politics topic titled "Electoral Process." Hello, welcome to lecture thirteen, *Political Institutions and Separation of Powers Political Institutions, Separation of Powers and "Political parties and interest groups"*. In this lecture, we will discuss political parties and interest groups. We will also discuss the differences between the two terms. As is the case with the other topics, the lecture will be divided into three sessions. Session one will discuss political parties; session two will take on the difference between interest groups and political parties; and the third session will cover the major political institutions, the location and exercise of power. We are discussing this topic because of its relevance in our course of study of political behaviour. The topics are subdivided for easy assimilation. Let's start with the content where some clarifications are made about the electoral process.

5.2 Learning outcome

At the end of the section you should be able to:

- Give a vivid explanation of electoral process
- Demonstrate understanding of FPTP electoral system.
- Explain the Nature of Political Parties and their Functions
- Narrate Political Institutions and Separation of Powers

5.3 Main section Introduction

Leadership literature reveals that theories have been refined and modified with passage of time and none of the theory is completely irrelevant. As mentioned earlier, relevance depends on the context in that it is applied. The type of leadership applied in functions entailing very high degree of precision, confidence level, sensitivity, care and technical expertise may be different than in simple management-oriented portfolios, as one that does not fit all heads (Dess, & Picken, 2000). It means that situations, contexts, culture, working environment, new laws and regulations, information overload, organizational complexities and psycho-socio developments remarkably impact the leadership concept thereby, making it commensurate to the changing organizational dynamics (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta & Kramer, 2004). The great men became irrelevant and consequently growth of the organizations. “The passing years have given the coup de grace to another force the great man who with brilliance and farsightedness could preside with dictatorial powers as the head of a growing organization but in the process retarded democratization”. It was also determined that, “a person does not become a leader merely by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits” (Samad, 2012). On the amount of direction and guidance, the dynamic among these factors was established; socio-emotional support and task behavior, in performing a task the readiness level (commitment and competence) of the followers and relationship behavior required by the followers functions and objective (Ryan & Tipu, 2013). Without involving subordinates, the autocratic leader makes decisions, laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and hence takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position and the democratic leader accesses his subordinates then takes his decision.

5.4 Selected Leadership Theories

Great-Man Theory The effort toward explorations for common traits of leadership is protracted over centuries as most cultures need heroes to define their successes and to justify their failures. In 1847, Thomas Carlyle stated in the best interests of the heroes that “universal history, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at the bottom of the history of the great men who have worked here”. Carlyle claimed in his “great man theory” that leaders are born and that only those men who are endowed with heroic potentials could ever become the leaders. He opined that great men were born, not made. An American philosopher, Sidney Hook, further expanded Carlyle perspective highlighting the impact which could be made by the eventful man vs. the event-making man (Dobbins & Platz, (1986). He proposed that the eventful man remained complex in a historic situation, but did not really

determine its course. On the other hand, he maintained that the actions of the event-making man influenced the course of events, which could have been much different, had he not been involved in the process. The event making man's role based on "the consequences of outstanding capacities of intelligence, will and character rather than the actions of distinction". However, subsequent events unfolded that this concept of leadership was morally flawed, as was the case with Hitler, Napoleon, and the like, thereby challenging the credibility of the Great Man theory. These great men became irrelevant and consequently growth of the organizations, stifled (MacGregor, 2003). "

The passing years have given the coup de grace to another force the great man who with brilliance and farsightedness could preside with dictatorial powers as the head of a growing organization but in the process retarded democratization". Leadership theory then progressed from dogma that leaders are born or are destined by nature to be in their role at a particular time to a reflection of certain traits that envisage a potential for leadership. The early theorists opined that born leaders were endowed with certain physical traits and personality characteristics which distinguished them from non-leaders. Trait theories ignored the assumptions about whether leadership traits were genetic or acquired. Jenkins identified two traits; emergent traits (those which are heavily dependent upon heredity) as height, intelligence, attractiveness, and self-confidence and effectiveness traits (based on experience or learning), including charisma, as fundamental component of leadership (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). Max Weber termed charisma as "the greatest revolutionary force, capable of producing a completely new orientation through followers and complete personal devotion to leaders they perceived as endowed with almost magical supernatural, superhuman qualities and powers". This initial focus on intellectual, physical and personality traits that distinguished non-leaders from leaders portended a research that maintained that only minor variances exist between followers and leaders (Burns, 2003). The failure in detecting the traits which every single effective leader had in common, resulted in development of trait theory, as an inaccessible component, falling into disfavor. In the late 1940s, scholars studied the traits of military and non-military leaders respectively and exposed the significance of certain traits developing at certain times.

Contingency leadership (Situational) model

Contingency Theories (Situational) The theories of contingency recommends that no leadership style is precise as a stand-alone as the leadership style used is reliant upon the factors such as the quality, situation of the followers or a number of other variables. "According to this theory, there is no single right way to lead because the internal and external dimensions of the environment require the leader to adapt to

that particular situation". In most cases, leaders do not change only the dynamics and environment, employees within the organization change. In a common sense, the theories of contingency are a category of behavioral theory that challenges that there is no one finest way of leading/organizing and that the style of leadership that is operative in some circumstances may not be effective in others (Greenleaf, 1977). Contingency theorists assumed that the leader was the focus of leader-subordinate relationship; situational theorists opined that the subordinates played a pivotal role in defining the relationship. Though, the situational leadership stays to emphasis mostly upon the leader, it creates the significance of the focus into group dynamic. "These studies of the relationships between groups and their leaders have led to some of our modern theories of group dynamics and leadership". The theory of situational leadership proposes that style of leadership should be accorded with the maturity of the subordinates (Bass, 1997). "The situational leadership model, first introduced in 1969, theorized that there was no unsurpassed way to lead and those leaders, to be effective, must be able to adapt to the situation and transform their leadership style between task-oriented and relationship oriented".

Style and Behavior Theory

The style theory acknowledges the significance of certain necessary leadership skills that serve as enabler for a leader who performs an act while drawing its parallel with previous capacity of the leader, prior to that particular act while suggesting that each individual has a distinct style of leadership with which he/she feels most contented. Like one that does not fit all heads, similarly one style cannot be effective in all situations. Yukl (1989) introduced three different leadership styles. The employees serving with democratic leaders displayed high degree of satisfaction, creativity, and motivation; working with great enthusiasm and energy irrespective of the presence or absence of the leader; maintaining better connections with the leader, in terms of productivity whereas, autocratic leaders mainly focused on greater quantity of output. Laissez faire leadership was only considered relevant while leading a team of highly skilled and motivated people who excellent track-record, in the past. Feidler & House (1994) identified two additional leadership styles focusing effectiveness of the leadership. These researchers opined that consideration (concern for people and relationship behaviors) and commencing structure (concern for production and task behaviors) were very vital variables. The consideration is referred to the amount of confidence and rapport, a leader engenders in his subordinates. Whereas, initiating structure, on the other hand, reflects the extent, to which the leader structures, directs and defines his/her own and the subordinates' roles as they have the participatory role toward organizational performance, profit and accomplishment of the mission. Different researchers proposed that three types of leaders, they were; autocratic,

democratic and laissez-faire. Without involving subordinates, the autocratic leader makes decisions, laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and hence takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position and the democratic leader accesses his subordinates then takes his decision. “He further assumed that all leaders could fit into one of these three categories”. E. Process Leadership Theory Additional leadership theories with a process focus include servant leadership, learning organizations, principal centered leadership and charismatic leadership, with others emerging every year. Greenleaf introduced servant leadership in the early 1970s. A resurgence of the discussion of servant leadership was noted in the early 1990s. Journal of Resources Development and Management www.iiste.org ISSN 2422-8397 An International Peer-reviewed Journal Vol.16, 2016 3 Servant leaders were encouraged to be focused to the anxieties of the followers and the leader should sympathize with them take-care of and nurture them. The leadership was imparted on a person who was by nature a servant.

The servant leader

This type of leadership focuses on the needs of the follower and helps them to become more autonomous freer and knowledgeable”. The servant leader is also more concerned with the “have-nots” and recognizes them as equal (Greenleaf, 1996). The leaders in leading organizations are to be the steward (servant) of the vision of the organization and not a servant of the people within the organization. Leaders in learning organizations clarify and nurture the vision and consider it to be greater than one-self. The leader aligns themselves or their vision with others in the organization or community at large. These process leadership theories and others that have emerged often suggest that the work of leaders is to contribute to the well-being of others with a focus on some form of social responsibility. There appears to be a clear evolution in the study of leadership. Leadership theory has moved from birth traits and rights, to acquired traits and styles, to situational and relationship types of leadership, to the function of groups and group processes and, currently, to the interaction of the group members with an emphasis on personal and organizational function of groups and group processes and, currently, to the interaction of the group members with an emphasis on personal and organizational moral improvements (Yammarino, 1999).

Transactional Theory

The leadership theories, by the late 1970s and early 1980s, activated to diverge from the specific perspectives of the leader, leadership context and the follower and toward practices that concentrated further on the exchanges between the followers and leaders. The transactional leadership was described as that in which leader-follower associations

were grounded upon a series of agreements between followers and leaders (House & Shamir, 1993). The transactional theory was “based on reciprocity where leaders not only influence followers but are under their influence as well”. Some studies revealed that transactional leadership show a discrepancy with regard to the level of leaders’ action and the nature of the relations with the followers. Bass and Avolio (1994) observed transactional leadership “as a type of contingent-reward leadership that had active and positive exchange between leaders and followers whereby followers were rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed upon objectives”. From the leader, these rewards might implicate gratitude for merit increases, bonuses and work achievement. For good work, positive support could be exchanged, merit pay for promotions, increased performance and cooperation for collegiality. The leaders could instead focus on errors, avoid responses and delay decisions. This attitude is stated as the “management-by-exception” and could be categorized as passive or active transactions. The difference between these two types of transactions is predicated on the timing of the leaders’ involvement. In the active form, the leader continuously monitors performance and attempts to intervene proactively (Avolio & Bass, 1997).

Transformational Theory:

Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from the rest of the previous and contemporary theories, on the basis of its alignment to a greater good as it entails involvement of the followers in processes or activities related to personal factor towards the organization and a course that will yield certain superior social dividend. The transformational leaders raise the motivation and morality of both the follower and the leader (House & Shamir, 1993). It is considered that the transformational leaders “engage in interactions with followers based on common values, beliefs and goals”. This impacts the performance leading to the attainment of goal. As per Bass, transformational leader, “attempts to induce followers to reorder their needs by transcending self-interests and strive for higher order needs”. This theory conform the Maslow (1954) higher order needs theory. Transformational leadership is a course that changes and approach targets on beliefs, values and attitudes that enlighten leaders’ practices and the capacity to lead change. The literature suggests that followers and leaders set aside personal interests for the benefit of the group. The leader is then asked to focus on followers’ needs and input in order to transform everyone into a leader by empowering and motivating them (House & Aditya, 1997). Emphasis from the previously defined leadership theories, the ethical extents of leadership further differentiates the transformational leadership. The transformational leaders are considered by their capability to identify the need for change, gain the agreement and commitment of others, create a vision that guides change

and embed the change (MacGregor Burns, 2003). These types of leaders treat subordinates individually and pursue to develop their consciousness, morals and skills by providing significance to their work and challenge. These leaders produce an appearance of convincing and encouraged vision of the future. They are “visionary leaders who seek to appeal to their followers” better nature and move them toward higher and more universal needs and purposes” (MacGregor Burns, 2003). Transactional Leadership Style Transactional leadership style comprises three components; contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). A transactional leader follows the scheme of contingent rewards to explain performance expectation to the followers and appreciates good performance.

Leaders believe in contractual agreements as principal motivators (Bass, 1985) and use extrinsic rewards toward enhancing followers' motivation. The literature revealed that the “transactional style retards creativity and can adversely influence employees job satisfaction. Management-by-exception explains leaders' behavior with regards apt detection of deviations from expected followers' behavior. The application of both styles varies from situation to situation and context to context. The situations entailing high degree of precision, technical expertise, time-constraints, particularly in technological intensive environment, we shall prefer transactional leadership whereas, in human-intensive environment, where focus is on influencing the followers through motivation and respecting their emotions on the basis of common goals, beliefs and values, preferable option is transformational leadership style (MacGregor Burns, 2003). I. Contingent Reward. Contingent reward leadership focuses on achieving results. As humans appreciate concrete, tangible, material rewards in exchange of their efforts, thus, this behavior surfaced. “Where transformational leadership acknowledges individual talents and builds enthusiasm through emotional appeals, values, and belief systems, transactional leadership engenders compliance by appealing to the wants and needs of individuals” (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Manager leaders who use contingent reward are expected to show direction to the employees so the job gets done. In nutshell, key indicators of contingent reward encompass performancebased material rewards, direction- setting, reciprocity, and confidence-building in the team. II. Management by Exception (Active). Management by exception (active) is not the relinquishment of leadership, characterized by a laissez-faire leadership. Leaders who follow management by exception (active) have an inherent trust in their workers to end the job to a satisfactory standard, and avoid rocking the boat. “This type of leadership does not inspire workers to achieve beyond expected outcomes, however, if target is achieved, that means the system has worked, everyone is satisfied, and the business continues as usual,” (Bass & Avolio, 2004). There is a little sense of adventure or risk-

taking, new perspectives, or white water strategies in case of management by exception leaders. It correspond need-driven change culture. To sum it up, management by exception (active) includes trust in workers, poor communication, maintenance of the status quo, and lack of confidence. III. Management by Exception (Passive). “It is the style of transactional Leadership in which the leaders avoid specifying agreement, and fail to provide goals and standards to be achieved by staff. Sometimes, a leader waits for things to go wrong before taking action” (Bass & Avolio, 2004). B. Transformational Leadership Style Transformational leadership links with positive outcomes on individual as well as organizational levels. Transformational leaders emboldens followers to attain higher-order needs like self-actualization, self-esteem (Bass, 1985), and are influential in surging followers' motivation in the direction of “self-sacrifice and achievement of organizational goals over personal interests (Bass, 1995). Leaders with Idealized Influence demonstrate heightened concerns and cognizance of followers' needs and generate a sense of shared risk-taking” (Jung et al., 2008). Inspirational Motivation affords a cradle of encouragement and challenges followers to achieve the set goals, whereas, Intellectual Stimulation inspires followers to be more creative and innovative in their problem-solving skills. Transformational leaders grade their relationships with followers very high in priority and demonstrate individualized consideration in meeting their needs for empowerment, achievement, enhanced self-efficacy and personal growth. Leadership styles, however, do not embrace all of the factors that influence innovation. As per Cummings, Midodzi, Wong, and Estabrooks (2010), “leadership style alone could not be linked to patient mortality”. Instead, the researchers examined that when the organization had associated and consistent organizational culture, patient mortality was on downward trajectory. Cummings et al., (2010) observed that regardless of style, “leaders who practiced relational and transformational styles had better quality outcomes than those who demonstrated autocracy”. I. Idealized Influence. It is the attribute of a leader which inspires followers to take their leader as a role model. Charisma is an alternate term which replaces idealized influence. Idealized influence creates values that inspire, establish sense, and engender a sense of purpose amongst people. Idealized influence is inspirational in nature. It builds attitudes about what is significant in life. Idealized influence is related with charismatic leadership (Yukl, 1999; Shamir et al., 1993). Charismatic leaders instill self-confidence onto others. It is their demonstration of confidence in a follower's preparedness to make self-sacrifices and an aptitude to undertake exceptional goals which is an influential rousing force of idealized influence and role-modeling behavior (House and Shamir, 1993). Leaders with confidence in their employees can secure great accomplishments. Leaders with idealized influence are endowed with a constructive sense of self-determination. Shamir (1993) showed

that maintaining self-esteem is a powerful and pervasive social need. These leaders are high in the conviction, transform their followers through regular communication, presenting themselves as role model, and encouraging them toward “achieving the mission and goals of the company”. They have requisite degree of emotional stability and control.

These leaders go beyond inner conflicts and direct their capacities to be masters of their own fate”. As per Jhon Marshall (CEO, Solaris Power), Journal of Resources Development and Management www.iiste.org ISSN 2422-8397 An International Peer-reviewed Journal Vol.16, 2016 5 transformational leaders role of mentoring followers and learning about key responsibilities of leaders in the context of idealized behavior. Such leaders are learning leaders. In short, fundamental pointers of idealized influence are role-modeling, articulation and values-creation, providing sense of purpose, meaning, self-esteem, self-determination, emotional control and confidence in followers. II. Inspirational Motivation. Developing the consciousness of followers, aligning them towards the organizational mission and vision, and motivating others in understanding and pledging to the vision is a key dimension of the transformational leadership style of inspirational motivation. “Inspirational motivation targets at the principle of organizational existence, instead of personality of the leader” (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Instead of suffocating employees, a leader with this style, encourages the employees in the organizational pursuit drawing best out of them. The prevention of “experimentation and hampering creativity only frustrate employees who want to positively and productively contribute to the organization”. Leaders equipped with this style encourage the employees rendering them more autonomy to make decisions without supervision and providing them the tools to make these decisions. The leaders using this behavior set high standard for followers besides communicating their vision in unambiguous ways, and encouraging them to develop beyond the normal situations for their own and organizational growth (House and Shamir, 1993). The successful executives are always active with their people by inspiring, rewarding and correcting them and by replacing them, if they fail, thereby, creating opportunities for others. In short, leaders with inspirational motivation behavior create vision, establish communication and manage challenging workers by encouraging, working with them and giving them autonomy. III. Intellectual Stimulation. Leaders with characteristics of intellectual stimulation are those who “intellectually stimulate followers, engender creativity and accept challenges as part of their job”. They maintain their emotional balance, and rationally deal with complex problems. They cultivate the similar skills in their workers as well. They develop problem solving techniques in the followers for making complex decisions, reflecting a mutual consensus between

leaders and employees. “The intellectual stimulation leadership approach projects in large measure the mentoring, coaching, morale-building strengths of individualized consideration”. Both leadership approaches build organizational skills as well as character, similar to caring leadership behaviors that coach and challenge (House and Shamir, 1993). “In other words, leaders with this leadership approach require first to unravel the complexities of the challenge, develop sense of direction towards what it means for them and their workers prior to promoting worker involvement in the challenge”. There are different levels of intellects and encouragement to work actively. It is an ability to intellectually stimulate the workers and a propensity to get involved actively in the work. “In nutshell, the key indicators of the intellectual stimulation are rationality, creativity, consensus decision-making, coaching, supporting, challenging, and involvement”. Individualized Consideration. Individualized consideration is concerned with the basic transformational leadership behaviors of regarding individuals as fundamental contributors to the work place. Such leaders display concern for their workers’ needs, and are equipped to boost and coach the development of desired workplace behavior. Their role alternates from participatory to autocratic style. In short, “fundamental elements of individualized consideration consist of reassurance, caring for and coaching of individuals and an open and consultative approach”.

have given the coup de grace to another force the great man who with brilliance and farsightedness could preside with dictatorial powers as the head of a growing organization but in the process retarded democratization” (MacGregor, 2003). Leadership theory then progressed from dogma that leaders are born or are destined by nature to be in their role at a particular time to a reflection of certain traits that envisage a potential for leadership. They determined that out of several traits, the situation determines prevalence of one trait on another. It was concluded that the most significant trait to retain was that most relevant to the task at hand. It was also determined that, “a person does not become a leader merely by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits”. Research established that no traits were generally related with active leaders and that situational dynamics were of important impression (House and Shamir, 1993). Northouse further reflects, “Traits are a sine qua non for successful leadership. If a leader has the essential traits, he must take certain actions to be successful, such as articulating vision, role modeling, and setting goals”. They proposed that the maturity of the individual or group would control the most operational style of leadership. They established the four styles of leadership of participating, delegating, selling and telling and supported the significance of matching those styles with the maturity level of the subordinates and the existing task. Furthermore, the leader was inquired to reflect the subordinates’ job maturity and psychological maturity

when determining the leadership approach. The theory of situational leadership bound the leader to discourse the situations diagnostically to define what the needs of the subordinates were and what the leader needed to bring to the situation. Bass & Avolio (2004) proposed that three types of leaders, they were; autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Without involving subordinates, the autocratic leader makes decisions, laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and hence takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position and the democratic leader accesses his subordinates then takes his decision. "He further assumed that all leaders could fit into one of these three categories". Offering a definition of leadership appears to challenge even the most scholarly thinkers. Perhaps DuPree (1989) said it best when he said, "Leadership is an art, something to be teamed overtime, not simply by reading books. Leadership is more tribal than scientific; more weaving of relationships than an amassing of information, and, in that sense, don't know how to pin it down in every detail". Typically the more active "management-by-exception" leader defines the expectations or standards in advance and monitors them accordingly. "Rewards help clarify expectations, and the relationship assumes that the leader knows the values of the follower, can identify the actions of the follower, and recognizes the follower as a willing participant in the exchange". Issues are dealt with reactively, with standards confirmed after problems have been exposed. The transactional leader "functioned as a broker and, especially when the stakes were low, his role could be relatively minor and even automatic" (MacGregor Burns, 2003, p. 25). He additionally classifies the transactional leader as "one who includes in both simple and complex exchanges with followers to create a performance" that donates to satisfying the goals of the organization. Bass and Avolio (2004) Full Range Leadership (FRL) model encapsulates nine leadership factors to include idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, management-by-exception (active), contingent reward, management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire. Theoretically, these nine factors identify three broad leadership types: transformational leadership, which includes idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed) individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. The transactional leadership comprises laissez-faire leadership, management-by-exception (active), contingent reward, and management-by-exception (passive); and lastly, dimension (Bass & Avolio, 2004b). "Laissez-faire leadership style reflects a lack of leadership which manifests itself as non-leadership behavior, having a propensity of escaping responsibilities". Laissez-faire leaders demonstrate limited participation in vital organizational matters and incline to procrastinate their response to critical issues. Researches highlight that laissez-faire leaders are least attentive to the completion of duties and productivity (Anderson &

McColl-Kennedy, 2005). The avoidance of involvement is a fundamental characteristic of the laissez-faire leadership style. This avoidance behavior leads to excessive frustration among followers and low level of followers' self-esteem. Laissez-faire leaders show very little care for followers' actions and their consequent impact on organizational outcome rather become source of followers demotivation. Given the negative characteristics of the Laissez-faire as a style, we grade it in non-leadership style, thus, reject it at the outset. Advocates of transformational leadership have confidence in that the arrangements of the past should not be the guide for the future. They believe that successful transformational leaders create clear and compelling visions for the future. The transformational leaders focus their energies on vision, long-term goals, aligning and changing systems and developing and training others, Bass purports that such leaders show transactional behaviors as well. He opined that great men were born, not made.

This initial focus on intellectual, physical and personality traits that distinguished non-leaders from leaders portended a research that maintained that only minor variances exist between followers and leaders. Though, the situational leadership stays to emphasis mostly upon the leader, it creates the significance of the focus into group dynamic. These styles of leadership were telling others what to do (autocratic), incorporating others in conceptualizing, planning and implementation (democratic) and giving complete freedom of action with little or no direction to others (laissez-faire). The servant leader focuses on the needs of the follower and helps them to become more autonomous freer and knowledgeable". For good work, positive support could be exchanged, merit pay for promotions, increased performance and cooperation for collegiality. . As per Bass, transformational leader, "attempts to induce followers to reorder their needs by transcending self-interests and strive for higher order.

5.5 The electoral process

An electoral system is a set of rules that govern the conduct of elections. These rules vary across the countries and states. The oft-cited variant in electoral system is the formula by which votes are converted into seats. There is a generalized assumption that electoral formula are what matter in determining the proportionality of a system. One of the vote's conversion systems is First Past the Post (FPTP) system (Biswal 2015). On the other hand, Electoral process is the interaction of organized political structures in making and administering public decisions for the society (Smita 2012).

Biswal (2015) believes that the systems of election and representation are basic to the democratic form of government. With the rise of

political awareness of the people, it has become imperative that governmental action must conform to the people's aspiration. In ancient democracies, the citizens of the city states participated in the making of laws and the administration of public business. But now, with large nation-states, direct popular participation is nearly impossible. As a consequence, the practice of periodically electing some representatives who would work as the trustees of the people came to be developed.

In the realm of politics, Biswal argued, representation can be defined as a process through which the attitudes, preferences, viewpoints, and desires of the entire citizenry or part of them are, with their expressed approval, shaped into governmental action on their behalf by a small number among them, with binding effect upon those represented. Therefore, the process of representation is intrinsically linked to elections and voting. While defining democracy as an institutional arrangement and a means of filling public office through a competitive struggle for the people's votes, Schumpeter (1942) saw elections as the heart of democracy. This means that only in a democracy do the people have the option of accepting or rejecting the men who will rule them.

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In the realm of politics representation can be defined as a process through which the attitudes, viewpoints, preferences and the desires of the entire citizenry or part of them are, with express approval, shaped into governmental action on their behalf by a smaller number among them, with binding effect upon those present.

The process of election is intrinsically linked to election and voting elections are seen as portrayed as the very heart of democracy. Democracy is also regarded as a means of filling public office by competitive struggle for the people's vote Joseph Schumpeter (1943) in Gauba (2009) described democracy as the only means that people have the opportunity of accepting or refusing the men who are to rule them. While interpreting democracy as nothing more than political method, he identified it with elections, and specifically with competitive elections. Some of these competitive election methods include:

FPTP (First Past the Post) Electoral System

First Past the Post (FPTP) is one of those methods in which the citizens decide who can rule them. FPTP system is more familiar to English speaking countries such as the UK (House of Commons), the USA, Canada New Zealand, South Africa and countries like India which follows the same pattern after getting independence due to familiarization with the system during the colonial era.

In the FPTP system, the whole country is divided into a number of electoral districts that may or may not coincide with the administrative districts into which the country is divided. These electoral districts are termed "constituencies. These constituencies may be either single-member or multi-member.

FPTP is the simplest form of a plurality or majority electoral system. The winning candidate is the one who gains more votes than any other candidate, even if this is not an absolute majority of valid votes. The system uses single districts and the voters vote for candidates rather than political parties .

In the majoritarian system, however, elections require that the victorious candidate must hold at least 50% plus 1 of all votes cast. Here, a single-member constituency raises a very important problem when three or more parties are engaged in the contest. The successful candidate may be elected by less than an absolute majority. To remedy this specific defect, the second ballot and alternative vote system have been proposed.

The second ballot system involves the second, or run-off, election immediately after the first. The method is that if in the first election, none of the candidates in the constituency gets an absolute majority, all the candidates below the top two are eliminated from the contest; then a second election takes place in which the contestants are only the top two candidates. This system of voting was prevalent in France and Germany for some time.

The alternative vote system, also known as the method of preferential voting, does not involve two elections. In an election, the voters are required to state their order of preference for the candidate in a constituency. Thus, a voter is to mark one opposite to his first choice on the ballot and two and three opposite the names of his other choices to express his second and third alternative preferences. Then, if on the counting of the first preferences of all the voters, none of the candidates is found to get an absolute majority, the candidate getting the lowest number of votes is dropped out of the contest and the second choices of the voters who voted for him as their first choice are distributed

according to their preferences . In the second counting that follows, the first and second choices are totaled to see if any candidate gets an absolute majority. Even then, if an absolute majority for someone does not emerge, the process of eliminating candidates from the bottom of the poll continues till one gets an absolute majority.

In this system it is possible for a candidate who came second or in closely run races lower on the first preferences to win the seats eventually. This system operates in Australia and some Polynesian states. One good example of this is the Australian election of 1998. Where the extreme right party " one NATION;s Pauline Hanson who had the greatest number of the first preference votes lost the Blair constituency to the 3rd place liberal candidate, who received more second preferences from other candidates including those original second-place.

The abovementioned two systems may, at best, produce a government based on a majority of popular votes as well as parliamentary seats. The majority produced by the second ballot or alternative vote is a kind of second best, not a wholehearted first choice. There is a form of the First Past the Post system known as the Block Vote system, used in multi-member constituencies, where each voter has as many votes as there are candidates to be elected. The candidates with the highest vote totals win the seats. Usually, voters vote for candidates rather than parties, and in most systems, they may use as many, or as few, of their votes as they wish.

FPTP in the Third World

Third world countries generally follow the single-member constituency with a plurality system of voting, also known as the FPTP method. This method is simple in the sense that the result is decided by a majority vote. Thus, it tends to limit the number of parties and keeps extremist or small radical parties at bay by making it difficult for them to gain seats and credibility. Sometimes this method fosters a two-party system, as in Britain, or a single-dominant party system in most countries, as in India. This also establishes a clear link between representatives and the electorate.

However, it is obvious that the very situation which the plurality system was supposedly designed to avoid has in fact arisen and there has been, over the years , a plethora of parties ; practically every national party and even some regional and other state parties have split, some of them once . The center and even some states have coalition government's coalition based on certain common policies and objectives.

Party Block Vote System and the Cumulative System

A party block vote system is a modern election method where political parties are an important factor. This system may bring forth candidates of one such group elected en-bloc. A Party block vote (PBV) is a plurality/majority system using multi-member districts in which voters cast a single party-centered vote for a party of choice and choose between candidates. The party with the most votes will win every seat in the electoral district.

The cumulative vote

This is a device to improve the block vote. According to this, an elector has a number of votes equal to the number of seats to be filled in his constituency. He may give two or more votes to the candidates. He may give one or more votes to the candidate of his choice instead of distributing one vote among the candidates. The obvious advantage of this method lies in enabling the voter to express quite emphatically his preference for a particular candidate. Canada, Britain, and the US all use the single-member plurality system, sometimes called first past the post. In this system, there is one representative in the legislature for each riding and that person only has to win one vote more than any other candidate in the riding. When the results are added up across a province or the whole country, there are usually significant discrepancies between the share of votes won by the political parties and their share of seats in the legislature.

Self-assessment question 5.1

Mention four electoral processes that you know?

Possible answers to Self-assessment question 5.1

Some electoral processes include the following

First Past the Post (FPTP).

The ballot vote system

Voting by party blocs and

The cumulative vote system.

5.6 Nature of Political Parties and their Functions

A political party is an organized group of citizens who hold common opinion on public questions and, acting as a political unit, seek to obtain control of the government with a view to furthering the program and policy that they profess. According to Chand (2014), a political party is an organization. MacIver defined a political party as an association organized in support of some principals or policy that, by constitutional means, it endeavors to make the determinant of government. Leacock compares political parties to a joint stock company in which each member contributes his share of political power. Each political party is based on two fundamental aspects of human nature. People differ in

their opinions and, at the same time, are gregarious by nature, and if they must live in a society, they must adjust their differences with others and agree on the fundamentals of certain opinions. They combine with people holding similar opinions and views in order to put forward those views in an organized manner.

All political parties endeavor to promote national interest. They must carry out their views in a constitutional way. Political parties must hold the opinion that men banded together should formulate a clear and specific ideology which they should place before the electorate to win their support and devise all possible means to maintain it.

The functions of political parties still remain largely on the politicians and the type of party's organization in the system, the party system as well as the electoral system (Nnoli, 2003). Perhaps, contesting and winning of elections seems to be the catalyst roles of political parties and politicians; however, they perform other functions which are equally essential to the smooth functioning of a democratic system. Among other issues, political parties organize and aggregate public opinion, transmit public demands to the government and vice-versa, recruit political leaders, engage in oversights in the implementation of public policy, political mobilizations and socialization as well as provision of welfare services.

The impacts of mass media such as radio, television, newspapers, and magazines etc. as strategies of political mobilization most especially the traditional methods of door to door campaigns in order to mobilize electorates during and before elections. But few, if any, discuss on the roles of politicians and political parties in political mobilization in Nigeria. The role of politicians and political mobilization is very strategic in contemporary Nigeria where sometimes the politicians use different strategies to induce and influence electorates to vote during elections. The roles of politicians and political parties continue to be vital in political mobilization and drawing citizens to focus on issues that are important and as well in priming public opinion among many citizens to get engaged in the process of governance in Nigeria. In this regard money becomes the driving force behind mass marketing of candidates and parties. This implies that, funds are very critical in the proper and effective functioning of democratic political process and politics. Without funds, it would be absolutely difficult for political parties to articulate their ideas and vision to the public and, without which the electorate could not make informed choices during elections. Political campaign and party mobilization in most states of the country are fraud with despicable levels of corruption, even when efforts have been made to reform laws regulating political mobilizations and party campaigns, their abuses remain very high. In this regard, series of works

have been written by various scholars such as Omotola (2006) on party politics, political participation, and electoral politics amongst others but much less discussed on the pattern of political mobilization and strategies adopted by politicians in political parties. It is, therefore, against this premise that this paper attempts to investigate the strategies employed by politicians and political parties in mobilizing the electorates and evaluate the implications of strategies employed in Zamfara State of Nigeria. Political parties are also involve in the recruitment of political leaders, engage in oversights in the implementation of public policy, political mobilizations and socialization as well as provision of welfare services (Anderson, 2001; Agbaje, 1999). Series of empirical studies have identified the role of political parties, elections, pressure groups and other elements in contributing to democratic consolidation in Nigeria. For example, Omotola (2007). Among several others conducted empirical studies on the role of political parties in broadening and expanding democratic ethos in a given political system.

The roles of politicians and political parties continue to be vital in political mobilization and drawing citizens to focus on issues that are important and as well in priming public opinion among many citizens to get engaged in the process of governance in Nigeria. In this regards, money becomes the driving force behind mass marketing of candidates and parties. This implies that, funds are very critical in the proper and effective functioning of democratic political process and politics. Without funds, it would be absolutely difficult for political parties to articulate their ideas and vision to the public and, without which the electorate could not make informed choices during elections. Political campaign and party mobilization in most states of the country are fraud with despicable levels of corruption, even when efforts have been made to reform laws regulating political mobilizations and party campaigns, their abuses remain very high.

Functions of Political Parties

Political party shape the whole political process. Political parties recruit candidates to contest elections, organize platforms for the electorate to judge at the ballot box, and provide avenue for citizen's involvement and input into politics. Again, in its electoral mobilization, political parties reach out to the electorates for support of their candidates and do facilitate political participation in a given political system (Diamond & Gunther, 2001). Mobilization as the role of political party has to do with social networks that mobilize electorates. Political parties also promote participation through rallies, campaigns and voting activities. However, the roles of political parties in political mobilization in different from other areas in Nigeria. Furthermore, it was argued that mobilization of the citizens is an essential factor for the success of a given political

system, and the idea of mobilization is essentially derived from the general idea of political participation. The essence of mobilization theory posits the fact that increased access to political information increases political participation within the cognitive and behavioural contexts. This promulgates the idea that increased awareness leads to more discussion and analysis which makes mobilization more effective (Diamond & Gunther, 2001). However, according to Niven (2002) mobilization messages often fail to reach the intended audience but when the messages did reach the youth it would likely be ineffective. In this regards therefore, it is the roles of political parties to have rigorous voter's identification to engage mass mobilization. It is important not only for the sake of allocating limited resources but also for the success of outreach tactics in reaching out audiences. In addition, the role of political parties in political mobilization is to mobilize voters. According to Adamu Ataye, (Interviews, 2017), political parties inform and energize their members; they send brochures, use media campaigns, knock on doors and as well call voters through phones. To this effect, parties maintain elaborates network of state and local offices that could immediately be pressed into the services of a candidate once the party nomination is secured. This is largely because party activities are finance-intensive. In supporting candidates, parties mobilize resources to finance mobilization activities such as production of Posters, Billboards, Television and Radio Jingles.

Again, political parties do not only perform the function of interest aggregation but also political participation through mobilization, recruitment and educating the electorates for the conduct of elections in a given political system. Political parties remain as an essential for political mobilization and in preferences, recruiting and socializing new candidates for office, organizing the electoral competition for power, crafting policy alternatives, setting the policy-making agenda, forming effective governments, and integrating groups and individuals into the democratic process. Political parties perform crucial task in a polity which include candidate selection, recruitment and political mobilization among others. The last issue which is political mobilization is the major one in this study. Partisan mobilization around elections stand out as the most pronounced function of political parties. Political Parties act as mobilizing agency through direct communications with voters, including traditional grassroots activities such as canvassing, leafleting and contacting voters, as well as holding party meetings and campaign rallies, and using national advertising or party political broadcasts. The news media serves this function through providing information about parties, candidates and policies that could help to crystallize voting choices, and the partisan press, in particular, has long been thought to help reinforce party support.

Political parties play an important role in mobilizing citizens to participate in the political process. This may be especially important in new democracies where party attachments are weak and voter turnout is low. Using data from the Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (CSES), we examine citizens' reported contact with political parties during a national campaign in a variety of democracies. We discover that rates of reported contact are lower in new democracies, and that citizens appear to be less engaged in the political process on average. Nonetheless, parties in new democracies appear to be more likely to target citizens than parties in old democracies. Their efforts lead to them being equally successful in stimulating political participation. Political participation is widely regarded as an important indicator of democracy's health and vitality. Political parties can assist in increasing participation by encouraging citizens to become involved in the political process. This pivotal role for parties in engaging citizens was recognized 40 years ago, and it is especially important in emerging democracies, where parties are the primary instruments of political socialization (Weiner and LaPalombara, 1966). Political parties play an important role in new democracies, according to recent literature on the subject (Kitschelt et al., 1999; Lipset, 1994; Mainwaring, 1999). In this article, we use survey data from a variety of countries, including both new and old democracies, to investigate how citizens interact with political parties in the context of elections. Democracies are less likely to be contacted by parties and candidates and are consequently less likely to be engaged in the political process.

There are, moreover, predictable differences in campaign activity across new and old democracies. Nevertheless, party mobilization matters and is a significant predictor of not only voting but other forms of political engagement in both new and old democracies. Party Mobilization Party contact efforts are a reflection of both party organizational strength and strategic considerations. Strategically, parties are expected to expend greater efforts on getting their supporters out when the benefits exceed the costs. These strategic considerations are influenced by incentives produced by the electoral system as well as the party system. For example, parties may contact more voters under proportional systems, where the extra votes are more likely to produce extra seats (Cox, 1999). Additionally, these contact efforts will be easier when parties have greater organizational resources. Mainwaring (1998, 1999) has suggested that party institutionalization is the main factor that distinguishes party systems in new and old democracies. Institutionalized party systems are characterized by stable and strong partisan attachments; low electoral volatility; trust in parties and elections; and well-resourced parties that are not dominated by a single personality. While newer democracies tend to have weak party institutionalization (Mainwaring, 1998), little is known about how

mobilization strategies of parties differ across new and old democracies. In new democracies, where partisan attachments are likely to be weak (see Dalton and Weldon, 2007) or parties and elections may lack legitimacy, parties may need to exert greater effort in getting potential supporters to the polls. Several features of party systems in new democracies suggest, however, that it may be difficult to mobilize voters. While parties in Western democracies are becoming increasingly professionalized as expenditures and national staff increase (Farrell and Webb, 2002), parties in newer democracies are likely to be poorly organized, poorly resourced, and inexperienced in mobilization efforts (Birch, 2005). The lack of widespread and stable party membership is likely to make canvassing efforts more difficult. New democracies may also lack the organizational expertise and material resources to hire political consultants to coordinate a canvassing campaign. Regardless of the amount of resources, parties everywhere have an incentive to reduce the cost of mobilization efforts by targeting probable voters and targeting voters that are less costly to reach. Several characteristics of voters may make them easier to contact or identify as likely voters: citizens with a history of voting in previous elections or members of groups such as unions are some examples of characteristics that could be used to identify probable voters. Identifying supporters and Probable voters may be more difficult in new democracies. Weak partisan attachments and voter volatility, for example, may make it more difficult for parties to identify potential supporters. While new and old democracies may well have different levels of party activity, another question is whether the kinds of voters targeted across systems are the same. If parties pursue a mobilization strategy (as opposed to a conversion strategy), they are also likely to contact members of the population that are predisposed to vote, support their candidate, and get others to vote (Rosenstone and Hansen, 1993). On the other hand, parties may pursue a conversion strategy by contacting potential voters in the hope of persuading them to vote for them. Parties may be particularly inclined to pursue this strategy in countries with compulsory voting or in other countries where turnout is already high. Empirical evidence about the influence of party contact on vote choice suggests that such efforts may be successful but have a more limited impact (Denver et al., 2004; Marsh, 2004). Lower turnout in new democracies (Karp and Banducci, 1999; Norris, 2004) suggests that parties may be more inclined to pursue a pure mobilization strategy rather than conversion. However, greater electoral volatility in new democracies suggests that parties may have success when pursuing a conversion strategy. The targeting of voters, i.e., supporters, probable voters, or potential converts, requires organizational resources on the part of political parties. Aside from the stage of political development, the type of electoral system may also influence the likelihood that citizens will come into contact with parties or candidates (Karp et al.,

forthcoming). On the one hand, proportional representation (PR) systems are known to have higher turnout than single-member plurality systems (Blais and Dobrzynska, 1998; Lijphart, 1999). Some have reasoned that proportional systems foster greater party mobilization efforts because parties have an incentive to mobilize everywhere (Powell, 1986). In those districts that are non-competitive, voters have less of an incentive to vote, and parties have less of an incentive to mobilize (Powell, 1980:12). On the other hand, while every vote may count equally in PR systems, candidates are less likely to have an incentive to campaign on a personal level, especially in districts with a large district magnitude. In candidate-based systems, candidates have an incentive to cultivate a personal vote and, consequently, have a greater incentive to contact voters. Additionally, having geographically defined districts with a single member elected simplifies the process of identifying which voters to contact and which candidates are responsible for the contacting. In one of the few studies to examine how party mobilization varies by system, Karp et al. (forthcoming) find that voters are more likely to come into contact with parties and candidates in candidate-based systems than in PR systems. Thus, while PR may well be associated with higher levels of turnout, the mechanism that produces the turnout may not be that of party contact.

Propaganda and Public Opinion

The term propaganda is defined as the purveying of lies by conscienceless writers and speakers. It is the communication of distorted ideas or inadequate facts or both conveyed in a manner or tone so as to create in the object of propaganda an emotional response favourable to the implicit bias of the propagandist. According to Clyde R Miller propaganda is the attempt to influence others to some predetermined end by appealing to their thought and feeling. According to Anderson and Parker propaganda is the deliberate use of communication to induce people to favour one predetermined line of thought or action over another. Kimball Young writes for our purposes we shall define propaganda as the more or less deliberate planned and systematic use of symbol chiefly through suggestion and related psychological techniques with a view first to altering and controlling opinions, ideas and values and ultimately to changing overt action along predetermined lines. Propaganda is the use of reasoning or facts in order to persuade another person to favour a particular kind of action that he would otherwise not favour. However propaganda is not necessarily the propagation of wrong views by questionable methods. Groups and organizations whose objectives have been socially constructive have often resorted to the method of propaganda. The Family Planning department in order to control the birth rate has used all the devices of propaganda.

Propaganda can also be said to be the most effective when it rests upon verifiable information. It can readily justify itself in terms of the real interests of the target groups and can show a genuine commonality or interests among the individuals who compose the group. It is only the activity of some vested propagandists which has given the term propaganda its bad connotation. Propaganda is merely a means of influencing others often towards a desirable end. It aims at persuasion by means of symbols. Every government maintains a ministry to influence people in the direction of accepted patterns though they prefer to call it the ministry of public relations or publicity instead of propaganda.

On the other hand, Public opinion refers to the collective belief, judgement or views held by majority of citizens of a country about public policy or government action. In other words, public opinion refers to what members of the public think or feel about government's proposed policy or action already taken by government.

The Functions of Political Parties

They serve as a bridge between the citizens and the government

Interest aggregation

Aggregation into political systems

Political socialization

Formation of a government

Mobilization of voters

Voter education

Selection of a candidate for election

The provision of a majority, without which the government cannot remain in power.

Provision of alternative government

Interest Groups and their functions

Interest groups are a collection of people trying to influence the government. David Truman defines an interest group as an attitude group that makes certain demands upon other groups by acting through the institution of government. Some interest groups are transient while others are permanent. According to Truman, divergent interests automatically lead to divergent interest group formation. In pluralist societies, a multiplicity of interest groups push their own claims and viewpoints, creating a balance of opposing interests that, in theory, prevents any one group from dominating the political system. Consequently, government policy is the outcome of competitions among groups which represent the varied interests of the people. Interest groups tend to over-represent the interests of the middle class because groups are richer and better connected. The democratic playing field is not level.

If the elite theory really operated, the poor would organize groups to get a bigger piece of the economic pie. But the poor, who have less education, are slow in forming groups to promote their interests. Better-off and better educated people are much more likely to participate in politics, and this includes organizing and running interest groups. In this area, the poor are short-changed, with few organizations to represent their interests. The lower class may act explosively rather than as a group working within a political system. Their grievances can burst out, as in the French Revolution.

The Difference between Interest Groups and Political Parties

Interest groups are a bit like political parties in the sense that they try to influence policy, but interest groups do it outside of the electoral process and are not responsible to the public. A party must win elections. Interest groups may influence the nomination of a candidate who favors their course, but the candidate will run under the political party's banner and not the interest groups. Parties try to acquire power through elections. Interest groups usually focus on specific programs and issues and are really represented in the formal structure of government. Instead, they try to influence legislators, executives, or the judiciary. They seek the favor of political parties. Political parties seek broad support to win elections and draw many interest groups involved in the race. Political parties' membership is much broader than that of interest groups.

Political Institutions, location and Exercise of Power

Politics is a process by which a group of people, whose opinions or interests might be divergent, reach collective decisions that are generally regarded as binding on the group and enforced as common policy. Political life enables people to accomplish goals they could not achieve as individuals. Politics necessarily arises whenever groups of people live together, since they must always reach collective decisions of one kind or another. Government, on the other hand, is the formal institution of a society with the authority to make and implement binding decisions on issues such as resource distribution, benefit and burden allocation, and conflict.

According to Chand (2012), political institutions are the working structures of government, such as legislatures and executive departments. Parties, if they are important and stable, may also count as institutions of government amongst other agencies of government. A political institution is a fluid thing that requires continual maintenance. A political institution can also be said to be congealed or partly solidified in authority. Overtime, people have become used to looking to political institutions to solve problems, decide or resolve controversies,

and set directions. Institutions, because they are composed of many people who are to (if they are effective) last many generations, take on lives of their own apart from the people temporarily associated with them. This gives the political system stability. Political institutions are bigger than the individuals that are associated with them.

5.7 Political Institutions and Separation of Powers

Political institutions help determine limits on the arbitrary exercise of power by politicians and bureaucrats. They do so by delineating property rights between the state and the private sector and providing for their enforcement. A historical example of this can be found in the changes in political institutions in 17th century England, which placed limits on the power of the Crown to expropriate property and so contributed to the security of private property. Political institutions also influence the extent of competition in the political process and the extent to which this competition holds politicians accountable for their actions. For example, delegating responsibility to local governments can influence the incentives for competition between jurisdictions to provide improved public goods. This chapter considers a wide variety of political institutions that, among other things, affect the behavior of public officials. In formal democracies, which constitute a growing share of the world's countries, political institutions include the electoral rules that lay out the procedures by which governments are elected and replaced. They also include the constitutional rules that determine the division of power between the executive and legislative branches of government—and the limits on the power of each. In all countries, political institutions and traditions delineate the division of power between central and local governments and the assignment of responsibilities to different agencies within the government. These institutions may be formal (such as electoral rules), or they may be informal (for example, the role of shared beliefs among members of the same political party in shaping behavior). There are also important interactions between political institutions. For example, the credibility of autonomous agencies will depend on the extent to which other political institutions limit the power of governments to revoke the agencies' independence in the future. Institutions that limit the state's capacity for arbitrary action will improve its ability to provide institutions that support broad-based markets. But too often among the poorest countries in the world, the ability of the state to provide market-supporting institutions is hampered by the absence of effective restraints on public officials. This illustrates the broader theme that runs through this Report of complementarities among institutions: policymakers need to adjust institutional designs to take these complementarities into account. For example, in the absence of effective checks and balances in the political process, independent regulatory agencies will be independent in name

only. When state capacity is weak, simpler and less discretionary regulation is less likely to be undermined by corruption. And when central government control is ineffective, the potential benefits of greater decentralization and competition among jurisdictions may not be realized. No single set of political institutions can successfully support market institutions everywhere and at all levels of development; this points to the importance of in England in the early 17th century, the Stuart monarchy, to finance its expenditures, increasingly resorted to “forced loans”—where the lender had no recourse if loans were not repaid. This practice was one of many highly visible signs that the regime had no commitment to protecting property rights. Other indications included outright confiscation of land and funds, forced public procurement at below-market prices, a willingness to remove judges who ruled against the Crown, and the sale of monopoly rights over various lucrative economic activities. This arbitrary exercise of sovereign power was interrupted during the civil war in the middle of the century, but the restoration of the monarchy was accompanied by the return of the same excesses. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 ushered in a series of fundamental changes in political institutions that limited the arbitrary exercise of power by the sovereign. The revolution established the supremacy of parliament over the Crown and vested in parliament the exclusive right to raise taxes and audit the expenditures of the Crown. These steps were followed by the establishment of the Bank of England, which exercised important independent control over public finances. The result of these changes was a more equitable division of power between the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government. These restraints on the arbitrary exercise of power greatly enhanced the state’s ability to finance public expenditures by issuing debt. The impact of these changes in political institutions and in the protection of property rights can be seen in the development of debt markets. In 1688 the Crown was able to place public debt equivalent to only 2 to 3 percent of GDP—and only of very short maturity and at very high interest rates. By 1697 the Crown was able to place and service debt equivalent to 40 percent of GDP, at lower interest rates and with longer maturities. The emergence of a functioning public debt market in turn benefited the development of the private capital markets that helped finance the Industrial Revolution that followed. Source: North and Weingast 1989. Box 5.1 Political institutions, property rights and fiscal outcomes in 17th century England and experimentation in the design of the institutions of the state itself. This chapter also illustrates how open information sharing can improve governance and reduce corruption (see also chapter 10). This chapter builds on past World Development Reports, especially World Development Report 1997 on the role of the state. Part of the 1997 Report was devoted to the institutions that restrain arbitrary state action and corruption, and it stressed the importance of judicial independence, the formal separation of powers, and

international institutions as a counterbalance to the power of the state. Since then, a large body of research has shed new light on these issues, and this chapter emphasizes what is new. This chapter is also selective in the topics it covers. The role of the state in protecting property rights and promoting the rule of law through the judicial system is taken up separately in the next chapter. The role of the state as a regulator to promote competition in markets is discussed in chapters 7 and 8. This chapter addresses three dimensions of governance in detail. The first section explores the ways in which political institutions influence policy choices, focusing on fiscal, regulatory, and trade policies. This section emphasizes the types of institutions that limit the ability of the state to provide policies that favor special interests over the general interest. The second section discusses corruption. In light of the classic definition of corruption as the exercise of public power for private gain, the section emphasizes the types of institutions that limit the ability of public officials to act in their own self-interest in this way. The third section discusses how the institutions of taxation influence the incentives of the state to raise revenues and to provide the institutions that support markets. Political institutions and policy choices. The quality of policies adopted by governments around the world varies tremendously. Figure 5.1 illustrates this variation in policy for several measures of policy outcomes—inflation, budget deficits, and tariffs—averaged over the 1980s and 1990s. Each panel shows the average value of the policy variable for the top half of a sample of 85 industrial and developing countries and the corresponding average for the bottom half of the sample. Average inflation in the best-performing half of the sample was 4 percent per year in the 1980s and 2 percent per year in the 1990s. Among the worst performing countries, inflation averaged upward of 200 percent per year.

A constitution's division of governmental powers has largely taken two forms: functional divisions such as legislative, executive, and judicial; and spatial territorial divisions such as federalism. Based upon this principle of distribution, all the powers of government have long been associated as falling within one or another of these three great classes, according as they have to do with (1) enactment of making laws; (2) the interpretation of these laws; and (3) their enforcement. These three classes have been given the names: legislature, judiciary, and executive. Government has been deemed to be made up of three branches, each with the functions of enacting laws, adjudication, and law enforcement; the branches to which these functions belong are known as the legislature, the judiciary, and the executive, respectively.

Political liberty exists where the government is restrained and limited. The theory that the functions of government should be differentiated and that they should be performed by distinct organs consisting of different

bodies of people, so that each department should be limited to its own sphere of action without encroaching upon others, and that it should be independent within that sphere, is called in its traditional form, the theory of separation of power.

Important Political Institutions

The Executive:

The Executive is the administrative arm of government. It implements laws made by the legislature. It is responsible for carrying out laws enacted by the legislature. The executive formulates and executes governmental policies. The executive branch issues regulations for the governance of the government departments. As the executive includes all the government servants, It holds the responsibility of delivering services such as healthcare, welfare, education, finance, and so on and so for the people. The executive commands the armed forces for the defense and protection of the state's security. The executive recommends legislation and issues ordinances.

The functions of the executive are not the same everywhere and in every country. The function of the executive is dependent on the form of government in power. In a dictatorship, the functions of the executive are different from those in a democracy. The following are functions of the executive. Administrative, legislative, military, and foreign relations and financial functions.

The Legislature

The legislature is the law branch of the government. In most countries, the legislature is available for making laws, amending, and replacing old laws. The legislature controls, criticizes, supervises, and scrutinizes the administration or activities of the executive and influences the politics of government. The legislature is also the voice of the people. In some countries, the legislature has the power to elect the head of state. In India, for example, the upper house, the lower house, and the state legislative bodies elect the president. The legislature controls the national finances; no money may be spent or raised by the executive without the previous knowledge of the legislature. The power of the legislature includes granting money that could be spent or raised by the executive on public goods. The legislature is very important in a democracy because it can initiate and rescind laws, and it is the only authority that can approve proposed laws.

The constitution can allow people or agencies of the executive branch to propose laws. In the US, Congress is the legislative arm. It is divided into 2 houses, each of which must approve potential legislation by a majority vote. In Great Britain, power is held by the parliament. In Nigeria, the legislative body, which is known as the National House of

Assembly, is divided into 2; the upper House and the lower House, known as the House of Representatives. In a democracy, the following are the functions of the legislature: law making, Executive budget control (checks and baking amendment to the constitution).A mirror of the constitution's rights to the legislature to remove the executive.

Self-assessment question 5.1

Name three major political institutions in Nigeria.

Possible answer to Self-assessment question 5.1

The three major political institutions in Nigeria are:

The executive arm of government,

The legislature and

The judiciary

The Judiciary

The judiciary is the third organ of government and it is the branch that is concerned with the administration of justice. It is mainly for the award of punishment for violations of the law, while the laws are made by the legislature, executed by the executive, and the judiciary interprets them. If a law made by the legislature conflicts with the constitution, the judiciary will declare such laws invalid. This is because the judiciary is the guardian of the constitution.

5.7 Summary

In the just concluded lecture, you learnt that an electoral system is a set of rules that govern the conduct of elections. These rules vary across the world. The oft-cited variant in the electoral system is the formula by which votes are converted into seats. There is a generalized assumption that electoral formulas matter in determining the proportionality of a system. One of the voting systems is the First Past the Post (FPTP) system (Biswal 2015). On the other hand, the electoral process is the interaction of organized political structures in making and administrating public decisions for society (Smita 2012). FPTP is the simplest form of a plurality or majority electoral system. The winning candidate is the one who gains more votes than any other candidate, even if this is not an absolute majority of valid votes. The system uses single districts and the voters vote for candidates rather than political parties. In the majoritarian system, however, elections require that the victorious candidate must hold at least 50% plus 1 of all votes cast. Here, a single-member constituency raises a very important problem when three or more parties are engaged in the contest. The successful candidate may be elected by less than an absolute majority. To remedy this specific defect, the second ballot and alternative vote system have been proposed.

You also learned about political parties and interest groups. You should now be able to define the two concepts and understand their roles within political parties. You know now that a political party is an organized group of citizens who hold common opinion on public questions and, acting as a political unit, seek to obtain control of the government with a view to furthering the program and policy that they profess. They serve as a bridge between the citizens and the government alongside their other functions. An interest group is a collection of people trying to influence the government in their favour. Interest groups are a bit like political parties in the sense that they try to influence policy, but interest groups do it outside of the electoral process and are not responsible to the public. A party must win elections. Interest groups may influence the nomination of a candidate who favors their course, but the candidate will run under the political party's banner and not the interest groups. Parties try to acquire power through elections. Interest groups usually focus on specific programs and issues and are really represented in the formal structure of government. Instead, they try to influence legislators, executives, or the judiciary. They seek the favor of political parties. Political parties seek broad support to win elections and draw many interest groups involved in the race. Political parties' membership is much broader than that of interest groups.

Self-Assessment Questions

SAQ5.1 Give a narration of an electoral system and electoral processes

SAQ 5.2: Explain the differences between interest group and political parties

SAQ 5.3: Explains major political institutions and the location and exercise of power.

5.8 Possible answers to self-assessment questions

SAQ5.1 Give a narration of an electoral system and electoral processes?

An electoral system is a set of rules that govern the conduct of elections. These rules vary across the countries and states. The oft-cited variant in electoral system is the formula by which votes are converted into seats. There is a generalized assumption that electoral formula are what matter in determining the proportionality of a system. One of the vote's conversion systems is First Past the Post (FPTP) system (Biswal 2015). On the other hand, Electoral process is the interaction of organized political structures in making and administering public decisions for the society (Smita 2012). Biswal (2015) believes that the systems of election and representation are basic to the democratic form of government.

SAQ 5.2: Give a definition of a political party and an interest group? Political party is an organized group of citizens who hold common opinion on public question and acting as political unit seek to obtain the

control of government with a view to further the program and policy which they profess. According to Chand (2014) political party is an organization. MacIver defined political party as an association organized in support of some principals or policy which by constitutional means, it endeavors to make the determinant of government. Leacock compares political party to a joint stock company which each member contributes his share of political power. Each political party is based on two fundamental aspects of human nature. Man differ in their opinions and at the same time gregarious by nature and if they must live in a society they must adjust their differences with others and agree on fundamentals of certain opinions. They combine with persons holding similar opinion / views in order to put forward those views in an organized manner. Can you describe your interest group?

Interest groups are a bit like political parties in the sense that they try to influence policy, but interest groups do it outside of the electoral process and are not responsible to the public.

A party must win elections. Interest groups may influence the nomination of a candidate who favors their course, but the candidate will run under the political party's banner and not the interest groups. Parties try to acquire power through elections.

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An interest group is a collection of people trying to influence the government. David Truman defines an interest group as an attitude group that makes certain demands upon other groups by acting through the institution of government. Some interest groups are transient while others are permanent. According to Truman, divergent interests automatically lead to divergent interest group formation. In pluralist societies, a multiplicity of interest groups push their own claims and viewpoints, creating a balance of opposing interests that, in theory, prevents any one group from dominating the political system.

Political parties must hold the opinion that men banded together should formulate a clear and specific ideology which they should place before the electorate to win their support and devise all possible means to maintain it. To this end, the main difference between political parties and interest groups is in the function they perform. Political parties perform the following functions:

They serve as a bridge between the citizens and the government. Interest aggregation, aggregation into political systems, Political socialization government formation, Mobilization of voters Voter education Selection of a candidate for election supplying the majority, which is required for the government to remain in power provision of an alternative government by winning an election.

SAQ 5.3: Explains major political institutions and the location and exercise of power? **Answer:** The major political institutions are the executive, the legislature, and the judiciary. They are different from political parties and interest groups. The Executive is the administrative arm of government. It implements laws made by the legislature. It is responsible for carrying out laws enacted by the legislature. The executive formulates and executes governmental policies. The executive branch issues regulations for the governance of the government departments. As the executive includes all the government servants, It holds the responsibility of delivering services such as healthcare, welfare, education, finance, and so on and so for the people. The executive commands the armed forces for the defense and protection of the state's security. The executive recommends legislation and issues ordinances.

The functions of the executive are not the same everywhere and in every country. The function of the executive is dependent on the form of government in power. In a dictatorship the functions of the executive are different from those in a democracy. The followings are functions of the executive. Administrative, legislative, military functions, foreign relations and financial functions.

The Legislature: The legislature is the law-making branch of government. In most countries, the legislature is available for making laws, amending, and replacing old laws. The legislature controls, criticizes, supervises, and scrutinizes the administration or activities of the executive and influences the politics of government. The legislature is also the voice of the people. In some countries, the legislature has the power to elect the head of state. In India, for example, the upper house, the Rajya Sabha, and the state legislative bodies elect the president. The legislature controls the national finances; no money may be spent or raised by the executive without the previous knowledge of the legislature. The power of the legislature includes granting money that could be spent or raised by the executive on public goods. (2) Imposition of taxes, loan authorization (3). The legislature is very important in a democracy for the following occasions: the legislature can initiate and rescind laws; it is the only authority able to approve proposed laws.

The constitution can allow people or agencies of the executive branch to propose laws. In the US, Congress is the legislative arm. It is divided

into 2 houses, each of which must approve potential legislation by a majority vote. In Great Britain, power is held by the parliament. In Nigeria, the legislative body, which is known as the National House of Assembly, is divided into 2; the upper House and the lower House, known as the House of Representatives. In a democracy, the following are the functions of the legislature: law making. Executive budget control (checks and baking amendment to the constitution). A mirror of the constitution's rights to the legislature to remove the executive. The Judiciary: The judiciary is the third organ of government and it is the branch that is concerned with the administration of justice. It is mainly for the award of punishment for violations of the law, while the laws are made by the legislature, executed by the executive, and the judiciary interprets them. If a law made by the legislature conflicts with the constitution, the judiciary will declare such laws invalid. This is because the judiciary is the guardian of the constitution.

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