STUDY PACK

ON

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND LEADERSHIP

INTERMEDIATE II

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND LEADERSHIP

INTERMEDIATE II

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**CHARTERED INSTITUTE OF PERSONNEL
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FOREWORD

This fourth edition of the CIPM study pack is one of the learning resources recommended to persons preparing for certification through professional examinations. It is uniquely prepared to meet the knowledge standards of HR certification bodies and/or degree awarding institutions. The study pack is highly recommended to researchers, people managers and organisations responsible for human capital development in its entirety.

Each chapter in the text has been logically arranged to sufficiently cover all the various sections of this subject as itemised in the CIPM examination syllabus. This is to enhance systematic learning and understanding of the users. The document, a product of in-depth study and research, is practical and original. We have ensured that topics and sub-topics are based on the syllabus and on contemporary HR best practices.

Although concerted effort has been made to ensure that the text is up to date in matters relating to theories and practices of contemporary issues in HR, nevertheless, we advise and encourage students to complement the study text with other study materials recommended in the syllabus. This is to ensure total coverage of the elastic scope and dynamics of the HR profession.

Thank you and do have a productive preparation as you navigate through the process of becoming a seasoned Human Resources Management professional.

Olusegun Mojeed, FCIPM, fnli
President & Chairman of the Governing Council

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC ADMINSITRATION

1.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand the:

- definition of Public Administration as an art or science
- evolution of modern bureaucracy
- distinction between Private and Public Administration
- various organization theory
- dynamics of organization
- dichotomy between Politics and Administration
- dichotomy between Public and Private Administration
- practical elements of Public Administration Systems Models in Nigeria
- concept of development Administration

1.2   INTRODUCTION

Public Administration is a specialized academic field. It deals essentially with the machinery and procedures of government activities. Public Administration is a combination of "public" and "administration" which have individual interpretations. Public Administration when combined encompasses the management and organization of public resources for the attainment of public goals.

We shall proceed to examine the definitions and meanings of administration and public administration by the traditional writers and scholars in the field of Public Administration.

1.2.1   Definition and Meaning of Administration

The word "Administration" is derived from two Latin words "ad" and "ministiare" which means to govern or serve. Several definitions of administration have been given by scholars.

- Gulick and Urwick (1935) conceptualized administration as getting things done with the accomplishment of the defined objectives. According to the authors, the science of administration is the system of knowledge whereby one may predict results, understand relationships and influence actions in any situations where people work together and are organized for a common purpose.

- Priffner and Prestus (1960) define administration as the activity or process concerned with the means of carrying out prescribed ends.

- Augustus Adebayo (1985) conceives administration as "the organization and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specific end."

- In the opinion of Hughes (1998), administration includes activities connected with keeping records and processing information, paper work and activities concerned with applying rules, procedures and policies determined by others.
- According to J. F. Berkley, "Administration is a process involving human beings jointly engaged in working towards common goals."
- Onuoha (1999) views administration from another perspective. According to him, administration refers to senior personnel in the executive branch of government. For example, Bush administration, Obama's administration and Tinubu administration, etc.

From the above definitions, it is evident that administration pervades every organization or human institution. Administration is a rational human activity which is inherent in any organized social life, public or private. It occurs even in such a simple activity as when two men cooperate to roll a stone that neither could have moved alone. Administration entails all operations aimed to achieve some purpose shared by two or more people.

To understand the meaning of Public Administration, we should first be clear by what we mean by the adjective "public" which can be used in a variety of meanings. In this context, it means 'governmental'. Therefore, Public Administration is governmental administration. It refers to the study of the management of the public agencies responsible for carrying out public policies for the overall benefits of the citizens.

We shall now proceed to look at some important definitions by scholars in the field of public administration.

1.2.2   Definition and Meaning of Public Administration

According to Luther Gulick, public administration is that part of the science of administration which has to do with the government and thus, concerns itself primarily with the executive branch, where the work of government is done. Though there are also obvious administrative problems in the legislative and judicial branches. Woodrow Wilson on his part, describes public administration as a detailed and systematic application of the law. Every particular application of law is an act of administration. The author adds that administration is the most obvious part of the government. It is the government in action. It is the executive, the operative, the most visible side of the government.

Similarly, Pfiffner stated that public administration consists of getting the work of government done by coordinating the efforts of people so that they can work together to accomplish their set tasks.

This aligns with Herbert Simon thoughts, who avers public administration as the activities of the executive branches of the national, state and local governments.

The conceptualization of public administration by White, Carson and Harries signifies that it is governmental administration concerned with execution of public policies. Specifically, White claims it consists of all the operations that targets the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy. Thus, to White, Carson and Harris, public administration is the action part of government, the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realized.

From another perspective, Balogun (1987) views the concept as the channeling of human and material resources in order to achieve the objectives of public policy. This definition brings to the fore two important aspects in the study of public administration which are vital to policy implementations. To Bosu (2003), public administration is any kind of administration in the Public's interest such as the management of governmental affairs at all levels; national, state and local.

In the view of Lapalombara (1974), public administration means "those organizationally centered directed activities, with an organization relevant to the implementation of public policies and/or the achievement of public goals." This definition looks at public administration from a policy implementation angle and sees the role of administrators as that of giving effect to the policies of government. To Mbune (2003), public administration refers to the manner in which central or federal, provincial or state, local institutions within their procedural, legal, regulatory, financial, human resource and asset aspects are organized, institutionalized and managed with respect to their regulatory, revenue extraction and spending procurement functions as well as the provision of such services as defense, social services and economic infrastructure.

From all the above definitions, public administration therefore, is the machinery and integral processes via which the government performs its functions. The following are the points to note from the definitions:

  i.   covers the three branches of government, with more focus on the executive branch.
  ii.   is the non – political public bureaucracy operating in a political system.
  iii.   is concerned with policy making, policy execution and implementation.
  iv.   involves the activities of groups cooperating to achieve the common goals of government.
  v.   provides regulating and service functions to the people in order to achieve common good.
  vi.   differs from private administration with emphasis on public good.

1.3   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: AN ART OR SCIENCE

The question of public administration being an art or a science is often raised and debated among students and scholars in the field. Before delving into this, it is important understand the meaning of the two key words *art* and *science*. Art is a skillful and systematized practice – it is a practical skill applied in producing something. It lays emphasis on practice rather than theory. Art is the knowledge that is acquired by learning and practice. Science is based on principles. Science is distinguished by the fact of general applicability whenever it is applied. Science can be divided into exact sciences like physics, biology and social sciences like economics. Science allows experimentation and verification of facts and truths of scientific laws.

1.3.1   Public Administration as an Art

Some scholars consider the public administration as an art for the following reasons:

i.   it is primarily an activity. It is concerned with the doing of deeds which have practical end in view. The art of an administration is the action part of government.

ii.   in public administration, people are not treated equally. This unequal treatment can be attributed to different factions like favouritism, nepotism or corruption. Irregular human behaviour and treatment cannot be subjected to laboratory equipment, knowledge in public administration is gained through learning.

iii.   existence of variety of definitions, broader and narrower views.

iv.   variations in human nature, human behaviours are subject to irrational acts and highly unpredictable. This affects Public Policy Formulation and Implementation. The exactitude and sure predictability that exists in the sciences is absent in public administration.

1.3.2   Public Administration as a Science

Woodrow Wilson in his work, *The Science of Public Administration*, supports the claim that public administration can be regarded as a science. Below are some of the arguments advanced in support of the view by classical writers:

i.   public administration has developed a set of principles which have the degree of exactness and certainty associated with sciences. They are of the opinion that administrative principles developed based on observation, research and experience are applicable in varied

administrative environments. Scholars like Gullick posit that administration is governed by laws and principles which are scientific

ii.   scientific methods of investigation are employed in the discipline. Behavioural and comparative methods along with sophisticated statistical techniques are employed by modern scholars in public administration. Facts on administration are collected, analyzed and tabulated scientifically.

iii.   Another proof that public administration is a science is that some form and levels of experimentation are now carried out in performing various administrative functions. The whole world can as well be seen as the laboratory of public administration. All policies and laws can be viewed as intentions to control and regulate human affairs. The laws and regulations are continually experimented upon to determine their workability for mankind.

1.3.3   Arguments Against Public Administration as a Science

Several modern writers oppose the view of the classical writers that there is a science of public administration. They offer the following arguments that public administration has not yet become a science.

i.   Herbert Simon in his book, *Administrative Behavior* dismissed the so-called principles of administration as mere proverbs. He stated that there was no scientific basis for the principles which he found to be mutually contradictory.

ii.   Robert Dahi another scholar states that the principles of administration enunciated by classical writers has no approved university validity and application of the principles. The author points out that public administration is not a science because it essentially deals with human behavior in organization. The author claims that human behaviour cannot be subjected to a controlled test and experiments in a laboratory setting.

iii.   Public administration is not a science because it is largely affected and influenced by cultural factors. Various counties have different cultures that greatly affect their Public Administration.

iv.   Public administration is not a science because it is not value free. According to Dahi, it is impossible to extract normative considerations from the problems of public administration. Thus, it is difficult for researchers of public administration to be completely objective.

After considering the argument for and against, it is clear that public administration is not an exact science like Physics or Biology. It is both an Art and a Science. Public administration has a body of systematized theories which represent the science part of administration. The ability to apply the theory correctly is the art of administration.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE AND IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is the handmaiden of government for carrying out its day to day activities. A summary of the role and importance are as follows:

i. Helps in formulation of policies (Political, economic, social, industrial) which are realistic, feasible and practical.

ii. Helps in formulating long-term and short-term plans aimed at harnessing the potential resources of the country.

iii. Develops supportive linkages with political elite, people and foreign countries to ensure political development, people's participation and good international relation.

iv. Supports the execution and implementation of policies and plans.

v. Keeps the administrative system in tune with the needs of the country through improvements and reforms.

vi. Helps in resource mobilization and utilization.

vii. Creating and sustaining an atmosphere conducive to development, growth and social change.

1.5 EVOLUTION OF MODERN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In both theory and practice, public administration has evolved and developed over the years with respect to its ideological underpinnings and structural configuration. To understand the present state of public administration as a field of inquiry it is important to study its evolution. Public Administration has passed through five major phases of development, namely:

Period 1:   The Politics – Administration dichotomy (1887 – 1926).

Period 2:   The Principles of Administration (1927 – 1937).

Period 3:   The Shadows of doubts (1938 – 1947).

Period 4:   The search for identity/Public Administration as management (1948 – 1970).

Period 5:   Public Administration as Public Administration (1971 – Continuing).

Period I: The Politics – Administration Dichotomy (1887 – 1926)

Woodrow is regarded as the father of public administration. Public administration as a discipline was born in the United States. In 1887, Woodrow Wilson published an article, "The Study of Administration" in which he made the case for the development of the scientific foundation of the discipline. Wilson emphasized the need for a separate study of public administration and made a distinction between politics and administration. The dominant theme of this contemporary period was its premises that politics and administration were to be kept distinct and separate. Efficiency and economy were to be the watchword of public administration.

Frank Goodnow is another scholar that further continued this view. In his book "Politics and Administration" published in 1900, he opined that there were two separate functions of the government - politics and administration. He sought to clearly distinguish the two functions. According to Goodnow, "politics has to do with politics or expression of the state will" while "administration has to do with the execution of those politics." He differentiated the institutional locations of the two functions stating that the location of politics was the legislature while that of administration was the bureaucracy. Another scholar that strengthened the politics and administration dichotomy thesis during this era was Leonard D. White, in the book titled, "Introduction to the study of Public Administration." The author posited that public administration was capable of becoming a science, stating that whatever it scrutinized within the executive branch can be regarded as scientific and factual.

Goodnow and White were major scholars during this era who attempted to carve out an independent niche for public administration. They were strongly of the opinion that politics and administration were two distinct activities and were to be treated and studied separately. To White, efficiency and economy were to be the concerns of public administration. Goodnow's interested was with the legislature. The author affirmed that judicial interpretation provided the policy direction for the executive to administer politically, efficiently and impartially. However, scholars like Golembiewski contested the claims of the scholars of this era stating that the distinction between politics and administration is not monolithic, either in focus or locus. They contend that the two functions are not performed in different loci.

Clearly, the dominant feature of the first period of evolution of modern public administration was a passionate belief in the politics in administration dichotomy.

Period II: The Principles of Administration (1927 – 1937)

The second period in the history of public administration focused on the efficiency of the principles of administration. During this period, scholars posited that public administration was a distinct and separate activity with clearly defined principles. The following books were published by scholars of the era all of which propounded a number of overarching principles of administration:

a) Luther H. Gullick and Lyndall Urwick papers on the *Science of Administration*.
b) W. F. Wiloughby's *Principles of Public Administration* (1927).
c) Mary Parker Follet's *Creative Experience* (1924).
d) Henry Fayol's *Industrial and General Management* (1930).
e) Mooney and Reiley's *Principles of Organization* (1939), and
f) James D. Mooney and Alan Reileys' *Principles of Organization* (1935).

The central belief of this era was that there existed certain "principles of administration" which must be discovered and applied to increase the economy and efficiency of public administration. This was when the claims that public administration was a science began to emerge. The era was called the stage of orthodoxy. Scholars made efforts to firmly delineate the boundaries of anew disciple of public management. The principles of administration brought about the flowering of public administration both in academic and professional circles. Research in the field of public administration massively expanded, universities and colleges began to run programmes in public administration. Scholars affirm that this era which coincided with the great depression in the United States marked the golden years of "principles" in the history of public administration (Adejuwon & Ehianne, 2011). Public administration commanded a high degree of respectability, and its products were in great demand in both government and business sectors.

The most notable contribution to literature at this era was the famous Hawthorne experiments in the late 1920s, carried out by a group of scholars at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric Company. The experiments which focused on work groups demonstrated the powerful influence of social and psychological factors on the work situation. The results of the experiments shook the foundations of the scientific management school of F. W. Taylor. The experiments expressed the shortcomings and limitations of the machine concept of organization in scientific management thought.

Period III: The Shadow of Doubt (1938 – 1947)

The next phase of evolution in public administration is the shadow of doubt period when the mainstream public administration came under immense criticism and challenges. The challenge came

with the rejection of the idea of politics – administration dichotomy and the principles of administration which was considered lacking in scientific validity.

The major scholarly publications during this era are as follows:

a) Chester Barnard: *The functions of the executive* (1938).
b) Herbert Simon's article *Proverbs of Administration* (1946).
c) Herbert Simon: *Administrative Behaviour. A study in Decision making* (1947).
d) Dwight Waldo: *The Administrative State* (1948).
e) Robert Dahl: *The Service of Administration* (1947), and
f) Fritz Max: *Elements of Public Administration* (1946).

Chester Barnard published his book, "The Functions of the Executive" in 1938 and argued against the stand taken by Wiloughby, Gulick, Urwick and others in respect of politics-administration dichotomy. On his part, Herbert Simon rejected the idea of politics-administration dichotomy and rather proposed an empirical approach to the study of public administration. In Herbert Simon's book "Administrative Behaviour: A study of decision making", he showed that for every principle of administration earlier enunciated, there was a counter principle. He rendered the whole basis of principles of administration redundant. He affirmed that the paraded principles were in fact, no better than proverbs of administration.

Fritz Marx in his book "Elements of Public Administration" questioned the notion that politics and administration should be dichotomized. He argues that both cannot be separated because of their political nature. With the emergence of new and hard facts, the two principal pillars of public administration, the principles of administration and the politics-administration dichotomy were abandoned by scholars. Thus, public administration lost its pillar of strength and the discipline came on the verge of losing its identity.

The conception of the principles of administration was criticized by Robert Dahl in his easy titled "The Science of Public Administration." According to Dahl, the study and conception of public administration inevitably must become a much more broadly-based discipline extending to the varying historical, economic and sociological functions and not resting on narrowly defined knowledge of techniques and processes. Dahi also criticized the "machine" concept of organizations and argued that the whole psychological men must be embraced in the study of public administration.

Owing to the various criticisms, the morale of the discipline was low. The field of study was looking in different directions for the way forward, when a high-profile scholar John Gams wrote in 1950

that public administration meant at that time a theory of politics, the abandonment of the politics-administration dichotomy climaxed. Similarly, the principles of administration by Herbert Simon were severely criticized at this period.

Period IV: Search for Identity/Public Administration as Management

This period was one of severe identity crisis for public administration as a discipline. The abandonment of politics administration dichotomy and the principles of administration left the discipline in quandary. This period witnessed the spectacle of political science not encouraging the growth and development of public administration within its own field. Scholars in the field began searching for an alternative. For a number of scholars, the Management option which is sometimes called "administrative science" or 'generic management' was an attractive alternative. Administrative management science became an option. Some of the academic contributions during the era include:

   a) The journal of administrative science quarterly founded in 1956.
   b) James, G. Merch and Simon's *Organizations* (1958).
   c) Cyert and Marah's *A behavioural Theory of the Firm* (1963).
   d) March's *Handbook of Organizations* 1(967).
   e) James D. Thompson's *Organization in Action* (1963), and
   f) Catheryn Secker – Hudan's *Basic Concepts in the study of Public Management* (1955).

During this era, scholars like Catheryn Secker established the link between public administration. management and political science. While recognizing the political and policy implications of actions within public administration's setting, Secker emphasized the problems of public management. Along with other scholars, who gave solid theoretical reasons for choosing management, along with organizational theory as the paradigm of public administration.

Organizational development began its rapid rise as a specialty of management in the early 1960s. Research focus of the younger Public Administrators was on organizational development.

Period V: Public Administration as Public Administration (1971 – Continuing)

This period of evolution focused on public policy analysis. During the last three decades, there was considerable progress in establishing the identity of public administration. The discipline had attracted within its fold scholars from diverse disciplines. Scholars in public administration were increasingly showing interest in related fields of political science, policy making and analysis, political economy and so on.

The formation of the National Association of schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) was founded in 1970. This to many represented an act of secession by Public Administration from political science and management science. However, progress has now been made in the theory and practice methodologies of public administration. The discipline focuses more and more attention on administration. As captured by James Fesler, public administration is policy execution and policy formulation. It is bureaucratic and its public.

1.6   PRIVATE ADMINISTRATION

Private administration can be described as the management and organization of private business enterprises or all activities concerned with profit making (or non-profit making in some cases) carried out by private individuals or group of individuals with little cost of production and mostly targeted to maximize profit. It is a type of business activity with no involvement of political class or group. It is noteworthy that some private business enterprises are not established for the main motive of profit maximization but for promotion of specific causes such as maximization of social or economic welfare of their members or members of the general public. These non-profits making private business enterprises include Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Cooperative societies, Charity Homes, etc.

From the foregoing, private administration is concerned with the activities of private organizations and institutions that are not owned jointly or principally by the government. Whatever management decision or policy implemented in private organizations, belong in the realm of private organization or administration. Private administration recruits their personnel in a private manner. Their training and development can be internal or external depending on the organizations and the nature of services rendered.

1.7   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

From the definitions of public administration as a discipline, it implies that it comprises those activities that are involved in carrying out the policies and programs of government.

1.7.1   Characteristics of Public Administration

In brief, the characteristics and features of Public Administration are as follows:

    i.   It is the non-political bureaucracy operating in a political system.

    ii.   It is the business side of government concerned with policy excavation. However, it is also concerned with policy making.

    iii.   It provides regulatory and service functions to the citizens in order to attain good life.

iv.   Public administration deals with the ends of the state, the save reign will, the public interests and the laws.

v.   It differs significantly from private administration with emphasis on public good.

vi.   covers the three branches of government, with more focus on the executive branch.

vii.   It is the interdisciplinary in nature as the discipline draws upon other social sciences like political science, economics, and sociology.

1.7.2   Nature of Public Administration

There are two broad views regarding the nature of public administration, namely: Integral and Managerial views.

The integral view – Administration here, is the sum total of all the activities - manual, clerical, technical, managerial, etc., which are undertaken to realize the objectives in view. This means that all the acts of the officials of government from the least public servant to the highest in government constitute public administration.

A scholar in public administration, L. D. White is a staunch supporter of this view. In his opinion, all operations undertaken by all operatives of government from the lowest to the highest in the implementation of public policies constitute public administration. This makes the scope of public administration massive and vast.

The Managerial View: According to this view, administration comprises the work of only those persons who are engaged in performing managerial functions in an organization. This view therefore excludes from the purview of public administration, non – managerial activities such as clerical, manual, and technical activities. This view regards administrative is getting things done not going things. Luther Guthrick asserts that administration has to do with getting things done, with the accomplishment of defined objectives. Thus, in the managerial view, public administration focuses principally on the planning, organizing, directing, controlling, and coordinating of government operators.

1.7.3   Scope of Public Administration.

The scope of public administration refers to the major concerns of the public administration as an activity and discipline. There has been much debate over the scope of the discipline on the area.

1.7.3.1 Broader and Narrower Views

The broader view conceives public administration to cover the comprehensive sphere of legislative, executive, or judicial branch of the government. According to this view, public administration is the whole government in action. Scholars such as F.A. Nigro and L.G. Nigro aver that all the three branches of government are part of the study and practice of public administration.

In narrower view, public administration deals with only the activities of the executive organ of government. Judicial and legislative agencies are excluded. Smith Burg and Thompson are notable scholars associated with this view.

1.7.3.2 The POSDCORB View

Luther Guthick is the proponent of the POSDCORB view. The acronym sums up the various administrative purpose as POSDCORB contains the first letter of seven administrative process namely.

P   -   Stands for planning

O   -   Stands for organizing

S   -   Staffing stands for staffing

D   -   Stands for Directing

Co   -   Stands for Coordinating

R   -   Stands for Reporting, and

B   -   Stands for Budgeting

The POSDCORB view gives certainty, unity, and definiteness to the study of public administration. It makes the study systematic. Although the POSDCORB formula was a useful and necessary development in the thirties, it proved to be too limited in explaining the full scope of the dynamic field of Public Administration.

1.7.3.3 The Subject Matter View

This view is a reaction to the POSDCORB view of the scope of Public Administration. The subject matter view is the technical knowledge of the areas or fields which enable administrators to carry out their tasks.

1.7.3.4 Other views regarding the scope of Public Administration

Other scopes of Public Administration include:

- Public Personnel Management
- Organizational theory
- Comparative Public Administration
- Development Administration and
- Public Policy Analysis.

1.8   POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION

Scholars of politics and administration in public administration have different opinions on the dichotomy between policies and administration. For instance, Woodrow Wilson in an article in 1887 had argued that policies should not interfere in administration. Similarly, L. D. White insists that politics should be completely insulated from administration because the mission of administration is efficiency and economy.

Other scholars with opposite viewpoints include Appleby, who said that public administration is simply policy making. He maintained that public administration is one of the basic political processes by which government policies are executed. Some other scholars have suggested that public administration is more of management science than political science. Their emphasis is on organizational theory as the central paradigm of public administration. Such scholars include Henderson, Simon and Thompson.

1.9   DICHOTOMY BETWEEN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

1.9.1   Political Direction

Public administration is political, while private administration is non-political. Public administration takes place in a political context. Public administrators work under political direction and scrutiny. Public administrators put into effect the policies made by the elected members of the legislature and political executive (Ministers). Private administration, on the contrary, is not subject to political direction except in times of emergency. It functions largely under the influence of market economic conditions.

1.9.2   Absence of Profit Motive

The absence of profit motive from the public administration is said to be another feature which distinguishes it from the private administration. The primary purpose of governmental organizations

is to provide services to the people and promote social good. They are not oriented towards making profits for the Government. Government, very often, has to provide even unprofitable and costly services (e.g., health, education and defense) in the public interest. If such services are not provided people would face hardship.

1.9.3 Consistency of Treatment

The government official is required by law to maintain a high degree of consistency in his dealings with the public. He must observe the principle of equity of treatment in serving the people. He is under legal obligation not to show any discrimination against any person. If he shows any favor to anybody, all others are entitled to similar treatment. In other words, the public official is denied discretion in the interests of fairness and equality. On the other hand, the business administrator is not legally obliged to treat the small and big customers alike. Private business concerns have the ability to show preference to large clients. Thus, business administrators need not observe the principle of equity of treatment in their dealings with their customers.

1.9.4 Public Accountability

Public accountability is the hallmark of public administration in a democracy. The Public administrator carries on his work in a *glass bowl*. His actions are always open to public review and scrutiny. His activities must be guided by public needs and public opinion. In a democracy, public administration is held accountable

1.10 SIMILARITIES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ADMINISTRATION

The following similarities between the two types of administration may be noted:

1. Both public and private administration rely on common techniques relating to planning, organization, budgeting, delegation, control, and the likes. Both make use of common skills such as accounts keeping, maintaining files, etc.
2. In modern times, the principle of motive is not peculiar to private administration. Profit making is now accepted as a laudable objective for the public sector also. The business organizations have also developed the sense of community service. They have also taken wider responsibilities in the society.
3. Private administration is also subjected to many legal constraints. Government is exercising much control over business firms through taxation, monetary and licensing policies. Consequently, they are not as free as they used to be.

4. In personnel management, the private organizations have been influenced greatly by the practice of public administration. For example, the private organizations have come to realize the need to treat employees fairly.

1.11   ENVIRONMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration essentially is concerned with managing human beings, therefore, to a very large extent it is influenced by the environment in which it is required to function. Riggs, a major scholar in Development Administration in his book, "The Ecology of Public Administration" examined the interaction between public administration and the environment in which it operates. According to Riggs, the study of the environment whether political, economic, social, cultural, etc., affects the nature of administration. A study of the environment is unavoidable for any proper study of public administration.

1.11.1 Relationship of Environment with Public Administration

There is a direct link between public administration and the environment it is situated and functions. Certain social and cultural traditions and systems directly affects how organizations and administrative systems in their domain grow and develop. The basic premise of the ecological approach to the study of public administration as postulate by Riggs is that the discipline is one of the several institutions of the society. Therefore, it can only be studied in relation to other institutions and the environment.

1.11.2 Politico–Constitutional Environment of Public Administration

The political and constitutional environment of a nation normally affects the public administration of the country. The framing of the constitution of a country greatly affects its public administration. When major political and constitutional changes occur, the administrative system is also affected. Public administration is most intimately connected with the political subsystem of the society.

1.11.3 Economic Environment in Public Administration

The economic environment of a country invariably affects the functions, form, and structure of its public administration. Adequate economic resources are necessary for the effective running of a good administrative system. In essence, the administration of a country controls its economic life and vice versa. Without adequate economic resources, no public administrative system can run efficiently. The survival of the administration of any nation depends on the support provided by the economy.

The inter-relationship and inter-dependence between public administration and the economy thus become obvious.

The economic environment at any society comprises its financial institutions, the natural and mineral resources, the organized private sector, technology, and agriculture among others. All these have varying effects on public administration of the country.

1.12   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND BUREAUCRACY

The word bureaucracy is derived from the root word bureau, which stands for the "post or office under a government." According to Naidu (2004), in a modern nation-state, bureaucracy is the dominant form of organization in the public sector. It occupies a significant place in contemporary society. Its activities affect the social, political, and economic aspects of life. Most of today's governments have come to rely on bureaucracy to carry out administrative tasks. In essence, the bureaucracy is the major vehicle of public administration.

In public administration, bureaucracy is like a lens by which the core of modern organizations can be viewed. Bureaucracy in its purest form does not exist though it has in no small measure contributed to the field of public administration and it is a dependable means of meeting organizational aims and objectives.

1.12.1 Need for Bridging the Gap between People and Bureaucracy

For effective administration, there is need to bridge the gap between the bureaucrats and the citizens. The word bureaucracy has acquired an opprobrious meaning as the sum of impressions that springs to mind at its mention is slowness, inefficiency, lack of initiative, rigidity in the approach of dealing with people's needs and downright stubbornness in the way public officials go about their government business.

For effective public administration, public servants must have good rapport with the people they serve to engender mutual understandings.

1.12.2 Committed Bureaucracy

A committed bureaucracy is one that is politicized and expected to operate by the ideology of the elites or ruling party in a State. In a committed bureaucracy, the ruling political party uses the public bureaucracy to further their objectives. Hence a committed bureaucracy is also referred to as a politicized bureaucracy. The extent of politicization can be extensive, major or limited. In a semi politicized bureaucracy, public servants go as far as joining political parties in power and attending

their meetings. Some States like Cuba, China and communist societies have committed bureaucracies.

In Britain, beginning from the reforms of 1882, the bureaucracy was expected to be neutral. In the USA after the scope of the spoilt system became limited, the bureaucracy became neutral. The USA and Britain are therefore, examples of neutral bureaucracies.

1.13   ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

The nature of the administration of a country largely depends on its level of development. Developed countries are characterized by features such as high level of industrialization, high Gross Domestic Product (GDP), high per capita income level and high standard of living.

Due to the high level of infrastructural development in the developed countries, public administration plays a lesser and more limited role than in developing countries. In the developed world, there exists a high level of private ownership of public goods and services. The management of public enterprises are mainly privatized thereby limiting the role of public administration.

1.14   FEATURES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

The important features and characteristics of Public Administration in developed countries include the following:

a) The Max Weber ideal bureaucratic model is most applicable to the developed nations. The bureaucracy is highly specialized and retains in its ranks most of the occupational and professional cadres represented in the society.

    The bureaucracy exhibits a high degree of professionalism. Specialized departments like transport, agriculture, fiscal planning, etc. function on their own sphere. Also, the bureaucracy is subject to effective policy control by other institutions.

b) The system of Public Administration and government organization is highly differentiated and functionally specific political and bureaucratic roles are assigned based on achievement rather than ascription. Competence and merit are the standards for bureaucratic recruitment.

c) Procedures for making political decisions are largely rational and secular. An impersonal law system exists as traditional values have no effect on the system.

d) The clear mission of the public service of developed countries is large scale. The mission is clearly understood to be executing the policies of the political decision makers.

e) The aim of demarcation between the political institutions and the bureaucracy is generally defined and accepted. This is because the political system is stable and mature while the bureaucracy itself is fully developed and mature.

1.15 PROBLEMS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Public administration also encounters some problems even in developed nations of the world. The problem surfaces at the local and municipal levels where they design their own programmes and must also execute other programmes initiated and funded by the national authorities. There exists lack of coherence between various regulatory bodies and other service providing agencies.

The challenge of public administration in some developed just like the developing countries, is economic. Following the challenges of economic depressions much pressure has been put on services provided by the government. The removal of some benefits hitherto enjoyed by the citizens has led to criticisms.

1.16 ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Public administration is crucial and plays a pivotal role in developing countries. The areas where there is lack of the basic essentials are in developing countries. Public administration is crucial in the developing countries because of the incidence of under-development and poor standard of living. It is a vehicle to enhance the living standards of life and provide the basic necessities of life. In developing countries, public administration is the greatest employer of labour.

Public administration is so crucial because the general welfare of the people in developing countries is at its lowest ebb. Social amenities such as good drinking water, hospitals are inadequate, general living standard is low and the economy is badly managed. Public administration is the vehicle to eradicate these problems.

Currently, developing countries are confronted with poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, ill health condition, starvation, economic degradation, malnutrition, corruption, etc., in the different segments of the society and various stages of administration. Public administration can help to eradicate all these problems and maladies through nation building and socio-economic developments. So, it is not only the responsibility of the central government but also the prime duty of the state administrations to join hands for nation building. In order to bring changes to the above developmental measures, the government should engross in the following developmental activities:

i. provide capital for economic and social development.

ii.   eradicate poverty, disease, and social illness in the social sphere.

iii.   improve social institutions for the upliftment and intellectual development of the society.

In the third world countries - Asia, Africa and Latin America, public administration is crucial role to national progress. These countries became economically and politically weak after colonial rule, so it is the principal duty of the public sector organizations to develop infrastructure for their progress. Though, a great challenge for public administration, the goal is not unattainable. The present century demands from the public administration institutional changes in the governmental organization and attitudinal changes in the individual set up. For the transformation of the society, public administration should be reconstructed, renewed, and strengthened; because the problem of development and social change can only be removed by effective public administration. Public administration is a type of machinery which itself changes according to the changing environment. This is called modernization and development of administrative machinery. Assessment by the Second United Nations Development Decade, emphasizes the following:

a.   To bring changes in the socio-economic field, there is need for 'administrative revolution.'

b.   Inapplicable administrative structure, systems and practices should be replaced by active and dynamic mechanisms.

c.   There should be a commitment and capability of implementing plans, programs, and projects of the public administration.

According to Gerald Caiden, the crucial role of public administration in contemporary society assumes preservation of the polity via:

a.   Maintenance of stability and order

b.   Institutionalization of socio-economic changes

c.   Management of large-scale commercial services

d.   Ensuring growth and economic development

e.   Protection of the weaker section of the society

f.   Formation of public opinion

g.   Influence of public policies and political trends

1.17   ORGANIZATION THEORY

Organizational theories which explain organizations and their various structures can be broadly classified as classical or modern.

1.17.1 The Classical Organization Theory

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

1.17.2 Taylor's Scientific Management Approach

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

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

Taylor developed the following four principles of scientific management for improving productivity: Science, not the old rule-of-thumb. This should be supplanted by a scientific approach to each element of a person's work. Scientific selection of organizational members should be based on some analysis, and then trained, taught, and developed.

Management and labour cooperation rather than conflict management should collaborate with all organizational members so that all work can be done in conformity with the scientific principles developed. Scientific training of the workers should be done by experts, using scientific methods.

1.17.3 Weber's Bureaucratic Approach

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

- ➢ Structure: In the organization, positions should be arranged in a hierarchy, each with a particular, established amount of responsibility and authority.
- ➢ Specialization: Tasks should be distinguished on a functional basis, and then separated according to specialization, each having a separate chain of command.

- ➤ Predictability and stability: The organization should operate according to a system of procedures consisting of formal rules and regulations.
- ➤ Rationality: Recruitment and selection of personnel should be impartial.
- ➤ Democracy: Responsibility and authority should be recognized by designations and not by persons.

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

1.17.4 Administrative Theory

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

- ➤ Division of work or specialization: This increases productivity in both technical and managerial work.
- ➤ Authority and responsibility: These are imperative for an organizational member to accomplish the organizational objectives.
- ➤ Discipline: Members of the organization should honour the objectives of the organization. They should also comply with the rules and regulations of the organization.
- ➤ Unity of command: This means taking orders from and being responsible to only one superior.
- ➤ Unity of direction: Members of the organization should jointly work toward the same goals.
- ➤ Subordination of individual interest to general interest: The interest of the organization should not become subservient to individual interests or the interest of a group of employees.
- ➤ Remuneration of personnel: This can be based on diverse factors such as time, job, piece rates, bonuses, profit-sharing or non-financial rewards.
- ➤ Centralization: Management should use an appropriate blend of both centralization and de-centralization of authority and decision making.
- ➤ Scalar chain: If two members who are on the same level of hierarchy have to work together to accomplish a project, they need not follow the hierarchy level, but can interact with each other on a 'gang plank' if acceptable to the higher officials.
- ➤ Order: The organization has a place for everything and everyone who ought to be so engaged.
- ➤ Equity Fairness, justice and equity should prevail in the organization.
- ➤ Stability of tenure of personnel: Job security improves performance. An employee requires some time to get used to new work and do it well.
- ➤ Initiative: This should be encouraged and stimulated.

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

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

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

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

1.17.5 The Neo-Classical Theory

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

1.17.5.1 Principles of the Neo-Classical Approach

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

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

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

> Participative management: Participative management permits workers to participate in the decision-making process. This was a new form of management to ensure increase in productivity.

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

1.17.6 The Modern Theories

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

- a system's viewpoint,
- a dynamic process of interaction,
- multi-levelled and multi-dimensional,
- multi-motivated,
- probabilistic,
- multidisciplinary,
- descriptive,
- multivariable, and
- adaptive.

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Modern understandings of the organization can be broadly classified into:

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

1.17.7 The Systems Approach

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

i. Components: There are five basic, interdependent parts of the organizing system, namely:

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

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

    - Communication: is a means for eliciting action, exerting control and effecting coordination to link decision centres in the system in a composite form.
    - Balance is the equilibrium between different parts of the system so that they keep a harmoniously structured relationship with one another.
    - Decision analysis is also considered to be a linking process in the systems approach. Decisions may be to produce or participate in the system. Decision to produce depends upon the attitude of the individual and the demands of the organization. Decision to participate refers to the individual's decisions to engross themselves in the organization process. That depends on what they get and what they are expected to do in participative decision making.

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

1.17.8 Socio-Technical Approach

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

1.17.9 The Contingency or Situational Approach

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

1.18   DYNAMICS OF ORGANIZATION

Dynamics of organizations, otherwise known as group dynamics, deals basically with people's interaction within the different groups in the organization. It is a result of individual personalities and behaviour as well as a conditioner of that behaviour. It takes into consideration the fact that organizations are not static and so also are the groups' behaviour within the organizations. This interaction involves a continuous change and adjustment with the groups. The overriding goal of group dynamics is to examine the elements and processes of groups in order to fashion out policies or laws that will influence or govern their behaviour or operation.

1.18.1 Meaning, Nature and Dynamics of Organization

Dynamics is a Greek word for movement or change in any sphere or causal force. It is defined in an organization as the structure of the relationships, power, objectives, roles, activities, communications and other factors that exist, when persons work together. An organization can be defined as two or more people who work together in a structured way to achieve a specific goal or set of goals.

Dynamics of organization also known as group dynamics is the social process by which people interact face to face in small groups. The study of group processes was not identified as a separate field of research and inquiry until the late1990's, with the work of Kurt Lewin and his associates.

Lewin popularized the term ''group dynamics'' and aided in the establishment of the research centre for group dynamics, the first organization devoted to exclusive study of group phenomena. Lewin is therefore, considered to be the father of group dynamics (Flippo, 1996, 312).

As the term 'dynamics 'indicate, the process is not a static one, involving as it does a continuous change and adjustment or relationships within the group. As pointed out by Lewin, the dynamic group is not merely the sum of the individual members; instead, it is a result of individual personalities and behaviour as well as a conditioner of that behaviour. The goal group dynamics is to study the elements and processes of groups in order to formulate laws which influence and govern their operation.

1.18.2 Types of Groups in Organizations

Fiedler (1967,18-21) has identified three groups based upon their type of interdependence:

- Interacting group
- Co-acting group
- Counteracting group

Interacting Group

In an interacting group, the ability of one man to perform his job may depend upon the fact that another has completed his share of the task. An example of this type of group exists in banking institutions. A bank draft cannot be issued by the officers in charge unless there is evidence that the cash cover has been collected by the cashier. The same goes in an assembly plant where the work of coupling passes through so many stages and it is only when stage one has been completed that you move into stage two.

Co-acting Group

A Co-acting group is designed so that each of the group members does his job relatively independently of other team members. This type of group is exemplified by many sales' management groups, such as a life assurance agency.

Counteracting Group

A counteracting group consists of individuals who are working together for the purpose of negotiating and reconciling conflicting opinions and purposes. This type of groups is illustrated by a labour management negotiation team.

1.18.3 Formal and Informal Groups

Formal groups are officially designated, authority and responsibilities which are based on tasks or position that are related to technology and are delegated by higher management. Formal groups are found in all organizations as the legitimate sub-units of the organization that has been established by the organizations 'charter or by managerial decree. Examples of formal groups include small departments, work crews, committees and project teams. In formal groups, goals, rules, membership and the leadership are usually specified by the parent organization. Informal groups can also be found in all organizations as the formal groups.

These groups emerge aside from the officially prescribed plan of the organization and they exist as relatively autonomous subcultures within the organization. Informal organization is association that develops without the planning, leadership or sponsorship of the manager. It creates its own relationship shaped by skills and competence of the individual members by length of service, age, reputation and by other personal characteristics. An informal group usually exists when people work in close proximity to each or interact frequently in their jobs. Hence, the membership of an informal group coincides with that of a formal work group.

Informal groups tend to be quite small in size of membership and in a large formal group, there are likely to be several small informal 'cliques.' These cliques are usually composed of persons who have the same type of job or have similar interests and backgrounds. This unofficial unit may exist as a result of geopolitical, tribal, brotherly or maternal affiliation.

1.18.4 Characteristics of Groups

Groups in organizations are characterized by the following:

1. Group process
2. Group goals
3. Structure
4. Size
5. Participation and participant

6. Cohesiveness
7. Norms

Group Process: According to UK Leadership Development Centre (UKL DC, 2010), group process refers to how an organizations' members work together and get things done. Typically, organizations spend a great deal of time and energy setting and striving to reach goals but consider what is happening between and to the groups greatest resource – its members. Knowledge about how group members share common goals and work with one another helps to integrate newcomers and prepare them for the roles, norms and cohesiveness of the group

Group Goals: These are derived from basic organization objectives and provide the basis for continued interaction. Two types of goals usually exist in a group viz task-goals and maintenance goals. Task –goals are those related to the performance of formal organization tasks while maintenance goals are related to maintenance of the group. Consequently, two sets of behaviours occur among group members tasked oriented behaviour which includes behaviours that aids the group in electing goals and making progress in attaining them and maintenance oriented behaviour that aids in improving interpersonal relationships, maintaining cohesiveness and managing conflict among group members

Group Structure: Every group in an organization has both formal and informal structures. Organizational structure is a framework that holds various functions, departments, individual positions and their relationship for order and logical arrangement. Group structure which can be represented in a diagram shows the major functions and their respective relationship, the channel of authority and who is in charge of each respective function.

Group Size: This refers to the number of members that make up the group. The size of a group influences its cohesiveness. Small groups are likely to be more cohesive than large groups. They maintained that as a group grows larger, it has become more difficult for each member to interact with the other members; people usually prefer to limit most of their interactions to a relatively small circle of friends and colleagues. Though no precise optimum group size has been discovered, but the ideal is reached when every member has the opportunity of contributing according to his maximum ability. It has been found that as size increases the degree of consensus in group discussion decreases, factionalism and the formation of subgroups become definite possibilities.

Participation and Participants: A group consist of both participants as well as leaders. The size of the group is a major factor in determining the nature and degree of participation. The power and status structures are also important in that there tend to be greater participation when these relationships are substantially equal. Participative leadership also tends to stimulate more member participation than does authoritarian.

Cohesiveness: This refers to all of the forces that causes individuals to remain in a group. It is the degree of attraction that the group has for each of its members. It is exemplified by such attitudes and actions that make one loyal to a group, a feeling of responsibility for group endeavors, defending the group against attack, friendliness and congeniality, and a tendency to think in terms of 'WE'' instead of ''I''.

Group Norms: They are standardized generalizations concerning expected behaviour in matters that are of some importance of the group. A norm is accepted by group members. It is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members.

A rule dictates what must be done by another whereas norm refers to what should be done. Group norm is a standard of behaviour. In other words, group norm is a rule that tells the individual how to behave in a particular group. Thus, group norms identify the standards against which behaviour of group members will be evaluated and help the group members know what they should not do. Norms could be formal or could be informal.

Example: In a group that drinks tea together every evening a norm arises. Every day a different member buys tea for the other members of the group. The individuals are expected to comply with group norms. The factors responsible for the emergence of group norms are:

1. Members of the group seek to validate their beliefs.
2. If the group wants to maintain its identity there must be uniformity in attitudes and actions of the members. While facing problems, the interactions of members of the group must be coordinated. Then together, the group can survive.
3. There are pivotal and relevant group norms. While the pivotal norms are confirmed by every member of the group, the relevant norms are desirable to be confirmed by the members. With increase in the size of the group, the acceptability of norms tends to lessen. Small deviation of norms is allowable. However, in case of extreme deviation, the deviator gets punished. For

example, when the union is on strike, its members attending to work punished by being boycotted by the group. Thus, the group norms have following characteristics:

4. As personality reveals an individual, so group norms do for groups.

5. Norms serve as the basis for behaviour of group members.

6. They predict and control the behaviour of members in groups.

7. Norms are applied to all members of the group, though not uniformly.

1.19 DICHOTOMY BETWEEN POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION

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

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

One way of differentiating politics from administration is in terms of careers and vocations. With regards to this view, politics is concerned in democracies with the activities of elected representatives and those who elect them or influence them and the activities of professional administrators as advisers. But this distinction does not hold at all times in view of the enormous influence wielded by top professional administrators in public policymaking as a result of their technical expertise which most elected members of the state and National Assemblies do not possess.

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

Figure 1:

Melting Critical Point

Political Process   Administrative Process

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

The conventional view of this image would show all, or nearly all, the lines of forces moving in opposite direction - that is from the political to the administrative. They would show political will being generated by the activities of political parties, interest groups, public opinion, elected representatives etc., and then discharged into the administrative system where they are broken down into successively more detailed stages of application. This picture contains a fair degree of truth since it is generally the case that the stronger drives and impulses originate within the political process. Concisely, it can be said that the political processes are concerned with interaction and influences and also, the ability for the political will to flow into the administrative system and back to the political process while administration centre on the efficiency of the political processes.

1.20 PRACTICAL ELEMENTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SYSTEMS MODELS IN NIGERIA

Public administration could be seen as a decision-making venture. It is the formulation and implementation of the governmental goals, objectives, aims, targets, and aspiration. Public administration is also, the planning, assessment, appraising performance by government executive and supervisors. It is therefore action part of the government. Public administration can at times be referred to as public management or the two worlds used interchangeably with other concepts like government administration and public sector administration. It is concerned with how a country's administration is organized and how it functions. In Nigeria, there are three levels of public administration, and they are:

  i.   federal government administration
  ii.   state government administration
  iii. local government administration.

However, the continuous yearning for efficiency and effectiveness in the conduct of government business has been a recurring issue which successive government have tried to address and redress

albeit with little success. The search for best practices in the system is expected to serve three major aims:

The first is the redefinition of the role of the government which will ensure performance of only those functions that will be at the level of the state. Second, is the introduction of efficiency measures which is intended to enhance the public sector management and make the system more result oriented, and third is to introduce measures that will instill accountability, transparency and greater participation of the citizens in the issues that concerns them. This calls for a study of practical elements of public administration systems models; first by discussing system theory and its contribution to public administration. Then a thorough review of the New Public Management model (NPM) which describes a new management culture that emphasize the centrality of the people, result oriented and accountability.

1.20.1 System Model

A system is the conceptual model that describes and represents an entire gamut of activities. It comprises multiple views such as planning, requirement, design, Implementation, deployment, structure, behaviour, input throughput and output data views. A system is required to describe and represent all independent parts, which interact with the environment by importing inputs and processes them through the in-put while exporting the outputs in order to maintain a state of equilibrium. When applied to public administration, it represents inputs from the environment in form of citizens' demands for the provision of goods and services and its administration goes through conversion process and is eventually delivered as outputs in form of orderliness of the society, provision of quality and quantity of goods and services, policies, decisions, programmes, projects, etc. Essentially, we view the organizational system as a sub-system of the wider society or the total social system. The society is seen in terms of parts and functions, functional parts that exhibit varying degrees of functional independence and conversely functional autonomy. Although, the parts or sub-systems compete for resources, it is expected that they will contribute towards maintaining the system as on-going entity. The features of system theory are, a system:

➢ connotes a whole system or sub-systems that are interdependent,
➢ has permeable boundaries,
➢ imports inputs into the system by interacting with the environment, and
➢ exports output from the system so as to maintain a state of equilibrium.

The classical theorists view organizations as closed while the modern theorists view same organization as open. The above views of system theory will work well in an open system.

This is schematically represented hereunder as public administration system Input-Output Matrix.

Figure 2   **Input**

Conversion Process   **Output**

Goods/services

1.   Public Demand
2.   Support (discipline, payment of taxes etc.)

Feedback

Environment

(Political, economic, social, legal, technological, ethical etc.)
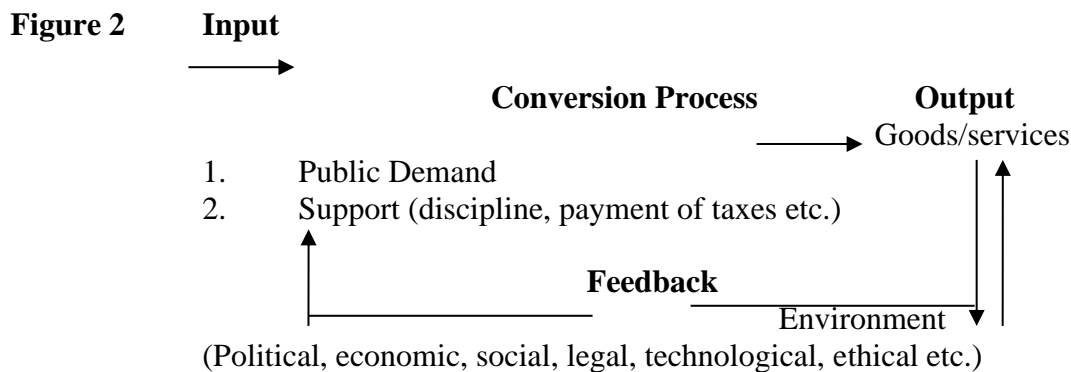
Public administration receives inputs from its environment. This comes in form of demands citizens make to the government for the provision of goods and services. These demands are processed by the governmental institutions such as public administration outcome of this process is seen as output. This is seen in form of quality and quantity of goods and services, security, orderliness, efficiency, effectiveness transparency, timely delivery of these goods and services etc.

Contribution of the System Theory to Public Administration

There are quite a good number of contributions made by this theory to public administration. Listed below are some of these contributions:

1. System theory is all embracing as it sees and treats the organization administration as a whole system rather than as fragmented parts.

2. It provides a good platform for proper planning, execution of actions and anticipated outputs and feedback.

3. It assists the administrators to see the various needs of interdependent parts or sub-systems as well as relate them to the goal of the whole system.

4. It adapts to the open system theory while still employing other systems but more importantly, it emphasis is on interaction between the system and its ecology.

1.20.2 The New Public Management (NPM)

New public management is a name that is used to describe a management culture that is people oriented, result oriented and accountable for its actions. It is the management techniques that shifts from the traditional or bureaucratic system and borrows from the private or profit-making sector. It

seeks to apply the market or business angle to government administration with emphasis on healthy competition, contracting and customer orientation. It appreciates merit-based recruitment and promotion and independent management, performance-based salary as well as continuous training and development. New public management is a new approach to public administration that relies on the use of private sector techniques and principles in the management of public sector activities.

The major objective of NPM is to redress the anomaly or discontent with the traditional public administration, which is viewed by many as inefficient, ineffective, rigid, inhuman and faceless with better and more result oriented public sector management principles and techniques as obtains in the private sector. The search for an administrative or management system that will be result orient as is the case in the private sector led to the birth of the New Public Management (NPM) movement. The focus of NPM essentially is on creating institutional and organizational contents which are to mirror what is seen as critical aspects of private sector models of organizing and managing. It is also believed that increased competition in the provision of goods and services both in the private and public sector is & panacea for efficiency.

History

The first practices of New Public Management emerged in the United Kingdom under the leadership of Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher. Thatcher played the functional role of "policy entrepreneur" and the official role of prime minister. She drove changes in public management policy in such areas as organizational methods, civil service, labour relations, expenditure planning, financial management, audit, evaluation, and procurement. Thatcher's successor, John Major, kept public management policy on the agenda of the conservative government, leading to the implementation of the Next Steps Initiative. Major also launched the programs of the Citizens Charter Initiative, Competing for Quality, Resource Accounting and Budgeting, and the Private Finance Initiative.

A term was coined in the late 1980s to denote a new (or renewed) focus on the importance of management and 'production engineering' in public service delivery, which often linked to doctrines of economic rationality. During this timeframe, public management became an active area of policymaking in numerous other countries, notably in New Zealand, Australia, and Sweden.

Objectives of New Public Management

The following are the summarized policy guidelines for NPM:

1. Direct public sector costs should be cut and labour discipline enhanced so as to improve resources use.
2. Private sect style introduced in decision-making to increase flexibility
3. Competition in the public sector as rivalry is key to lower costs and better practices
4. Greater decentralization in the public sector to allow for better management and increased competition
5. Controls to emphasize result rather than procedures
6. High performance, efficiency and accountability
7. Managers are given authority and autonomy to manage their units.
8. Administrative decisions to be based on market criterion as market promote allocative efficiency and technical efficiency.
9. Employees are empowered as administrators are given enough latitude to operate in terms of decision-making.
10. Provide alternative service delivery by the redefinition of the role of the state.

The NPM models can be best described under the following:

Management: Because of its belief in the importance and strength of privatizing government, it is critical to have an emphasis on management by engaging in hands-on methods. This theory allows leaders the freedom to manage freely and open up discretion.

Performance standards: It is important to maintain explicit standards and measures of performance in a workforce. Using this method promotes clarification of goals/intent, targets, and indicators for progression and success.

Output controls: The third point acknowledges the "shift from the use of input controls and bureaucratic procedures to rules relying on output controls measured by quantities performance indicators". This aspect requires using performance-based assessments when looking to outsource work to private companies/groups.

Decentralization: NPM advocates often shifted from a unified management system to decentralized system in which managers gain flexibility and are not limited to agency restrictions.

Competition: This characteristic focuses on how NPM can promote competition in the public sector which could in turn lower cost, eliminate debate and possibly achieve a higher quality of progress/work through the term contacts.

Private-sector management: This aspect focuses on the necessity to establish short-term labour contracts, develop corporate plans or business plans, performance agreements and mission statements. It also focuses on establishing a workplace in which public employees or contractors are aware of the goals and intention that agencies are trying to reach.

Cost reduction: The most effective one which has led to its ascent into global popularity focuses on keeping cost low and efficiency high. "Doing more with less"

The whole principles of the NPM can be summarized as follows:
1. Promotion of completion between service providers.
2. Empowerment of citizens by pushing control out of the bureaucracy into the community.
3. Measure performance by focusing on outputs instead of on inputs.
4. Goal driven management instead of rules and regulations.
5. Redefinition of clients as customers and meet their needs and expectations.
6. Problem prevention instead of problem servicing or management.
7. Earn money instead of simply spend it.
8. Decentralization of authority and participatory management.
9. Preference of market mechanisms to bureaucratic measures.
10. Institutionalization of both public and private sectors into efficient service delivery.

1.21   DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

The American scholar, George Grant is regarded as the father of development administration. He popularized the concept through his book titled, Development Administration: Goals and Method, published in 1979. However, the term Development Administration is believed to have been coined by an Indian scholar U. L. Goswani.

1.21.1 Meaning of Development Administration

Development administration, according to Riggs (1964) entails organized efforts to carry out programmes or projects thought by those concerned to serve developmental objectives. Further, the author states that development administration refers not only to government efforts to carry out

programmes designed to reshape its physical, human and cultural environment but also to the struggle to enlarge a government's capacity to engage in such programmes. Weidner (1970) defines development administration "an action oriented, goal oriented administrative system. He also sees it as "the process of guiding an organization towards the advancement of progressive political, economic and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or the other.

Development administration entails the systematic and organized use of well designed, articulate and deliberate administration strategies to effect positive changes to the poor state of men and advance his living condition.

Basically, development administration is a system of administration geared towards development. Development administration became necessary after the end of World War II so that the public administration of various nations could be used to engender fast development, rehabilitation, reconstruction and reconciliation. A scholar, Laxmikanth (2007), identified the following as some of the factors that led to the emergence of development administration:

1. Over emphasis on the study of "means" of administration and under emphasis on "goals" of Public Administration by traditional Public Administration.
2. Emergence of newly independent developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America due to extinction of <u>imperialization</u> and colonization.
3. UN sponsored development schemes in the developing countries through multilateral technical assistance.
4. Extension of American economic and technical plans to newly emerged developing countries.

1.21.2 Evolution of Development Administration

The origin of development administration could be traced to comparative administration. Comparative public administration applied to the theory of public administration that deals with diverse social settings and cultures. After the second World War, public administrators were prompted to embark on comparative administration to find out how Public Administration performs in other parts of the world vis-à-vis the American. Based on this development, some academics and public administrators were sent to foreign countries in the 1950s to assist in economic programmes or as technical experts to strengthen the public institutions. Development administration has its origin in the desire of the rich industrialized nations to aid developing countries. It was opined that transfer of technical knowledge and resources would transform developing countries from agrarian to industrial nations. This was to be achieved through aids from international bodies.

1.22   DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The traditional public administration model is usually geared towards maintaining stability law and order in the society. Development administration is usually geared towards change. A scholar of public administration, Laxmikanth (2007) espouse the relationships and differences of development administration and public administration.

DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION	TRADIAIONAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
It is change-oriented	It is status quo-oriented
It is dynamic and flexible	It is hierarchical and rigid
It emphasizes on effectiveness	It emphasizes on economy and efficiency in goal achievement
Its objectives are complex and multiple	Its objectives are simple
It believes in decentralization	It believes in centralization
It relies heavily on planning	It does not rely much on planning
It is creative and innovative	It rests organizational change
It practices democratic and participative administration	It practices authoritative and directive style of administration
Its scope of operation is very wide	Its scope of operation is limited
It has a temporary dimension	It has no time dimension
It is outward looking	It is inward looking

The following characteristics of development administration as distinct from public administration have also been identified by Shama and Sandana (2006):

a)   Change Orientation – A major feature of development administration. Its emphasis and concern are socio economic change and development. This distinguishes it from regular and traditional public administration which most often than not as focused on maintenance of the status quo.

b)   Result Orientation – Development administration aim is directly related to productivity hence it is result oriented. It aims at bringing rapid changes within definite timelines.

c)   Client Orientation – Development administration is usually positively geared towards meeting the needs of people. The meeting of these needs is the criteria for evaluating performance in development administration.

d)   Temporary Dimension – Time is of considerable importance in development administration. Development programmes are prepared within certain timeframes and are expected to be completed within the specified period.

The most fundamental public benefit in any society is the preservation of human life, and only the government is responsible for safeguarding its citizens. When government fails to protect its people, its relevance is reasserted by default. So, the point here is that the government is essential for the creation of basic public benefits. To sum up, it may be said that Public Administration is the non-political machinery of the government carrying on its work for the welfare of the people according to the laws set up by the state.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. How does public administration differ from business administration? On the basis of …………………..
    A. its management structure and process.
    B. the amount of political and legal constraints on decision making.
    C. the emphasis on efficiency.
    D. difference between public and business administration.

2. Which statement is correct for the New Public administration? It …………………….
    A. is carried out for the public interest.
    B. has a market orientation.
    C. focuses on performance appraisal.
    D. supports managerial autonomy.

3. The public administration dichotomy depends upon the …………………. of public administration
    A. focus or "what"
    B. locus or "where"
    C. actors or "who"
    D. span or "when"

4. What are the three components that comprise publicness and privateness in society?
    A. Administration, management, and organization.
    B. Agency, access, interest.
    C. Execution, regulation, and structure.
    D. Bureaucracy, consistency, and budget.

5. Who propounds the system of Rules of Law?
    A. W. F. Willoughby
    B. H. Finer
    C. A. V. Dicey
    D. Lowell

6. Bureaucracy is based on …………………… authority.
    A. Corporate
    B. Personal
    C. Traditional
    D. Charismatic

7. The core value of public administration is not dependent on ………………………
    A. Bureaucracy.
    B. Equity.
    C. Effectiveness.
    D. Efficiency.

8. Good governance should not be worked on …………………………….
    A. Transparency.
    B. Accountability.
    C. Nepotism.
    D. the rule of law.

9. What is the term of President in Nigeria?
    A. Four years
    B.   Five years
    C. Six years
    D. Seven years

10. What do you understand by the rule of lapse?
    A. Pending bills in the Parliament lapse with its prorogation.
    B. Demand for grants of a ministry lapse with criticism.
    C. Appropriation voted by the legislature expire at the end of the financial year.
    D. Appropriation bill lapses if the President does not return it within 14 days.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Describe your understanding of the term ''Public Administration''.
2. Trace the evolution of Public Administration.
3. Mention three relationships between administration and politics.
4. What was Woodrow Wilson's contribution to the development of Public Administration?
5. Give at least, six (6) reasons for the study of public Administration.
6. Why is it that in Public Administration, officials remain incognito?
7. In your own view, is public administration a science or art and can the art of public administration be acquired?
8. Public and private administrations are different in many respect, discuss the differences between the two.
9. Why is public administration more complex than private administration?
10. Posit Public Administration as an Art or Science.
11. An administrative system, organizations and processes do not develop in a vacuum; explain this concerning Environment and Public Administration.
12. Explain extensively why the Public Administration of a country is influenced by political and constitutional set up?
13. Explain how Public Administration and social organizations have close relationships with each other.
14. What are the basic features of political development?

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CHAPTER TWO

ELEMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

2.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand the:

- nature of Political Science and Politics
- various conceptual approaches to the study of Politics and State;
- concept of Society and Nation
- differences between Power, Influence and Authority
- concept of Constitution and constitutionalism
- differences between various Political Ideologies

2.2   INTRODUCTION

Government refers to a body of persons and institutions that make and apply all enforceable decisions for a society. The word government is derived from the Greek word ''kubernites'', which means ''steersman'', ''governor'' ''pilot'' or ''rudder''. The Encyclopedia also defines government as "the body that has the power to make and enforce laws within an organization or group and broadly, to ''govern'' means the power to administer, whether over an area of land, set of people, or collection of assets" (Wikipedia Encyclopedia, 2005,1). On the basis of the above, government has a responsibility to ''steer'' or to ''guide'' the state and its organs on matters of governance through a decision-making process, such as cabinet meetings and legislature.

2.3   POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION

The relationship between Politics and Administration is often viewed from two perspectives. One viewpoint sees the relationship as dichotomous; the other perspective argues that both areas are not clearly distinct but interconnected. Perhaps the most notable exponent of the dichotomy thesis was Woodrow Wilson. In an article written in 1887, he argued that: "The policy of government will have no taint of officialdom about it. It will not be the creation of permanent officials but of statesmen whose responsibility to public opinion will be direct and inevitable". Wilson's position has been reiterated by other scholars such as Goodnow and White.

According to White, whose book is reputed to be the first devoted entirely to public administration, the general thrust of the field of administration maintains that:

1. Politics should not intrude on administration.

2. Management lends itself to scientific study.

3. Public administration is capable of becoming a value - free science in its own right.

4. The mission of administration is economy and efficiency.

However, there are other scholars who hold the opposite viewpoint and have argued that there is no rigid distinction between politics and administration. One of the exponents of this position, Appleby has remarked that, "public administration is policy making. Public administration is one of the numbers of basic political processes by which people achieve and control government."

Since the beginning of the debate, some scholars have gone on to suggest that public administration is more part of "management science" than political science. Those scholars present strong theoretical reasons for choosing management with emphasis on organisation theory as the paradigm of public administration. Examples of scholars who advanced this viewpoint are Henderson, Marchand, Simon, and Thomson.

2.4   NATURE OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AND POLITICS

The term politics is derived from the Greek word ''polis'' which means ''city-state''. That is why many commentators, as you saw, rightly define politics in terms of the state or government. However, this definition does not exhaust the meaning of politics. Politics also deals with power. Harold D. Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan define Political Science as "the study of shaping and sharing of power". Thus, politics deals with both state and power. However, the power that Political Science deals with is, more often than not, the legitimate power. Since science is the systematic study of any phenomenon through observation and experiment, it follows that Political Science studies the state and power in all their aspects. You will learn more about the state and power later in this lesson.

Political Science deals with both empirical facts and normative issues. Facts are in the domain of "what is" and value preferences are in the domain of "what should be." For example, if somebody says India is a parliamentary democracy, he or she is making a statement of empirical fact. This is what India today actually is. But if she or he were to make a statement like the one that India should switch over to presidential form of democracy, the statement would be a normative one. Political Science is not satisfied with describing the state of affairs, it wants to change or improve upon them.

Empirical statements are true or false by virtue of what observation shows to be the case. Evaluative statements are ethical/moral imperatives, which are often said not to be true or false in any sense at all. Formal statements (such as the propositions of mathematics) are true or false by virtue of the meanings of their constituent terms alone. Political Philosophy deals with formal statements. Political Science deals with empirical statements and also evaluates the existing political institutions, practices and focuses on how to improve them.

2.4.1 Distinction between Political Science and Politics

The terms 'Political Science' and 'Politics' are often used interchangeably. However, the distinction between the two needs to be understood. Some scholars define Politics to be "the science and art of government." But this is only a part of the total explanation of the subject of political science. Now-a-days the term Politics is used to mean the problems of the citizens interacting with the instrument of political power in one form or the other. Sometimes, politics was and still is used as the technique of compromise or the method to capture power and retain it. According to many political scientists, the study of political science comprises theory of the state, concept of sovereign power, forms, and functions of government, making and execution of laws, elections, political parties, rights and duties of citizens, policy functions and study of welfare activities of the State and government. There is another aspect of politics that needs to be emphasised. Politics, many a time, implies practical politics. Practising politics is different from studying it. Practical politics includes actual formation of government, the working of government, administration, laws, and legislation. It also includes international politics including matters such as peace and war, international trade and economic order, protection of rights, etc. All these also comprise the subject matter of the study of Politics.

While the knowledge of political science as a discipline is acquired through study, the skill of practical politics is acquired through politicking or manipulations and craftiness or by exploiting caste and regional loyalties and religious sentiments. Practical politics is often described as the 'dirty game' and a 'corrupting' process in the common people's mind. But we find that there are hardly any human groupings or societies, which are free from 'politics' and hardly any individual who does not know the implications of the "game of politics". Practical politics also has many positive aspects. In this era of welfare state many positive programmes such as removal of untouchability, land reforms, release of bonded labourers, prohibition of trafficking in human beings and beggar (forced labour), introduction of minimum wages, employment generation programmes, empowerment of the other backward classes are all examples of positive aspects of practical politics. 'Politics' refers to the

process of actual happenings in society and in institutions, which Political Science refers to its understand in a systematic manner.

2.5   CONCEPTUAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF POLITICS AND STATE

According to the Greek scholars, philosophers and political scientists there are various approaches to the study of the field politics. When we say "APPROACH" we mean a way or criteria of dealing with something in a particular laid down manner. Approaches to the study of politics refer to the way or method in which politics is being studied and the tools of analysis used or engaged by a given approach. At this juncture it is clear to say that every approach used have a set of methods which is distinguishable through which political studies analysis are made.

Approaches to the study of politics can be divided into two schools, which are traditional approach and the modern approach. These approaches are discussed below:

The Traditional Approach

The traditional approach is value based and lays emphasis on the inclusion of values to the study of political phenomena. The adherents to 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 greater issues of politics have been resolved around normative orientations. Accordingly, there are large number of traditional approaches like, philosophical approach, historical approach, legal approach, institutional approach etc.

   i.   Philosophical Approach

         It is the oldest approach to the study of politics. It is also known as speculative, metaphysical, or ethical approach. The study of state, government and the political behaviour of man is intricately linked with the quest for achieving certain goals, morals, or truths. Here, the discipline moves closer to the world of ethics. The approach is criticized for being highly speculative and abstract.

   ii.   Historical Approach

         This approach throws light on the past and traces the origin and development of the political institutions. It seeks to study the role of individuals and their motives, accomplishments, and failures in the past and its implications for the future. In understanding the political issues of today, the help of historical parallels is sought. However, critics argue that historical parallels can be illuminating, but at the same time they can also be misleading as it is loaded with superficial resemblances.

iii. Legal Approach

The study of politics is linked with the study of legal institutions created by the State for the maintenance of the political organization. As the State is engaged in the maintenance of law and order, the study of judicial institutions become the concern of political theorists. This approach looks at the State as an organization primarily concerned with the creation and enforcement of law. However, critics argue that this approach has a narrow perspective. The State has various other functions to perform other than enforcement of law and order. Laws deal with only one aspect of an individual's life and do not enable the complete understanding of his political behaviour.

iv. Institutional Approach

This approach is also known as the structural approach. It lays stress on the formal structures of the political organization such as legislature, executive and judiciary. The informal structures are also studied, and a comparative study of the governmental systems are encouraged. However, this approach is criticized for laying too much emphasis on formal and informal structures and ignoring the role of individual in those institutions.

The Modern Approaches

The modern approach is fact based and lays emphasis on the factual study of political phenomenon to arrive at scientific and definite conclusions. The modern approaches include sociological approach, economic approach, psychological approach, quantitative approach, simulation approach, system approach, behavioural approach, Marxian approach etc. Broadly speaking, modern or contemporary approaches to the study of politics signify a departure from traditional approaches in two respects: (a) they attempt to establish a separate identity of political science by focusing on the real character of politics; and (b) they try to understand politics in totality, transcending its formal aspects and looking for those aspects of social life which influence and are influenced The modern approach is fact based and lays emphasis on the factual study of political phenomenon to arrive at scientific and definite conclusions. The modern approaches include sociological approach, psychological approach, economic approach, behavioural approach, and Marxist.

i. **Sociological Approach**

This approach emphasizes on the understanding of the social context to explain the political behaviour of the members of the community. The state is considered primarily as a social organism and politics is understood through the sociological factors. But critics are of the

opinion that too much of emphasis on the social context can affect the very autonomy of the discipline.

ii. **Psychological Approach**

This approach studies and explains political and social institutions through psychological laws. It assumes that the psychological analysis of political leaders reveals significant knowledge about politics. However, this approach ignores the sociological, legal, and economic factors in the study of politics.

iii. **Economic Approach**

As matters pertaining to production and distribution of goods are regulated by the State, the economic matters also become a concern for the political theorists. This approach emphasizes on the role of the State in regulating the economic matters and argues that economic affairs are intimately linked to the political process of the State. The approach is inclined towards linking and understanding the political and economic life of individuals. However, the approach considers only the economic factors and ignores other factors such as social and psychological factors.

iv. **Behavioural Approach**

This approach focuses on political behaviour and studies the attitudes and preferences of humans in the political context. Thus, the study of politics moved its focus from formalism and normativism to the study of political behaviour. However, critics argue that this approach is based on a false conception of scientific methods.

v. **Marxist Approach**

This approach is basically different from the other modern approaches. It perceives State as an inevitable consequence of class contradictions. It assumes that there is a continuous interaction between the political and economic forces and separating one from the other is not possible. However, this approach gives undue importance to the economic factors and ignores the other important factors.

After careful analysis of the approaches, it is understood that each approach has its own relevance in the study of political phenomenon and also suffer from certain limitations.

2.6   SOCIETY AND NATION

A society and a nation seem to be similar in some aspects but not entirely the same. Society can be described as a group of people who share similar values, laws and tradition living in organized communities for mutual benefits. Members of society often share religions, politics or culture. Similar laws and values help to bring a society together and give its structure. People living in a society usually receive some form of security or identification form being part of it, but they also bear the responsibility of living within its structure. There are two important words, "organized"

communities and living within its "structure." While, nation is historically constituted, stable community of people formed on the basis of a common language, territory and economic life. There are two key words in a nation which are (a) ethnicity, (race) and (b) a political entity (state). For a nation to be completely the same as a society it must be homogenous that is giving homogenous set of cultural traits, e.g., common language, religion, customs, historical origin. Nigeria is not homogenous because it is diverse in socio-cultural traits.

2.7   POWER

Power can be described as ability to force or coerce, influence or control someone to do one's wish. It is the ability of one to alter, amend or make an individual conform to a desired expectation. That is the ability of making people do things the way we want it to be done. Usage of power is visible in all areas of human endeavour be it formal or informal relations. Person in power can enforce his or her decisions on others by threatening to apply sanctions against defaulters.

2.7.1   Sources of Power

Wealth and position or capacity one occupies in a society or organization can be sources of power. Sources of power can be classified into five:

a. **Coercive Power**

This is a forceful type of power which is tied to a punishment for any defaulter. There must be a degree of compliance on instructions given to employees. This type of power is applied in order to maintain conformity and achievement of common objective or goal.

b. **Reward Power**

This is a type of power to encourage or motivate an employee to do more or continue the level of his performance or output. It is a form of appreciation and at the same time to influence the employee to do more.

c. **Legitimate Power**

This can be called genuine or legalized power given to a person. Most times it is vertical. It is the formal power or authority of a boss over his subordinates. The subordinates carry out the instruction of the manager without any question or complaint.

d. **Expert Power**

This is a power that is acquired through one's skill, expertise or special knowledge of a particular thing that others do not have. This power is specific and not general.

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e. Referent Power

This is a type of power based on admiration of qualities that someone has over others. The degree of referent power someone has over others is based on the number of admirers or people that want to emulate his style of handling things. It might be charisma.

2.8   INFLUENCE

Influence is the power to affect or manipulate something or someone. Influence is "a relation among actors, such that the wants, desires, preferences or intention of one or more actors affect the actions or predisposition to act, of one or more other actions."

Influence is an umbrella word to encompass power and authority. Both are similar in that both possess rational and relational attributes but differ in the sense that the exercise of power is dependent on potential sanctions, but this is not so with the exercise of influence.

There are four types of influence:

a. Coercive Influence

This is a type of influence that is based on threat or expectation of extreme penalties of great loss. Examples of such are suspension, torture, death.

b. Reliable Influence

This is an influence that is legal or genuine. The probability of its compliance is very high.

c. Manifest/Explicit Influence

This type of influence is a situation where one person's action causes a change in another person's behaviour.

d. Potential/Implicit Influence

This is a type of influence where someone modifies his action because of an anticipated reaction of other people, even though the people did not show any reaction.

2.9   AUTHORITY

Authority can be described as the power to enforce rules or give orders. Authority is when the person in position of authority issues command to its subordinates to carry out an instruction in a manner that satisfies the possessor of the authority to achieve the organizational goal. People in authority are persons or group of persons making decisions that affect our actions.

Authority brings about compliance of the subordinates towards the desired goals whether by persuasion, coercion, reward. Authority can be called legitimate power or influence.

Authority is also a position that is meant to enable its holder to successfully carry out his or her responsibilities.

Authority can be said to be the cornerstone of all organizations and all organizations draw their characteristics of its hierarchy from it. Authority has a chain of command, span of control, unity of command etc. Max Weber identified three types of authority. They are:

a. **Legal Authority**

This type of power is based on established rules and regulations. Authority is legal because it is based on laws. People obey the laws and not the people imposing the law.

b. **Charismatic Authority**

This type of authority is exercised by a person who has extraordinary gifts. It is based on people's devotion to a particular leader that has exceptional qualities. This type of authority is not common. It is the exceptional qualities in them that make people believe in them and become their followers. Examples of such leaders are Ghandi of India, Gaddafi of Libya.

c. **Traditional Authority**

This is a type of authority that has been in existence or inherited as traditional. People obey this authority because it is their tradition to do so. Traditional rulers enjoy this type of authority.

2.10 CONSTITUTION AND CONSTITUTIONALISM

The Constitution of Nigeria is the supreme law of Nigeria. It frames fundamental political principles, procedures, practices, rights, powers, and duties of the government. It imparts constitutional supremacy and not parliamentary supremacy, as it is not created by the Parliament but, by a constituent assembly, and adopted by its people, with a declaration in its preamble. Parliament cannot override it.

Relevance of the constitution

1. **The constitution is an embodiment:** Constitution is a written instrument which serves as the embodiment of the rules of a political or social organization. These rules and regulations lay down the base of the nation so that it can run without any sort of issue or dispute and in case any problem occurs in the legal and governmental sectors or between the masses of the

country and the judiciary, these provisions help the country to get through this phase where there is a regular threat of a civil war breakdown which is probably the last thing any country can have nightmares about.

2. **The constitution forms the basic structure of any government:** The constitution of any country is important because of the fact that it lays down all the legal and cultural aspects under which its people and the governmental bodies will be governed and that too when there are foreign interactions in the personal affairs every now and then by international organizations. The executive, the legislature and the judiciary are the main organs of the government that the constitution establishes. These three are the source of stability of any country, and without them, the only thing that will rise is terror and corruption among the masses.

3. **Governs the power distribution:** The Constitution defines the powers of each organ and let everyone related to a country know about the power and governmental and legal body has. It demarcates the responsibilities of each of the parties whether it is a governmental institution, companies of the country or the masses of the nation. The Constitution helps to regulate the relationship between the government and the people in such a manner that no one part can miss treating the power in any way possible.

4. **Apex body:** A Constitution is superior to all the laws of the country which means any law or provision that is circulated in the nation is passed down by the constitution itself. Every law enacted by the government has to be in conventionality with the Constitution and this means that no one or no legal body will be able to speak upon the Constitution otherwise it will not maintain the strength and will fall and so will the nation.

5. **Goals of a Country:** The Constitution lays down the national goals of any country, by nation goals we mean to say that any aspiring objective that a country has. As every country has some point to reach which is planned in their mind, therefore, the constitution will help to reach goals such as, Democracy, secularism, Socialism, and National Integration.

6. **Basic rights:** The constitution of a country guarantees some rights and provisions for any individual or group of people on behalf of which they can ensure their well-being and dignity. It helps the people of the country to avail of all the basic rights which they are deemed for. Some of the most basic rights that are protected by the Constitution are right to life, right to freedom, right to property and the right to participate freely in the democratic system.

7. **Power transfer at the time of national emergency:** One of the things that make the Constitution a really important document for a country is the fact that it controls the transfer of power at the time of national emergencies. By national emergencies, we mean a disaster

that can wipe out some part of the nation or can damage any part of the nation in a very severe manner, civil war breakdown, etc. So, these are the points demonstrating the relevance of constitution. The Constitution is the spine of the nation and we should respect its existence and dignity while making sure that its rules and provisions are followed by each and everyone in the Nation.

Meaning of Constitution

A constitution is a set of fundamental principles or precedents of a particular entity that shall help in understanding how it is supposed to be governed. The constitution is a set of fundamental laws that the government, as well as any individual, shall follow. It offers a way to govern a country.

These fundamental laws or principles are written in a document, and that is why it is called the 'Written Constitution.' It helps in demonstrating the social, political structure of a country. It also includes the legal entity of the nation. It is the primary and prime law of the country. It is usually sketched by the government, and in recent years, many nations have altered their constitution, which is uncommon but needed.

In specific terms, constitution is referred to as:

1. Basic Law of the Nation
2. A system that integrates and collaborates the organization and individual norms
3. Government Organization It is a structure that the government must follow, and so do the common man. The foundation of the government is set by the constitution. The collective rights and freedom of individuals are offered by the constitution, and everyone must follow the law.

Constitutionalism

Constitutionalism is the governing law that helps regulate the functionality of the government. As such, constitutionalism sets the standards of actions for the government. It indeed sets limitations to the government. Constitutionalism defines the action of a government as legitimate or not. No government shall work beyond the principles of constitutionalism and, if it does so, is considered invalid. One needs to understand that having the constitution does not guarantee to set constitutionalism. It is the other way around. A nation must have the governing laws for the government to have the constitution set. Also, the country that has a constitution and does not have constitutionalism makes it vulnerable as the rules can be broken at any time.

Basic Features of Constitutionalism

1. Popular Sovereignty
2. Separation of Powers
3. Responsible and Accountable Government
4. Rule of Law
5. An independent judiciary
6. Respect for individual rights
7. Respect for self-determination
8. Civilian control of the military
9. Police governed by law and judicial control

As such, the concept of constitutionalism helps restore peace in the nation. Imagine, without that, the government can act on their own without any governing authority to question them. Even questioned, there is no law to say that the action was wrong. This is widely avoided in the nations that have strong constitutionalism that puts limitations on the government, and the same shall be adhered to by any government that is formed.

Constitution vs Constitutionalism

The difference between constitution and constitutionalism is that the constitution is created by the government, but the government itself is controlled by constitutionalism which sets the limitation to its powers and authorities. The latter is indeed the law that allows people and the government to follow the rules and principles set by the constitution. A constitution, in general, is a document that is written which has the fundamental laws of the nation. A constitution sets the entire framework of how a government structure must be and also vividly discusses the functionality of every element. As such, the principles of society are set from the root level. It gives the exact norms and principles for the government to follow. Constitutionalism, on the other hand, is the governance system by itself that controls and limits the powers of the government. This is the one that sets the freedom and limitations of every individual of the nation. It includes the government as well. A government must use its power under constitutionalism.

Main Differences Between Constitution and Constitutionalism

1. The main difference between Constitution and Constitutionalism is that the constitution is a written document while constitutionalism is not.
2. The constitution is the supreme law of the country, while constitutionalism is the one that allows it to function legitimately.

3. Constitutional amendments can be changed by the Government, while constitutionalism cannot be changed.

4. The non-existence of a constitution can still help the company thrive, while the non-existence of constitutionalism shall ruin the country as there is no governing law for the government in power.

5. Constitution is the rules and regulation set for the structure of the government and society, while constitutionalism sets the limitation to the government itself.

Comparison Table Between Constitution and Constitutionalism

Parameters of Comparison	Constitution	Constitutionalism
Definition	Fundamental Laws of the Nation	Fundamental Principles to govern a country
Major Emphasis	Constitution emphasizes 'How' to factors of the government.	Constitutionalism emphasizes the limitation of the government.
Doctrine	Rules and regulations to be followed	Limitations to be adhered to by the government
Format	The constitution is a written document.	It is not necessary to have a document. It is not written too.
Existence	The constitution cannot exist without Constitutionalism.	It can very well survive in a country without any written document in place.

Source: https://askanydifference.com/difference-between-constitution-and-constitutionalism/

2.11   POLITICAL IDEOLOGY

The study of political ideology is very crucial. Ideology comprises of fundamental principles, beliefs about the nature of man and type of society that must be created for him. By this, it decides the form by which political, social and economic institutions should be operated. Every good government that has genuine plans for the citizens must have a political ideology. Political ideology is the logical inquiry into the affairs or problems of man and its society.

2.11.1 Meaning of Political Ideology

There are various definitions of political ideology. Ideology is "concerned with the nature of distribution of political power. Some authors see it as a system that explains and justifies a preferred economic and government order for society, which offer strategies for its maintenance or attainment of its objectives.

It is much more concerned with the state, its evolution, organization and purpose. It looks into the issues as what is the state? How legally structured is it reason why it should be obeyed. It sets out objectives for the state and see how the objectives should be achieved. Political ideology has several features.

2.11.2 Characteristics of Political Ideology

Political ideology has the following features:

- It tends to be exclusive, absolute and universal.
- It is personalized, structuralized and programmatic. A designated programme of action for realizing its agenda for society.
- Ideology motivates actions and organization towards realizing its vision for society.
- Ideology attempts to account for man's total experience.
- It contains several levels of explanation and beliefs. Ideology usually includes arguments, simplified principles, slogans and symbols.

2.11.3 Functions of Political Ideology

- Ideology facilitates conflict management by specifying the collective purpose of programmes and means of attaining them.
- It provides the government with legitimacy and helps it obtain compliance from the citizens.
- It is a vital structure for looking at society generally.
- Ideology serves as a guide to policy choice and assessment of performance.
- Ideology promotes unity among members of society and organizations.

2.12   FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

2.12.1 Autocracy

This is a system of government in which supreme power is concentrated in the hands of one person. The person has absolute power when it comes to decision or policy making and other people are excluded.

The Features of Autocracy includes:

- Lack of ideas and leaders. This is so because one man is in control.
- No institutionalized opposition.

- Very difficult to change the authoritarian.
- No alternative policies.
- Communication or information is always one way, from the top to the bottom.

Some countries that have one party system are: - Cuba, Soviet Union, etc.

2.12.2 Fascism

Fascism originated in Italy during World War 1 and spread to other parts of Europe countries such a state is led by a strong leader such as a dictator.

This type of government was known for denial of basic human equality, distrust of reason, violence, totalitarianism, racism and opposition to international law and order.

2.12.3 Nazism

This is a political ideology and practice associated with the 20th century German "NAZI government under Adolf Hitler.

The Features of Nazism includes:

- Use of force and intimidation.
- Centralization of decision making.
- Liberal democracy is not allowed.
- Individual liberty is restricted.
- It is a totalitarian one-party state.

2.12.4 Dictatorship

This is to form of government in which absolute power is concentrated in the hand of a person or a tiny group of people that constitute themselves as the ruling cabal. Most times dictators are always military men. The political power is centralized and the government power is arbitrarily misused. The Features of dictatorial government includes:

- Citizens live in extreme poverty. Government withholds food and supplies in order to keep people under control.
- They do not allow any form election
- No political opposition.
- They create fear on their citizens.

- There is great abuse of human rights. No regard is given to fundamental human rights.

2.12.5 Democracy

The word democracy originated from the Greeks. The word "Demo" means the people, while "Kratien" or "Kretos" means government or to rule. It is defined as government of the people, by the people and for the people. Many countries are practicing democracy today.

The Features of Democracy includes:

- Elections come up at a fixed time.
- It is a one man one vote system.
- There are representatives representing the people at the central.
- Equal opportunities for all citizens
- There are alternative programmes

Tenets of democracy

Within this framework, it is argued that in response to democracy, the government should be arranged in such a manner that they cannot abuse the powers which have been entrusted to them to further their own interests or the interests of only one specific population group. Most important, the activities of public authorities should, wherever possible take place in the open rather than be shrouded by a veil of secrecy. With reference to financial affairs, the budget as an example is presented to Parliament and debated in public through public hearings.

Finally, to obtain sound public administration, individuals and groups should exercise their rights and freedom in a restrained manner. Centrally to rights and freedoms, individuals should not prejudice the rights and freedoms of others and endanger the community, including the welfare of others. Thus, public administration should be conducted in such a manner that the rule of law prevails.

The rule of law means:

a. The executive institutions should not be allowed to exercise discretionary powers that are too wide and unrestrained, nor should they be allowed to act in arbitration.
b. All citizens should be equal in the eyes of the law and should be treated equally in terms of the law.

c. The courts should function independently of the legislature and executive and judges and magistrates should act as independent guardians to ensure that the rights and freedoms of the individuals are respected.

Fairness and reasonableness

Public institutions and officials should promote the welfare of the community and should always be fair and reasonable in their dealings with each citizen, regardless of sex, race, language, or religion. Every public functionary should treat members of the public in a fair and reasonable manner.

Balanced decisions

Decisions taken by a public official will be accepted as being balanced if it takes all aspects of a matter fully into account. The impact of a decision should be considered because a decision will affect the public directly or indirectly. Balanced decisions are necessitated by the requirement that everyone should receive equal treatment before the law. In the case of budgeting the Minister of Finance's budget speech in Parliament refers to political, economic, and social conditions influencing the proposals on revenue and expenditure.

Thoroughness

It is argued that the activities of public officials should be characterized by their thoroughness. This implies that public authorities have to act; they should do so timeously. They should maintain a high standard of work and provide quality service. With regard to this principle, public officials should never condone the waste of money and material. For effective good governance and financial management in the Public Service, the Public Finance Management Act promotes high ethical conduct, efficient use of resources in delivering services to the public. Furthermore, public servants are expected to avoid wasteful and fruitless expenditure.

Probity

Political officers and officials should have no ulterior motives when performing their duties. As a result, no public functionary is allowed to use his authority to obtain inadmissible gains either for him or for others or to secure preferential treatment for favoured persons. Each official should conduct himself in such a manner that he will be able to withstand any test of public scrutiny. To support transparency and improve conduct of public servants, public service regulations, require managers that are within SMS level to disclose any financial gains in order to eliminate conflict of interest and abuse of power and authority for personal gains.

Efficiency and effectiveness

Efficiency in the public sector means satisfying the most essential needs of the community to the greatest possible extent by using the limited resources that are available. It also involves upholding public accountability. Effectiveness, on the other hand is more about the impact that has been or will be caused by a service delivered or to be delivered. To improve governance and service delivery, performance budgeting system stresses efficiency (relationship between inputs and outputs) and effectiveness (relationship between outputs and outcomes).

Hence, effectiveness and efficiency as a tenet of democracy ensures that:

i.   Results meet the agreed objectives

ii.   Available resources are optimized.

iii. Performance management is adopted for periodic evaluation.

iv.   Audits are carried out at regular intervals to assess and improve performance.

Legal rules and legality

Legal rules, particularly, the tenets of administrative law, provide a normative code of conduct for public functionaries. For example, the legal rules require that:

a.   a public functionary should not exceed his or her powers under the law, meaning intra vires not ultra vires.

b.   there should be justifiable reason for the act or decision, that is the decision should be bona fide instead of mala fide and audi alteram partem (listen to the other party) should apply. Therefore, a public functionary has to respect the prevailing provisions of laws and conduct himself or herself accordingly. For example, every public servant must comply with PFMA, public service regulations and the constitution in order to support good governance in the Public Service.

The above fundamental tenents by Cloete are crucial as they provide the basis of public administration relative to governance. For example, as indicated earlier, the rule of law and supremacy of the Constitution, accountability, effectiveness, and efficiency are fundamental in analyzing governance in public administration. In this circumstance public administration becomes important in public life and for the institutions within it.

2.12.6 Totalitarianism

This is an ideology that prohibits majority of the citizen's direct participation in decision or policy making. It is an advanced form of authoritarianism. The system is more of force or terror. Examples of some regimes are: Stalin of Soviet Union and Adolf Hitler of Germany.

2.12.7 Anarchism

Anarchism can be described to be the absence of a government in a society. It is characterized by social or political unrest or disorder. Anarchy leads to situations such as coup d'état and revolution. Example of a country that witnessed anarchy was "French Anarchisme"

2.12.8 Marxism

Marxism originated from the writing or works of German philosophers Karl Max and Friedrich Engels around mid-to-late 19th century. Marxism deeply believed in historical, economic and socio-political aspects. This is a critique of capitalist system. Societal progress is based on how good the economy is, hence, Marxism is of the belief that human progress is shaped around economic forces. He further argues that every society is divided into two: those who have and those that do not have. And there will always be class struggle among these two classes. He explained further that those who have constitute a class and those that do not have constitute another class. He described the clashes or struggles between the two classes that is reflected in the forces of production.

He emphasized that the clash between those who have – owners of the means of production, the "bourgeoisie" and those that do not have – the working class "proletariat" represents the struggle. It is observed that the working class constitute the majority, with these owners of production, "bourgeoisie" will certainly loose in the clash. Thereby, leading to a social revolution that will last for a short period. It is obvious that there is a great hatred between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie. This is so because the bourgeoisie owners of the means of production exploits or take advantage of the workers-proletariats. Marx further explained that the main intention of the revolution is to establish "communism" which will be a classless society. Hence, there would be no need for the state and would now be based on the principle of "from each man according to his ability and to each according to his needs".

2.12.9 Socialism

Socialism can be described as common ownership. The resources of the state or society are owned by the people. In this, there is equitable distribution of the wealth among the people of the society. In this, everybody participates in social decision that affects them.

2.12.10 Communism

Communism is a political, social, and economic ideology that advocates the replacement of private ownership and profit-based economies with a classless economic system under which the means of production-buildings, machinery, tools, and labor-are communally owned, with private ownership of property either prohibited or severely limited by the state. Because of its opposition to both democracy and capitalism, communism is considered by its advocates to be an advanced form of socialism.

Widely recognized communist countries, such as the Soviet Union, China, and Yugoslavia, developed their own models which varied from each other over time, six defining characteristics of pure communist ideology are often identified.

Collective ownership of the means of production: All means of production such as factories, farms, land, mines, and transportation, and communication systems are owned and controlled by the state.

Abolition of Private Property: As collective ownership implies, private ownership of means of production is prohibited. In a purely communist state, individual citizens are allowed to own nothing except the necessities of life. The operation of privately-owned businesses is similarly prohibited.

Democratic centralism: The official organizing and decision-making principle of Communist Parties, democratic centralism is a practice in which political decisions, while reached by a nominally democratic voting process, are binding on all members of the party - effectively all citizens. As conceived by Lenin, democratic centralism allows party members to participate in political discussion and state opinions but compels them to follow the Communist Party "line" once a decision has been made.

Centrally planned economy: Also known as a command economy, a centrally planned economy is an economic system in which a single central authority, typically the government in communist states, makes all decisions regarding the manufacturing and the distribution of products. Centrally planned economies are different from free-market economies, such as those in capitalist countries, in which such decisions are made by businesses and consumers according to the factors of supply and demand.

Elimination of income inequality: In theory, by compensating each individual according to their need, gaps in income are eliminated. By abolishing revenue, interest income, profit, income inequality, and socioeconomic class friction is eliminated, and the distribution of wealth is accomplished on a just and fair basis.

Repression: In keeping with the principle of democratic centralism, political opposition and economic freedom are prohibited or repressed. Other basic individual rights and freedoms may also be repressed. Historically, communist states, such as the Soviet Union, were characterized by government control of most aspects of life. "Correct thinking" in adherence with the party line was encouraged by coercive, often threatening propaganda produced by stare owned and controlled media.

Communism vs. Socialism

The exact difference between communism and socialism has long been debated. Even Karl Marx used the terms interchangeably. Marx viewed socialism as the first step in the transition from capitalism to communism. Today, communism is often identified with socialism. However, while they share several characteristics, the two doctrines differ significantly in their goal and how it is achieved.

The goal of communism is the establishment of absolute social equality and the elimination of socioeconomic classes. Achieving this goal requires that private ownership of the means of production be eliminated. All aspects of economic production are controlled by the central government.

In contrast, socialism assumes that social classes will inevitably exist and strives to minimize the differences between them. The government's power over the means of production under socialism is regulated by democratic citizen participation. Contrary to a common misconception, socialism allows the private ownership of property.

Unlike communism, socialism rewards individual effort and innovation. The most common form of modern socialism, social democracy, works to achieve equal distribution of wealth and other social reforms through democratic processes and typically co-exists alongside a free-market capitalist economy. Notable examples of communist regimes throughout history include the former Soviet Union, and the modern-day nations of Communist China, Cuba, and North Korea.

Soviet Union

Today, the former Soviet Union is still widely considered as the prototypical example of communism in action. Under Joseph Stalin from 1927 to1953, and his successor Nikita Khrushchev from 1953 to 1964, the Soviet Communist Party prohibited all forms of dissent and took control of the "commanding heights" of the Soviet economy, including agriculture, banking, and all means of industrial production. The communist system of central planning enabled rapid industrialization. In 1953, the Soviet Union shocked the world by exploding its first hydrogen bomb. From 1950 to 1965,

the Soviet Union's gross domestic product (GDP) grew at a faster rate than that of the United States. Overall, however, the Soviet economy grew at a rate much slower than those of its capitalist, democratic counterparts.

During the Cold War, Soviet central economic "Five Year Plan" stressed industrial and military production, leading to chronic underproduction of consumer goods. As long lines at understocked grocery stores became a fixture of Soviet life, weak consumer spending became a drag on economic growth. The shortages led to black markets, which while illegal, were allowed and even supported by corrupt leaders within the Communist Party. Growingly dissatisfied with six decades of shortages, corruption, and oppression, the Soviet people demanded reforms to the economic, social, and political system. Undertaken by Mikhail Gorbachev starting in 1985, these reform efforts known as perestroika and glasnost, not only failed to halt the economic decline, they likely hastened the end of the Communist Party by loosening its grip on sources of public dissent. By 1989, the Berlin Wall fell and by 1991, the Soviet Union disintegrated into 15 separate republics.

SUMMARY

The chapter carefully analyzed the concept of Political ideology, which is viewed as a body of ideas that explains and justifies social order that is either existing or preferred. This provides focus for collective action in accessing conduct towards the realization of the goals of the State. Discussions in this chapter also centered on forms of government adopted and adapted by states in the contemporary international system. Dictatorship is one in where one person or political party has unlimited powers to do whatever it wants. Democracy refers to a government where the will of the majority in the society prevails.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. A mark is put on the finger to make sure that a person cast only ……………………………
   A. three votes.
   B. one vote.
   C. no vote.
   D. two votes.

2. What does the Government make for everyone to follow?
   A. Law.
   B. Rules.
   C. Decisions.
   D. Relations.

3. What is the most basic outcome of democracy?
   A. Significant decision making.
   B. Powerful repressive governance.
   C. Accountability to the citizens.
   D. None of these.

4. American women got the right to vote in …………………………..
   A. 1919.
   B. 1920.
   C. 1921.
   D. 1922.

5. The citizens of a country have the right to approach the ………………if they feel there is violation of any law by an individual or by the government.
   A. Lawyer
   B. Parliament
   C. Executive
   D. Court

6. What is Universal Adult Franchise?
   Citizens of ……………… in the country are allowed to vote.
   A. 8 years and above
   B. 16 years and above
   C. 21 years and below
   D. 18 years and above

7. Which sections were not excluded from the voting rights in the earlier forms of Nigerian government?
   A. Rich men.
   B. Poor.
   C. Uneducated.
   D. Women.

8. A …………………………. is the organization, or agency through which a political unit exercises its authority and controls the actions of its citizens.
   A. Parliament

B. Public
C. Government
D. Ministry

9. Which type of government is chosen by the people?
   A. Democratic.
   B. Dictatorship.
   C. Oligarchy.
   D. Aristocratic.

10. On which level does the Nigerian government take decision to maintain peaceful relations with Britain?
    A. Micro.
    B. National.
    C. State.
    D. Local.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss your understanding of ''Political Ideology''

2. Write short notes on any five (5) forms of government you are familiar with.

3. Concisely differentiate between Constitution and Constitutionalism.

4. Explain the tenets of ''Democracy''

5. Discuss briefly the underlisted statement in the light of ''Power'' and ''Authority'', ''Power corrupts, absolute power corrupts absolutely''

6. Write short notes on the following.
   a. Autocracy
   b. Fascism
   c. Nazism
   d. Dictatorship
   e. Democracy

7. Explain vividly the various sources of power

8. Differentiate between Political Science and Politics

9. Write short notes on the nature of Political Science and Politics

10. Power and Authority are two sides of a coin, discuss.

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CHAPTER THREE

MODERN STATES

3.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to:

- differentiate between Unitary, Federal, Monarchy and Republic,

- understand the main branches of government and their relationships,

- differentiate between Parliamentary and presidential systems of government,

- understand various political and social changes;

- differentiate between Revolutions, Riots, Coup d'état and world order.

3.2   INTRODUCTION

Modern state can be described to be an organized territory with definite geographical boundaries that are recognized by all other states. This entity (nation) is dependent on the loyalty of her citizens. It offers protection, order, justice, welfare, encourage trade within and foreign trade through policies to the citizens in exchange for their loyalty to the nation. The objective of a modern state is to maintain order and create an enabling environment for its citizens, which can be achieved by establishing government institutions, officials, courts of law and laws to abide by, soldiers and police to enforce law, protect citizens, state and systems of commercial (money and trade).

Generally, when discussing modern state, we are talking about unique features of a nation i.e., its extensive rule of law, citizenship rights, broad economic and social responsibilities.

3.3   TYPES OF GOVERNMENT

3.3.1   Unitary

As the name suggests, a unitary type of government is a single unit state where the central government is supreme. All the power rests with the central government and any divisions in governance, for instance, in the form of administrative or sub-national units, have only those powers that the central government gives them. While democratic systems have become popular over the world, a number of states still have a unitary system of government among several other archetypes that are found in different countries. Some of the examples of a unitary form of government are dictatorships, monarchies and parliamentary governments. Some countries that follow the unitary system of government are France, Italy, Japan and the United Kingdom. Since the power is vested in the Centre, a unitary system of government is based on the principles of centralization of power. Within such a

system, a fair amount of hegemony is found between different regions in the same country. Thus, local governments follow instructions of the Centre and have only those powers which are delegated by the central government.

Yet, there are no fixed rules to this system and not all countries use the same principles of centralization and decentralization of powers. One of the major advantages of such a system is the fact that the government at the center can make quick decisions since it has all the powers of rulemaking. A significant disadvantage is that there are no ways to keep a check on the activities of the central government. Moreover, most unitary governments have large bureaucracies where the members are not appointed on the basis of popular voting.

The opposite of unitary government will be a federal government where governance powers are not centralized or where central government is a weak one. Political powers are actively decentralized and individual states have more sovereignty compared to those in a unitary state. Principally, a federal government holds some middle ground between the unitary and the federal system because powers are distributed between the central and local governments. The political system of the United States of America is an example of a federal system. One needs to also explore the nature of the state when the analysis of the form of government is being made. For instance, not every state will encourage social and political integration and some will monopolize force in their hands, thus encouraging one form of governance compared to the other.

Nonetheless, monopolization of power is also a central idea to a unitary government. Popularly in such a system, local governments will exist but they will not be independent of the central government. They are subordinate to the central government in all respects and often act as mere agents of such a government.

Thus, the whole state is governed with full might of the central government. Such a system is useful in those states which do not have strong nationalities, are at risk of outside forces or are very small states.

Salient Features of Unitary Government

A unitary system of government widely differs from one that is federal in its organization. Federal governments, by their very nature, constitutionally divide powers between the Centre and the state. No such power division occurs in a unitary system even though the central government, by its own accord, delegate some superficial powers to various states. Moreover, in a federal system, the constitution is supreme and determines the powers between the centre and the states. Both exist as

equal before a federal constitution. In contrast, centre is supreme authority in a unitary government. States function independent of the centre in a federal system whereas in the unitary system, states are subordinate to the centre. In short, Unitarianism can be referred to as, "the concentration of the strength of the state in the hands of one visible sovereign power, be that power parliament are czar.'' Federalism, on the other hand, is distribution of force. The sovereign in a federal state is not like the English parliament an ever-wakeful legislator, but like a monarch who slumbers and sleeps. and a monarch who slumbers for years is like a monarch who does not exist.

A unitary government can have an unwritten yet flexible constitution but federal government cannot go about its daily chores unless it has in its possession a written constitution. Judiciary also plays a very important role in a federal government and also decides on disputes that may crop up among the central and state governments or between other units. These are some of the key differences between federal and state governments.

Characteristics and Features of Unitary Form of Government

Centralization of power: The centre is the reservoir of all powers in unitary system. There exist no province or provincial governments in such a system and the central government has the constitutional powers to legislate, execute and adjudicate with full might. There is no other institution with this kind of state to share the powers of the central government. Thus, it rules with no external pressure and runs the state and administration free of any checks and balances. Their power is absolute. What powers are to be centralized and decentralized are also decided by the central government. Local governments exist but it is the centre which decides what powers will be given to them. Even these are carried out with central control or supervision.

Single and simple government: The unitary system of government is a simple system. There exist no provincial assemblies, executives or upper chambers in the Centre. One exception to this is Britain. Yet, most unitary systems are defined by single central government where the popular voting is held for unicameral legislature. It is the central legislature that legislates and executes. The expenses of such a system are minor and a unified command is adopted in running the state. Democratic systems can be expensive; upper chambers demand finances and weak states cannot afford them. Thus, unitary system is simple and understandable. Its structures and powers are also understood easily by the citizens.

Uniformity of laws: Laws in unitary system are uniform laws unlike the ones in the federal state. This is one crucial characteristic of a unitary government. Laws are made and executed by the central

government for the entire state. They are enforced without any distinction being made for any state. In contrast, in a federal system, the nature of a law can varies from state to state. But in the unitary system, the laws are made uniform on the principles of justice and nature of human beings. In a federation, however, laws of similar nature can have sharp contrasts, thus complicating their understanding.

No distribution of powers: As stated, within a federation powers are distributed among the federal and the state. In contrast, in the unitary system, no such distribution of powers is made. All powers rest with the centre. One of the advantages of this lack of distribution of power is that the government does not have to bother about delegating powers and instead concentrate on more welfare issues and development of the state and citizens.

Flexible constitutions: Flexibility is what defines the constitutions of unitary states. It is within federal systems that a rigid constitution is required so as to clearly define and maintain the relationship between the centre and the state. One of the advantages of a flexible constitution is that it can be altered as be the needs of the state amid the continuously changing circumstances. As said, a constitution is a document which is necessary to run a state according to the changing orientations. A flexible constitution ensures that the desires and changing demands of people are included in it accordingly and from time to time. It is crucial to the idea of progressiveness. Thus, constitutions in unitary systems are evolutionary and are strong to respond to contingency situations.

Despotism attributes a Unitary State: A unitary state can turn totalitarian or despotic when its rulers do not follow rules or move away from the path of patriotism. Since powers are with the Centre and there is no check on the activities of the government, there are higher chances of misuse. Such a government can become absolute and abuse its powers mainly due to the absence of an internal check system.

Responsibility: In contrast to a federation, a unitary system is more responsible. Certain defined institutions have fixed responsibility and this is a significant characteristic of a unitary system. The central government is responsible for legislation, executive for implementation and judiciary for adjudication. Thus, it is these institutions that are responsible for their activities and therefore they try to operate within the law of the land.

Local government institutions: Usually in a unitary form of government, the powers lie in the hands of urban bureaucracy. Such a government has also been found to be limited in the city areas and have no influence in remote towns and villages. Therefore, to maintain its influence in rural areas, the central governments manipulate their affairs through municipalities and other such local institutions.

In one way or other, local governments also become important and effective in unitary systems. Such examples are found in states like China and Great Britain where local governments are very powerful. The central

government maintains its influence through local governments and also gives them financial support to run their daily affairs. In fact, local representatives are elected for these institutions on the guidelines of the central government.

Advantages of Unitary Government

Some advantages of unitary system include:

i.   Throughout the state, uniform policies, laws, political, enforcement, and administration system is maintained.
ii. There are fewer issues of contention between national and local governments and less duplication of services.
iii. Unitary systems have greater unity and stability.

Disadvantages of Unitary Government

Disadvantages of such a form of government include:

i.   Local concerns are usually not the prerogative of the central government.
ii. Thus, the centre is often at a lax in responding to local problems.
iii. In case the centre gets involved in local problems, it can easily miss out on the needs of a large section of other people.

3.3.2 Federalism

A federal government is the national government of a federation. It is defined by different structures of power. In a federal government, there may exist various departments or levels of government which are delegated to them by its member states. However, the structures of federal governments differ. Going by a broad definition of basic federalism, it comprises at least two or more levels of government within a given territory. All of them govern through some common institutions and their powers often overlap and are even shared between them. All this is defined in the constitution of the said state.

Therefore, simply put, a federal government is one wherein the powers are delegated between the centre and many other local governments. An authority which is superior to both the central and the

state governments can divide these powers on geographical basis, and it cannot be altered by either of the government levels by themselves. Thus, a federation, also called a federal state, is characterized by self-governing states which are in turn united by a central government. At the same time, both the tiers of government rule on the basis of their own laws, officials and other such institutions. Within a federal state, the federal departments can be the various government ministries and such agencies where ministers of the government are assigned. For instance, in Nigeria and the US, the national government have some powers which are different from those of other states which are part of the country. This division of powers has been elaborated in the constitution of Nigeria and the US. Thus, a federal government works at the level of a sovereign state.

At this level, the government is concerned with maintaining national security and exercising international diplomacy, including the right to sign binding treaties. Therefore, as per the guidelines of the constitution, the federal government has the power to make laws for the entire country and not the state governments. For instance, the Nigerian and the US Constitution initially did not empower the federal government to exercise undue powers over the states but with time, certain amendments were introduced to give some substantial authority over states. The states that are part of a federation have, in some sense, sovereignty because certain powers are reserved for them that cannot be exercised by the central government. But this does not mean that a federation is a loose alliance of independent states. Most likely, the states that are part of a federation have no powers to make, for instance, foreign policy; thus, under international law they have no independent status. It is the constitutional structure in the federation that is referred to as federalism. This is in contrast to the unitary government. With Lander, Germany is an example of a federation while its neighbour Austria was a former unitary state that later became a federation. France, in contrast, has always had a unitary system of government. As mentioned earlier, federation set-ups are different in different countries. For instance, the German Lander have some independent powers which they have started to exercise on the European level.

While this is not the case with all federations, such a system is usually multicultural and multi-ethnic and covers a large area of territory. An example is India. Due to large geographical differences, agreements are drawn initially when a federation is being made. This reduces the chances of conflict, differences between the disparate territories, and gives a common binding to all. The Forum of Federations is an international council for federal countries which is based in Ottawa, Ontario. This council brings together different federal countries and gives them a platform to share their practices. At present, it includes nine countries as partner governments. Where states have more autonomy than

others, such federations are called asymmetric. Malaysia is an example of one such federation wherein states of Sarawak and Sabah joined the federation on their own terms and conditions. Thus, a federation often appears after states reach an agreement about it.

There can be many factors that could bring in states together. For instance, they might want to solve mutual problems, provide for mutual defense or to create a nation state for an ethnicity spread over several states. The former happened in the case of the United States and Switzerland and the latter with Germany. Just like the fact that the history of different countries may vary, similarly their federal system can also differ on several counts. One unique system is that of Australia's where it came into being after citizens of different states voted in the affirmative to a referendum to adopt the Australian Constitution. Brazil has experienced with both federal and unitary system in the past. Till date, some of the states in Brazil maintain the borders they had during Portuguese colonization. Its newest state, Tocantins, was created mainly for administrative reasons in the 1988 Constitution.

History of Federalism

In the New World order, several colonies and dominions joined as autonomous provinces but later transformed into federal states after independence (see Spanish American wars of independence for reference). The United States of America is the oldest federation and has served as a role model for many federations that followed. While some federations in the New World order failed, even the former Federal Republic of Central America split into several independent states 20 years after it was formed. States like Argentina and Mexico have in fact shifted from being federal, confederal, and unitary systems before finally settling with being federalists. Germany is another example of the same shifting since its foundation in 1815. After its monarchy fell, Brazil became a federation and it was after the Federal War that Venezuela followed suit.

Many ancient chiefdoms and kingdoms can be described as federations or confederations, like the 4th century BC League of Corinth, Noricum in Central Europe, and the Iroquois in pre-Columbian North America. An early example of formal non-unitary statehood is found in the Old Swiss Confederacy. Many colonies of the British that became independent after the Second World War also adopted federalism; these include Nigeria, Pakistan, India and Malaysia. Many states can be federalists yet unitary. For instance, the Soviet Union, which was formed in 1922, was formally a federation of Soviet Republics or autonomous republics of the Soviet Union and other federal subjects but in practice remained highly centralized under the government of the Soviet Union. Therefore, the Russian Federation has inherited its present system. Australia and Canada are

independent federations, yet Commonwealth realms. In present times, many federations have been made to handle internal ethnic conflict; examples are Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Iraq since 2005.

Advantages of Federalism

Some advantages of a federal form of government are:

i. There is larger federal unity though local governments may handle their own problems.

ii. The government at the Centre is more committed towards national and international issues.

iii. It is a participatory system and there are more opportunities to make decisions. For instance, what goes into school curriculums and ways in which highways and other projects are to be carried out, can be decided through participation of local populace.

iv. Local government/officials are more responsive towards people who elect them.

Disadvantages of Federalism

Disadvantages of federal form of government include:

i. Since laws are different in different states, people living in one country can be treated differently. This can happen not only in spending that each state makes of welfare programmes but even in legal systems, where different punishment can be meted out in similar offences or right laws are differentially enforced.

ii. Duplication of services.

iii. States can pass laws that counter national policy and this can influence international relations.

iv. Conflict can arise overpower/national supremacy vs. state's rights.

3.3.3 Confederation

A confederation has been defined as an administrative cum constitutional arrangement in which two or more sovereign and independent states agree to come together to have a central but weak government. Put differently, the term confederation applies to the union of states, which is less binding in its character than a federation. A confederation is a union of states with a commonly recognized authority in certain matters affecting the whole, and in respect of external relations. Confederation is a league or union of many sovereign states for a common purpose. In principle, the states in a confederal structure would not lose their separate identities but would retain the right of secession. In practice, though this right might be difficult to exercise, and the constituent units of a confederation might appear to be little different from those of any other federal states. But confederation differs essentially from a federation in that it is a league of sovereign states, unlike the latter (federation) where the component states give up their sovereignty in favour of the new state, or

even where the centre can create more states, as it has been from the example of the Nigerian federation.

In a confederation, power resides more with the component states rather than the centre. In other words, there is a weak centre and strong component parts. The United States adopted a confederal structure in the early years of her independence. But the structure was later rejected by the conferees at the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention on the ground that it was "weak at the centre and strong at the circumference". Other examples of confederal states apart from the failed United States' experience include the United Netherlands in 1579, the German constitutions of 1815 to 1867 and 1867 to 1871(before and after the unification of Prussia with other German states).

Features of Confederation

1. **Right to Secede**

   In a confederation, the component units have the right to secede from the arrangement. This is not the case in a federation where any attempt by any or a combination of the federating states to secede is met with resistance. This was the case in the United States between 1861 and 1865 when the attempt by 13 southern states was militarily resisted by Abraham Lincoln. A similar case occurred in Nigeria when Yakubu Gowon, then Nigeria's Military Head of State forced the then Eastern Region of the country back into the federation.

2. **The autonomy of the Federating States**

   Another feature of a confederation is that the states within the confederal structure would not lose their separate identities through the political arrangement but will still retain their distinct separate independence. In other words, the component units are autonomous in all spheres of influence except in defense, external relations, currency, and a few other subjects conceded to the central authority.

3. **Supremacy lies with the confederates**

   The supreme power belongs to the co-ordinate states. Therefore, the coordinate States dominate the central government as the constitution is usually not rigid since most confederations are run based on agreements reached by the states.

4. **Weak Central Authority**

   The central authority is usually weak in a confederation while the units are stronger and more powerful. The experience of countries like the United States, Senegal and Gambia under a confederation, and Nigeria where the model was also suggested, will be used to illustrate this point in the subsequent units.

Merits of Confederation

i. Confederation protects countries that shelter under the arrangement from foreign invasion. Weak states can enjoy better defense militarily against foreign powers or aggression from neighbouring States. This consideration was uppermost in the mind of Dauda Jawara of the Gambia in the early 1980s when he forged a confederal arrangement with Senegal, then known as Sene- Gambia. But the confederation did not last long.

ii. Confederation has economic utility. The case of the Hanseatic League which was established in Europe during the Middle Ages to promote greater commercial interactions among the states concerned is a good example.

iii. In large countries, it saves minority nationalities from domination by majority ethnic groups since each state in a confederation is sovereign. This was the major reason why the former Eastern region of Nigeria then under Col. Emeka Odumegu-Ojukwu spoke in favour of confederation at the Aburi meeting in Ghana. His preference was predicated on the belief that confederation would give the Igbo nation more freedom to manoeuvre in a country where they felt threatened.

Demerits of Confederation

i. Confederation is a very loose and fragile system of government. This is because each state that makes up the confederation is autonomous with its governmental machinery. This gives the liberty to any member state to pull out any time it so desires.

ii. Confederation has been criticized for serving as a breeding ground of intrigues and centres of rivalries. An important point to be noted is that a strong and powerful member state often establishes its hegemony over others and exploits them to further its own ends. This was true of Prussia before the unification of Germany. Prussia then, the biggest and most powerful of German states exploited others that were weak and unviable.

iii. The relationship between the central and confederal government is not usually well defined. This has often led to disagreement between member states of the confederacy.

iv. Despite its theoretical attraction to leaders of a few states, in reality, a confederation has often proven a difficult and cumbersome political system to manage. This is why it has not endured for long in the few countries where it was practiced. Indeed, the experience has shown that confederation has either failed in a few states that practiced it, while the authorities in other states like Nigeria, where suggestions were made in that direction spurned it. General Gowon flatly rejected confederation as an option for Nigeriain1967.

Selected Case Studies of Attempts at Confederation

United States' Articles of Confederation

After it had recorded victory in the War of Independence with Britain, the United States began self-government with the adoption of the Articles of Confederation by the Congress on 15th November 1777. The Articles were actually written between 1776 and 1777 and was not actually ratified by all the 13 states until 1781. The Articles of Confederation established the Congress as the only central political institution for what was then called 'Association of States', but the congress was limited in its power since it lacked any binding or enforcement powers in its relations with the states. The Articles did not even make any provision for the office of the president or an executive organ of any hue. It would appear that Americans opted for a confederation because of the bitter experience they had with Britain. A country they believed was suffocating under the weight of an overbearing central government.

In theory, the Articles of Confederation gave the Congress the powers to conduct foreign policy, appoint military officers and declare war, borrow money from the states, without the power to tax and regulate postal services. But in reality, the Articles of Confederation did not give the Congress the power to enforce its requests to the states for money or troops. The first sign of trouble with the U.S. Confederal structure after the American War of Independence was that Congress could not pay back the states the debts it had accumulated to prosecute the war campaigns. However, the Articles of confederation in the United States eventually collapsed due to the failure and incapacity of Congress to keep the states together.

Suggestions for Confederation in Nigeria

The former British colonial power seemed to have settled the controversy over the appropriate constitutional structure for Nigeria when it introduced the federal system of government for the country in 1954. However, when the collapse of parliamentary democracy in the First Republic was partly blamed on excessive regionalism in the country, there was a renewed call that Nigerians should take a second look at the issue of appropriate administrative structure for the country. This was the major reason why Maj. Gen J.T.U. Aguiyi Ironsi promulgated the unification decree in 1966 which abolished the then four regions in the country and replaced them with group of provinces. His action effectively transformed Nigeria from a federal to a unitary state. But what Ironsi thought would provide a solution to the developing constitutional crisis in the country further fueled it, and degenerated into a worse political stalemate, which later engulfed the whole nation in a civil war. Before the outbreak of the war, attempts were made from within and outside the country to find a

more acceptable model of government for the country. The views among prominent leaders who spoke under the auspices of the 'leaders of thought' or consultative assemblies ranged from the outright dissolution of the country, a strong federal structure to a confederation.

The main thrust of the disagreement between Gowon and Ojukwu on the correct interpretation of the Aburi Accord, the outcome of a meeting of Nigeria's Supreme Military Council, called at the instance of General Ankara, the then Ghanaian Military Head of State, was on whether the meeting agreed to a federal or a confederal structure for Nigeria. Indeed, the Nigerian civil war which lasted for thirty months was fought largely to determine whether or not the country would remain a federation with a twelve-state structure as Col. Gowon wanted, or would be organized along the old regional, but under a new confederal arrangement, as advocated by Col. Ojukwu, then military governor of Eastern State. Since the end of the civil war in 1970, political leaders in Nigeria, military and civilian alike, seem to be more favourably disposed to the country remaining a federal state.

Senegambia Confederation

Sir Dauda Jawara, then president of the Gambia was in Britain in late 1981 attending the wedding ceremony of Prince Charles, heir to the British throne to Diana, Princess of Wales, when the soldiers struck in Banjul, the country's seat of power in an attempt to topple his government. With the help of Senegalese troops, the military insurrection was put down. The urge for personal interest of self-preservation for himself, and his government, and the larger interest of defense for his country forced Jawara to forge a confederation tie between the smaller Gambia and relatively bigger Senegal. Thus, the agreement of what became known as Senegambia Confederation was reached in November 1981, and it came into force three months later in1982.

Under the terms of the confederation agreement each country was to retain its independence, but they were required to take central steps towards a union with the objectives of integrating their military and security forces; form an economic and monetary bloc; co-ordinate their foreign policies and communications and establish confederal institutions. Implementation of the confederal agreements began in July 1982 when a Senegambia executive and legislature were established. But before long Senegal began to dominate the major political institutions, since it controlled the confederal presidency, in addition to having two-thirds representation in the joint parliament. The growing concern in the Gambia about its marginalization, coupled with the domineering position of Senegal in the confederation, led to cracks which eventually led to the dissolution of the Senegambia confederation in1989.

3.3.4 Monarchy

The first and earliest form of government is monarchy. It is a form of government that is headed by individual who is not subject to legal limitations, or who does everything according to his own will. Monarchy is a type of government headed by a Queen a King or an Emperor. Examples are the United Kingdom and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. A constitutional monarchy is one that is subject to legal limitations like that of the United Kingdom, in contradistinction to the absolute monarchy of Saudi Arabia. However, it should be noted that hereditary monarchy is the normal type, but elective forms do exist also. Therefore, the essence of monarchy is the personification of the majesty and sovereignty of the state in an individual. Monarchy can bring about a stable political system; it is also a natural institution, where obedience to the king is seen as obedience to God.

Britain probably offers the most contemporary example of a country operating a monarchy. Indeed, British monarchy had evolved from the days of absolute monarchy of the Tudors to that of the constitutional monarchy of Queen Elizabeth. This transition was a consequence of the Puritan revolt that erupted between the King and the parliament. It was later resolved bloodily after what came to be known as the Glorious Revolution in 1688. The characteristics of monarchy include the following: monarchy is an age- long form of government; the government of the country is in the hands of a king, emperor, or queen; it is a type of government that is based on hereditary pattern. In some forms of monarchy, e.g., absolute monarchy, the ruler has no constitutional limitation. In some monarchies, e.g., constitutional monarchy, the ruler is under checks by the constitution.

Advantages of a monarchical form of government

1. Monarchy can bring about a stable political system: A stable political system and can best be secured only where supreme authority is vested in a single ruler.
2. It is a natural institution where obedience to the king is seen as obedience to God and thus, promotes total loyalty to the state.
3. Monarchy could be adopted to make for emergency situation when the state requires undivided loyalty of the people to the government of the day.
4. In a monarchical system decision-making is faster since the monarch need not consult anybody before necessary and urgent decisions are taken.
5. Monarchy helps to harmonize different interests and prevent social strife. In some circumstances, the king may serve as the protector of the people at large, from the tyranny of the few. Where a hereditary kingship has been in existence for a considerable time like in Britain it may be unwise and unnecessary to abolish it.

6. Democratic principle can be grafted into a monarchical government as it was done in Britain with admirable success.

Disadvantages of monarchy

1. Good intentions, ability, industry is not hereditary. Therefore, a monarch could be a bad leader.
2. A monarch could also be despotic to keep the people weak so that they may be unable to resist him.

Forms of Monarchy

Broadly, there are two types of monarchy: Hereditary and Elective. Absolute monarchy: This occurs when there is no established constitutional authority to check the king's power. The king rules as the head of government and head of state. Examples are Frederick the Great of Russia, the Queen of England, Louis XIV of France, before the French Revolution. Hereditary monarchy can be found in countries such as Britain or even in the old Oyo Empire where the Alaafin of Oyo or the Hausa Fulani Empire, where the Sultan of Sokoto were regarded as the personifications of the state. Despite the incursion of foreign rule and the displacement of traditional rulers under the post-colonial dispensation in many African states, monarchy has survived even with diminished power and authority. The phrase "the king reigns but do not rule" aptly captures the present position occupies by monarchs in contrast to the days of unlimited absolutism.

Constitutional Monarchy

The power of a constitutional monarch is regulated by the constitution. The monarch can promulgate only those laws that are agreed upon by the resolution of the elected parliament as in Britain. Also, he or she is bound to respect not only the spirits of the constitution but also the laws of the state. He assents to only those laws that passed by the elected parliament. Britain is a good example of a constitutional monarchy.

3.3.5 Republican

The origin of the word republic is from Latin res public or public things. It implies a government-owned by the people for their benefits instead of the benefit of a ruler or king. It consists of various meanings in itself, encompassing not only democracy but also authoritarian, a noble cause, and sovereignty.

When the representatives selected by the citizens rule the state or nation, that form of government is called a republic. In contemporary times, the idea behind the republics is based upon the people's sovereignty, though it also follows the rules and regulations of the constitution. A Republican government is a political structure in which people have power and authority. Any government which does not follow a hereditary leader comes under the category of republic government.

Features of Republic government

Following features below explain the nature of republic government:

i.   Most of the power and authorities are concentrated in the citizen body, not some primary authority or king.

ii.   By electing the representative, people provide powers to leaders who represent them and support the growth. However, the role of the representative is not just to help a few people but the whole nation.

iii.   A well-established Constitution of the nation protects the rights and freedom of the people, and people exercise the voting system to maintain this system.

iv.   Both people and civic bodies are responsible and accountable for the stability and functioning of the government system.

Advantages of Republican Government

The following are some advantages of a republican government:

i.   Fairness: Laws amended by elected representatives are fair. Because people elect representatives, they believe that formulated laws and policies are appropriate for everyone. If they find laws unfair, then they have the power to elect someone else who can lead the nation.

ii.   Common welfare (non-biased): The formulated laws and policies have inbuilt benefits for everyone irrespective of caste, class, gender, ethnicity, culture, etc., not just for one group of people. And supporting the whole nation in all forms, economic, political, and societal, means serving the common welfare.

iii.   Freedom and prosperity: Citizens would have the freedom to live their lives based on their terms without harming any other's growth. The growth of the economic benefits the entire nation, and people would have that benefits too

iv.   Equal participation: According to this system, every citizen will participate in the political procedure.

v.   Therefore, all citizens are equal, and it doesn't matter if you are a small farmer or a powerful business owner. Common people are motivated to take part in government.

vi.   Promotion of social integration: Incorporating all the aspects in the government that promotes the betterment of social structure, such as self-reliance, self-assertion, and self-esteem.

vii.   Power of vote: Leaders are chosen based on their talents and empathetic nature towards the citizens. Hence, they are elected by the voices, not the forces.

Many times, the meaning of democracy and republic indicate the same meaning and are closely related. The difference between the following is given below:

S/n	Parameters	Democracy	Republic
1	Power is controlled by	Citizen body as whole	Individual citizens
2	Amendment of laws	The distribution of powers across different groups varies, i.e., the majority group will have most of the power and minorities will have less access to power.	The power and authorities are exercised by the elected representative by the people.
3	Ruled by	The majority	Elected representative
4	Protection of rights	Sometimes, lack of proper execution of the constitution causes exploitation of underserved people.	Well-developed constitution provides protection to every citizen.

Disadvantages of Republic government

Have you ever wondered if one's interest is sometimes good for everyone? Although, there are many benefits of republic government. There are also many disadvantages:

i.   Due to the election system in the republic government, it becomes expensive because of expenditure on resources to conduct elections. Sometimes it has adverse impacts on underdeveloped countries.

ii.   The functioning of this government is better in smaller level nations than bigger nations.

iii. People under this generally belong to the same kind of background i.e., they are diversified in nature.

iv. Sometimes, due to diversities, the majority of the power is held by the higher-level people, which negatively impacts the less privileged people.

The government that the people lead is referred to as a republic government. The Republic government and democratic government both shared some common principles that support the reliable system. Many countries follow a structure that combines both republican and democratic principles. In a republic government, citizens have liberties and exercise a voting system. India is run on the principle of democracy purely.

3.4   BRANCHES OF GOVERNMENT AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP

3.4.1   Branches of Government

3.4.1.1 The Executive

The executive is the arm of the government composed of the following: The President/Head of State or Head of government; Ministers; Civil Servants; Police and the Armed Forces. In Nigeria, where there are three tiers of government, the Chief Executive at the level of state and local government, are the Governor (assisted by Commissioners) and the Council Chairman (assisted by Supervisory Councillors) respectively. In a democracy, the head of the Executive are elected by popular votes and they, in turn, appoint the Ministers, the Commissioners or the Supervisory Councillors, as the case may be, with the approval of the Legislature.

Types of Executives

The two popular types of Executives are Presidential and Parliamentary as practiced by the United States and Britain as exponents. In between these two models, there is the model of French executive that can be called a quasi-parliamentary or quasi presidential. In the French model of executive, the President is the real executive, but the Prime Minister and the cabinet are under his control, and, at the same time, they are accountable to the Parliament. So, the French model imbibes some features of both parliamentary and presidential forms of governments. Presidential system is a model in which the executive powers are vested in our person called Mr. President. Section 5(1)(a)(b) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended) is explicit on this, it says:

> "Subject to the provisions of this Constitution, the executive powers of the Federation shall be vested in the President and may, subject as aforesaid and to the provisions of any law made by the National Assembly, be exercised by him either directly or through the Vice- President and Ministers of the Government of the Federation or officers in the public service of the Federation and shall extend the

execution and maintenance of this Constitution, all laws made by the National Assembly and to all matters with respect to which the National Assembly has, for the time being, powers to make laws.

Functions of Executive

The executive formulates and then implements public policies and executes laws enacted by the Legislature. As stated earlier, this organ of government refers to all agencies and officials of government that get involved in the day-to-day running of the business of government. It directs, supervises, and coordinates the policies, maintains law and order, promotes social services as well as initiates legislation, among other things.

3.4.1.2 The Legislature

This is an arm of government composed of honourable men and women who are elected from various constituencies (either federal or state) to represent the people in the parliament. In Nigeria, the legislature at the central is called National Assembly, which is made up of two chambers: the Senate and the House of Representatives. In the United States of America, the body is called the Congress while in Britain, it is known as Parliament, comprising the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

Functions of Legislature

The Legislature's main function is law-making for the peace, order, and good governance of the people. Section 4(2) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (amended) states:

> The National Assembly shall have power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Federation or any part thereof with respect to any matter included in the Exclusive Legislative list…

However, it must be stated here that legislation is not the only function performed by modern Legislature as they also perform other responsibilities as charged by the constitution, within the purview of the doctrine of *checks and balances*. For instance, they perform oversight functions on the Executive. Other important functions of the Legislature are approval of budget presented by the Executive; Control over finance to ensure compliance by the Executive; Ventilation of grievances of the people they represent, and approval of nominee for appointments into public offices and foreign services.

Types of Legislatures

Legislatures are either unicameral or bicameral. The issue of bicameralism has however, gained more importance. A unicameral legislature has only one chamber based upon popular representation and is responsible for the entire function of law making. This kind of legislature is good for smaller countries with relatively homogenous ethnic nationality. On the other hand, a bicameral legislature consists of two chambers, namely, the Upper and the Lower Houses. The lower chamber is generally more popular in character and has a greater say in law making because representation is based on population while that of the upper chamber is based on equal representation. Members of both Upper and Lower Houses are directly elected as in Nigeria and some other countries such as the Senate in the United States. In Britain, members of the Upper House, the House of Lords, are nominated while members of the House of Commons are elected.

In a bicameral legislature, the process of law-making is much more complex as it requires the concurrence of both the Houses to pass bills into laws. In a federation, each component unit has representatives in the upper chambers, which enables their viewpoints also to be represented in the parliament, and which enables them to safeguard their rights. A bicameral legislature easily manages to maintain a balance between the centre and the federating units, which is very essential for the successful functioning of the federal system.

3.4.1.3 Judiciary

Judiciary is the law-interpreting organ of government, which, in Nigeria, is composed of the following bodies and their respective heads, in descending order of hierarchy: -

i. The Supreme Court under the leadership of the Chief Justice.
ii. The Court of Appeal under the leadership of the President.
iii. The Sharia Court of Appeal under the leadership of the Grand Khadi.
iv. Federal High Courts under the leadership of the Chief Justice.
v. State High Courts under the leadership of the Chief Judge.
vi. The Magistrate Court under the leadership of the Honorable Chief Judge.
vii. Customary Courts under the leadership of the President.

Judiciary is an independent arm of government, and its responsibility is to, among others, resolve conflicts either between citizens and citizens or between central authority and the component states or between the states and local government authorities.

Functions of Judiciary

Important functions of the Judiciary are, a *priori*, contained in its definition - justice administration and dispensation - being a minimum requirement of any government in maintaining law and order, peace and tranquillity in the society. However, depending on political system, the followings could be itemized as the functions of the Judiciary:

a. **Adjudication**

Judiciary entertains and decides cases - criminal, civil or constitutional - based on the strength of arguments put forward by the concerned parties. Judiciary is the last hope of ordinary person, as a defender of citizens fundamental human rights.

b. **Interpretation of Constitution**

In a federation like Nigeria, United States, Canada, etc, Judiciary acts as the custodian of the Constitution and as arbitrator between the central and governments of the component units. Its decision (Supreme Court) is final on any constitutional matters arising between central authority and state governments. Stressing the indispensability of an independent and impartial court in a federal state to keep the governments within reasonable limits as laid down by the constitution. J. S. Mill says, "It is evidently necessary not only that the constitutional limits of the authority of each should be precisely and clearly defined, but that the power to decide between them in any case of dispute should not reside in either of the Governments or in any functionary subject to it, but in an umpire independent of both."

c. **Legislation**

Although, legislation is the primary function of the Legislature, courts of law also make laws in a different way through decided cases and judicial pronouncements. Where the law is silent or ambiguous or appears to be inconsistent with the letters and spirits of the constitution, the decision of the law courts prevails as what the law should be. No law, when enacted, can possibly envisage all cases that may arise under it. Thus, judges frequently have to decide cases in which no direct law is applicable, on various principles such as equity, natural justice, necessity, or good conscience. Through this, what is known as precedents that are followed to decide future cases, are formed.

d. **Advisory**

Judiciary also has advisory roles to play to the government as Mr. President may refer some matters of public importance to the Supreme Court for clarification and advice. Although, such advice is not binding, it has great persuasive influence on policies.

e. **Judicial Review**

Judiciary acts as checks on both Executive and Legislative arms of government in that actions/inactions of government or laws that are not consistent with the constitution could be declared illegal, null and void and of no effect by a Court of competent jurisdiction. This is known as the power of judicial review, which has now formed an integral part of the constitutional system in Nigeria, United States, Canada, Australia, and India.

Judicial Independence

The question here is what does it mean by „judicial independence" and what are the conditions required for judicial independence to exist? There has not been a consensus on this. The concept, to some, requires little more than life tenure for judges, while for others, judicial independence requires budgetary control or an appointment process that involves more than legislators doing the choosing. Still some scholars tout the virtues of judicial independence without defining clearly, what they mean by "independence" and others (such as legal realists and most political scientists) suggest that judges are at least partially independent because they exercise discretion with every decision.

Judicial independence could mean a judiciary that is separated from other arms of government and immune from partisanship or undue influences from external bodies in the discharge of its constitutional responsibilities so impartially and expeditiously without fear or favour, affection, or ill will. To achieve this, the following conditions ought to prevail in the polity.

a. **Security of job**

A secured, long, and fixed tenure are very important for judges to make their appointment secured and free from unnecessary manipulation or intimidation by the Executive. In Nigeria, a judge retires on the attainment of 65 years of age and their appointment is made on permanent basis after meeting certain requirements.

b. **Mode of Appointment**

In some countries, judges are elected but this might make them liable to political pressures whimsicalities but in Nigeria and some other countries in the world, judicial officers are appointed by the President/Governors on the recommendation of major stakeholders in the judiciary - National Judicial Council, and subject to ratification by the Legislature (see Sec. 231(1) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999, as amended). In addition, Article III of the United States Constitution establishes the Federal Courts as part of the Federal government responsibility. It provides that Federal judges, including judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, are appointed by the President "by and with the advice

and consent of the Senate." In order to maintain judicial independence, the Constitution states further that, once appointed, Federal judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts shall hold their Offices in good Behaviour, and shall receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office. Federal judges vacate office only upon death, resignation, or impeachment and removal from office by Congress.

c. Better Salaries/Emoluments

To ensure independence, judges should be paid better salaries and allowances. This is not only to attract brilliant lawyers to the bench but also to distract them away from corruption and unethical tendencies. In addition to this, salaries of judiciary are to be charged on the first line i.e., consolidated fund, which no other arm of government could manipulate for a purpose.

3.4.2 Interrelationship of governmental organs and branches

In a presidential system of government, the doctrine of separation of powers is well pronounced unlike the parliamentary model of democracy where there is 'fusion of powers.' However, it must be stated that much as the theory of 'separation of powers' is salient in the presidential system; the organs of government are not mutually exclusive to one another. The practice of using power to check power, which is known as 'checks and balances' is not necessarily, a violation of the theory of separation of powers; it merely seeks to promote some interrelationships among the organs in order to check abuse of power by any of the organs of government. For example, the laws made by the legislature are interpreted by the judiciary and could be declared void if found not to be consistent with the provisions of the constitution of the land.

The executive also initiates laws and presents budgets for the approval of the legislature; otherwise, such budgets could not be spent by the executive. In the same vein, laws made by the legislature cannot become operative until it given assent by the President. The president can however withhold his assent which amount to an exercise of *veto power*. The legislature can similarly decide to upturn the veto of the President by the use of *two-thirds majority*. The executive makes the appointment of senior judicial officers, but it has to be ratified by the legislature to take effect.

3.5   SYSTEMS OF GOVERNMENT

3.5.1   Presidential System of Government

The institution of a single man and non-parliamentary executive chiefly characterizes the presidential system of government. The same person who holds the title of the head of state is also head of government. The real political or executive power is combined with the ceremonial powers and are both exercised by a single man who is also addressed as the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. The executive headed by him is the government and it is headed by the president who is also the head of the executive. The president is normally elected directly through popular votes or, indirectly via the collegiate system, otherwise known as the Electoral College and he or she is directly accountable to the electorate. The election to the office of the president is independent of the election to the legislature. The whole country constitutes a single constituency to the president. On assumption of office, the president is seen as the symbol of national unity and chief administrator for the nation.

The presidential system is that type of government in which the three organs of government, that is the legislature, the executive and the judiciary are separated and co-ordinate in power, each of them acting independently within its own sphere. The President does not share his power with any other person, unlike the Prime Minister who is first among equals in a parliamentary system. The holder of the office of president is often called executive president because he is solely responsible for the implementation of legislative decisions. He is the chief security officer of the whole country, and in the exercise of this power, he sees to the maintenance of law and order in the country. He is also the commander-in-chief of the armed forces, which confers on the occupant of that office the power to declare war to defend the independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity of his country. Examples of countries in the world that practice this system of government are U.S.A, Spain, France, and Nigeria. The tenure office of the president is fixed; he stays in office for a specific tenure, and he can be re-elected for a second term. The number of years a president stays in office depends on the constitution of the country concerned. In Nigeria, the fixed tenure for any president is four years.

Features of Presidential System of Government

i.   **Combination of Two Offices in One:** The combination of the office of the head of state and head of government makes for quick and prompt decisions, especially on rare occasions when delays or vacillations may be dangerous for the corporate existence of a nation. To facilitate this, the American presidential system, for instance, allows the president the power to issue executive orders without recourse to the congress, while the Nigerian system also permits a

president to take steps in exceptional circumstances, before seeking the approval of the National Assembly.

ii. **Presidential Discretion in Appointments:** The President also has a free hand in appointing his ministers and other government appointees. Ministers can be chosen from outside the president's party. This is due to the insulation of the president from party politics under the presidential system of government.

iii. **A Single Countrywide Constituency:** The whole country constitutes a single constituency for the president in a presidential system of government and he is elected for a fixed term of four years, and separately from members of the parliament.

iv. **Separation of Powers and Checks and Balances:** The presidential system of government is anchored on the twin mechanisms of separation of power and checks and balances. This is not the case in the parliamentary system where there is a fusion of power among the three organs of government.

v. **Fixed Tenure of Office:** The President under the presidential system has a fixed tenure in office, usually a four-year period before another election is due when he can seek for re-election for another term in office. In Nigeria and the United States, no president can serve in office for more than two terms.

vi. **Veto Power:** In the presidential system of government, the president is constitutionally empowered to refuse to assent any bill passed by the legislature that he considers to be against the public interest, but it isn't a feature in the parliamentary system of government.

vii. **Primacy is accorded to the Constitution** The constitution is the supreme law in the presidential system. This is unlike most parliamentary system where supremacy lies with the parliament.

Merits of Presidential System of Government

i. **Promptness in Decision-making:** The presidential system of government makes for decisive actions because the president knows that 'the buck stops on his desk', a phrase popularized by the late Harry Truman when he decided to use nuclear weapons against two Japanese cities to bring about a decisive end to World War II. In America and Nigeria, the constitution did not even make it mandatory for the president to call a meeting of the executive council before he can act on any issue. The president is at liberty to either consult his ministers or any of them or refuse to seek their opinion in taking decisions. This promptness in decision-making therefore makes the response of the government to issues quick and decisive, especially in situations where any delay in acting may be dangerous.

ii. **Presidential Discretion in Appointments:** In the presidential system of government, the president uses his discretion to appoint his ministers and other government appointees. Ministers could be chosen from outside the president's party. This confers a high degree of latitude on the president to select the best materials from any part of the country. Since the buck stops at his desk, the president can easily replace or fire any of his appointees because they are directly responsible to him.

iii. **A Single Countrywide Constituency:** The fact that the electorate popularly elects the president makes the whole country a single constituency for him, and as such, the party does not have an overbearing control over him, beyond offering him advice at party caucuses. He, rather than his party or his appointees, bear responsibilities for his actions and inactions. This constitutes a consistent source of pressure on him to perform since he cannot shift blame to any other person.

iv. **Separation of Powers and Checks and Balances:** The mechanism of separation of power enhances the effective performance of each organ of government in its functions, while checks and balances also ensure that a dictatorial president can be brought under constitutional checks. The combination of the two devises will obviously improve the performance of government.

v. **Fixed Tenure of Office:** The fixed tenure in the office enjoyed by the president under the presidential system makes for the stability of the government and the continuity of policies. A stable government allows for both medium- and long-term planning, rather than the instability that characterizes a parliamentary system of government. A new general election can be called in a parliamentary system any time a vote of no confidence is passed on the government

vi. **Individual Ministerial Responsibility:** Ministers take responsibilities for their actions individually not collectively. Thus, unlike the parliamentary system which allows a non-performing minister to shelter under the concept of collective responsibility, the presidential system makes it easier for an ineffective minister to be identified and singled out for blame or even dismissal. His dismissal will not affect other ministers or even, in the extreme make a government collapse.

Demerits of Presidential System of Government

i. **Prone to Dictatorship:** The presidential system is prone to dictatorship or abuse of office, which is dangerous to the democratic process. This is a result of enormous power that is constitutionally allotted to the office of the president. Presidentialism focuses too much on

the personality of the president and his capacity, and when the individual is undermined the office is undermined and the system may even be threatened. The disposition of the president to be autocratic can also be attributed to the cumbersome process that is required before a sitting president can be impeached.

ii. **Friction among Government Organs:** Separation of powers can cause delays in the execution of government policies and programmes, especially in situations where executive-legislative relations are not properly managed. In less matured democracies of the developing world, this problem is more acute when different political parties are in control of the executive and the legislature. A watertight separation of power often inhibits the smooth running of government, especially if an attempt by one organ to moderate the activities of the other through the mechanism of checks and balances is being resisted

iii. **Expensive to Operate:** Another demerit of the presidential system is that it is very expensive to run. In the presidential system, elected members of the legislature are required to resign before they can be appointed as ministers, unlike in the parliamentary system which selected cabinet members from the elected members of the parliament. This arrangement is economically more efficient than the presidential system.

iv. **Absence of Party Discipline:** Unlike the parliamentary system where party discipline is very strong and which fuses the cabinet and the parliament into one like a 'Siamese twin' which must swim and sink together, this is not the case in a presidential model.

3.5.1.1 Application of the Presidential System of Government

The Presidential system of government is an operation in many countries. The countries include the United States, a country that is unarguably the model for that system of government. Indeed Nigeria, with minor modifications, adopted the American type of presidential system of government in 1979.The United States' constitution under Article II provided for the establishment of the office of a strong president. As pointed out by Alexander Hamilton, a popular delegate to the 1787 Constitutional Convention, Article II was aimed towards "energy in the Executive." The constitution did so to overcome the natural stalemate that was built into the bicameral legislature as well as into the separation of powers among the three organs of government. The President of the United States exercises executive powers as the head of state, head of government and commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The arrangement almost equally applies to Nigeria. One major difference is that the vice president in the United States is also the president of the senate, a position he occupies by the fact of his being the incumbent vice president. He seldom attends the sittings of the upper house except on the rare occasion when he is expected to use his casting vote to break a tie in voting in the

senate. In Nigerian, the president of the senate is first and foremost an elected member of the senate before he is elected from among his colleagues as the presiding officer of the senate.

3.5.2 Parliamentary System of Government

The parliamentary system of government is a system of democratic governance of a country, wherein the executive branch is derived from the legislative body, i.e., the Parliament. Here, the executive is divided into two parts, the Head of the State, i.e., President, who is only the nominal executive and the Head of the Government, i.e. Prime Minister, who is the real executive, performs the real and executive functions. In a parliamentary system, the political party that wins the maximum number of seats during federal elections, in the Parliament, forms the government. The party elects a member, as a leader, who is appointed as the prime minister by the president. After the appointment of the prime minister, the cabinet is formed by him, whose members should be out of the parliament. the executive body, i.e., the cabinet is accountable to the legislative body, i.e., parliament. In Britain, a good example of a country operating the parliamentary system of government, the prime minister, who is the head of government, performs the substantive executive functions. The prime minister is usually appointed by the head of state from the party that controls majority seats in the legislature. The head of state, like the Queen in Great Britain, performs ceremonial duties such as welcoming foreign dignitaries, presiding over important national functions or ceremonies, signing bills into law in the parliament and addressing the parliament at the beginning and the end of parliamentary life. Nigeria practiced the parliamentary system of government in the First Republic (1960-1966).

Collective Responsibility

In the parliamentary system of government, members of the government are collectively responsible for the successes/failures of the government and all ministers, not just departmental ministers concerned, must collectively share moral responsibility for its policies. Implicit in this is the notion that all ministers are bound to support government decisions before the public, parliament, and the party, and must refrain from openly criticizing government policy. This doctrine also implies that a minister who dislikes a particular government policy must reconcile his differences or resign from the government. Sometimes resignation comes immediately, as Christopher Mayhow did when he resigned over defense policy in 1966. Alternatively, the ministers may remain for a time in the cabinet hoping to convert its views as with Frank Cousins who was known to be hostile to the prices and incomes policy of the then Labour government long before he eventually resigned in1966. A similar lack of cabinet solidarity on a fundamental issue was revealed in 1974 when both Michael Foot (Secretary of State for Employment) and Eric Heffer (Minister of State for Industry) openly disagreed

with the Labour Government's decision to supply arms to the then new anti- Communist regime in Chile. The maintenance of a united government front is an essential prerequisite for the preservation of party discipline in the Commons and to the answering of opposition and public criticism of government policy. In this respect collective responsibility also serves as a means of suppressing differences of opinion within the government itself. The doctrine applies to all ministers, from senior cabinet ministers to junior ministers.

Features of Parliamentary System of Government

The major features of the parliamentary system of government, which markedly differ from the features of the presidential system discussed in the preceding unit, include:

i.   **Dual Executive:** In the parliamentary system of government, the head to state is different from the head of government; the Queen performs the ceremonial functions while the Prime Minister performs the executive functions (as it operates in Great Britain).

ii. **Fusion of Powers:** The theory of separation of power is not strictly observed in the parliamentary system of government since there is no separation of powers between the executive and legislature, the cabinet members are also members of the legislature; they both take part in drafting bills (The minister in Britain is also a member of the legislature which makes it possible for him to combine an executive and legislature functions). In the parliamentary system of government, the executive depends on the legislature for its existence since there is a fusion of power.

iii. **Tenure not Guaranteed:** In the parliamentary system of government, the head of government, prime minister will lose his position while the government he heads will resign when a vote of no confidence is passed against him in parliament. This implies that the prime minister can only remain in office for as long as his party still control the majority of seats in parliament.

iv. **Power of Attainment:** Another difference between these two systems of government is the power of attainment, which can throw up an elected member of the legislature into the position of a prime minister, on the strength of his ability to command the loyalty of his former colleagues. In Britain, the then Prime Minister, Mr. David Cameron was initially an elected member of House of Commons on the ticket of the Conservative Party before he rose to become the British Prime Minister. His party then led a coalition government with the Liberal Democratic Party while the Labour Party was the official opposition party.

v.   **Official Opposition:** In the parliamentary system of government, the opposition party is officially recognized, i.e., the party that is strongly recognized with the majority seats in the

legislature forms the government while the other party constitutes the opposition. The leader of the opposition party forms the shadow cabinet and is ever ready to form a new government on the collapse of the ruling party.

vi.   **Parliamentary Supremacy:** The parliamentary system of government is characterized by parliamentary supremacy. The constitution is not supreme, rather the primacy lies with the legislature, or the parliament as it is called in Britain. The legislature can re-write or edit the written parts of the constitution and also dissolve the cabinet at any time. In Great Britain, the Queen can dissolve the parliament when advised to do so by the prime minister.

vii.   **Party Discipline:** In the parliamentary system of government, there is the existence of party discipline (adherence to party ideals and proposal) if the party discipline is weak the party in power would find it difficult to maintain a majority in the legislature and so some of its policies may be defeated. It is also essential that ministers must come from the same party with the prime minister in the cabinet.

3.5.2.1 Applications of the Parliamentary System of Government

Britain is one country in the world that is foremost in its adoption and practice of the parliamentary system of government. In Britain, there is a separation between the head of state (the Queen) and the head of government (the prime minister). Under this system, which is also referred to as a cabinet government, the parliament is the supreme legislative body in Britain. The parliamentary system after centuries of its operation in Britain has remained, to a reasonable extent, a success story. Nigeria operated the parliamentary system of government in the First Republic, and like Britain, its Parliament was bicameral (the Senate and House of Representatives). But unlike the British model, Nigeria had a written constitution. After 1963, when Nigeria became a republic the post of head of state was renamed the President. The title of Prime Minister for the head of government was retained in 1963, as it was in 1960 when Nigeria became independent. Nigeria, however, discarded the parliamentary system in 1979 after the return to democratic government, because the ills and consequent failure of the First Republic were partly blamed on the parliamentary system of government.

Merits of the Parliamentary System of Government

i.   The parliamentary system of government curbs autocracy and dictatorship in government. It is very difficult for the system to breed or produce dictators since the government is always conscious of the fact that if it does, it will incur the wrath of members of parliament which may lead to the passing of a vote of no confidence on it. The notion of party discipline which

requires that both the government in power and members of parliament follow the laid down policies and programmes of the party as contained in it manifestoes usually ensure that neither of them government nor the parliament crosses the line.

ii.   The parliamentary system promotes dedication and efficiency in government. The ministers at party caucus must have thoroughly discussed proposals/bills before bringing them to the parliament for consideration. This ensures quick approval of policies and enacted of laws since members of the cabinet also sit in parliament where they see to their passage. In addition, to avoid criticisms and the possibility of a vote of no confidence in his government, the prime minister is always conscious of putting in the best. This is done through regular check on the activities of his ministers. The efficiency of ministers is further open to closer scrutiny during question time.

iii.   There is a lot of merit in the concept of collective responsibility which requires all members of the cabinet to be united in all its decisions. This makes the cabinet as a body to be careful about its conduct in office because it may have far-reaching implications on the stability and survival of the government. The parliamentary system is equally responsive to public opinion. This is because the cabinet is not responsible to the Prime Minister who appoints them but to the parliament. The presence of an officially recognized opposition party in a parliamentary system of government makes the ruling party or the governing coalition to be conscious of its responsibilities to the electorate. For this reason, the government is always alert to alternative views that may be canvassed by the opposition to know where to improve its performance. The role of the opposition party, therefore, is not only to constructively criticize the government as an effective watchdog but also to see itself as the government in waiting or as an alternative government, that is ready to take over the government should the situation arises.

iv.   The fusion of power which ensures that cabinet members are also parliamentarians promotes mutual understanding between the legislative and the executive branches of government. The fact that members of the executive also sit in the legislature as lawmakers ensure that the process of decision making is faster. It does not require further elaboration to know that consensus on major issues can be easily reached since the cabinet usually operates as a committee of the parliament.

v.   The parliamentary system is less expensive to run because ministers are chosen from elected members of parliament. This is not the case under the presidential system of government where ministers are chosen from outside the parliament. Thus, the additional money that will

be required to hire more hands outside the legislature is saved in a parliamentary system of government.

vi. Despite changes of government at regular intervals, the nonpartisan but largely ceremonial and symbolic role of the monarch or head of state in a parliamentary system contributes to continuity and sustenance of state institutions. For example, in Britain, because the Queen has been in office since 1953, she has remained the anchor of stability of the British institutions and values, despite changes in governments in the country in the past 53 years now.

Demerits of the Parliamentary System of Government

i. The best people may not be in government since the Prime Minister is restricted to appoint ministers into his cabinet from members of his party. This is not the case in the presidential system of government where even the non-card-carrying party members are appointed to serve in the cabinet and other key positions in government.

ii. Parliamentary system violates the principle of separation of powers and the expectations that liberty of the citizens and rule of law will be guaranteed. A major disadvantage of fusion of powers is that it may lead to a needless bottleneck in the relationships among the organs of government and complexity in the administration of government.

iii. There is also the danger of personality clash or conflict of interest between the head of state and head of government in a parliamentary system of government. This type of conflict of interest manifested in the First Republic in Nigeria when Dr Azikiwe, then President and Alhaji Tafawa Balewa, then Prime Minister disagreed over the conduct and outcome of the December 30, 1964, federal elections. In September2010, the Somalia Prime Minister, Omar Abdirashid Ali Sharmarke resigned from office due to personal disagreement between him and President Sheik Sharif Ahmed. Thus, Nigeria opted for the presidential system of government in 1979 partly to avoid a possible repeat of the constitutional crisis, which enveloped the country in the aftermath of the disagreement between the two leaders.

iv. Another demerit of the parliamentary system of government is that it can also throw up a person who is not countrywide popular or known as a Prime Minister. Unlike the presidential system, which requires the president to have a countrywide appeal before he can be elected, the requirements for the office of a Prime Minister are less stringent. Any elected member of House of Commons from a single-member constituency who is believed to have the majority support of other members can become the leader of the government in Britain. This was exploited in Nigeria during the First Republic when the leaders of the Northern People's

Congress did not bother to campaign in the other regions because they were confident that votes from the Northern region alone were sufficient to earn them the prestigious post of Prime Minister.

3.6 POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CHANGES

Change is a natural phenomenon, and in all ages, change occurs, but the rapidity and extent of change distinguish the modern world. Change in the methods of communication, in economic, social, and political life.

Political changes occur when rulers or the type of governance changes. It is a normal function of internal and external politics. For instance, a ruler is voted out. At the extreme, a ruling class will lose power through a coup d'état or civil war. For the governance aspect, political change can be a new set of rules or laws, to address a social issue. It can also lead to a new type of governance system, such as transitioning from a monarchy to a democracy. Those can be generated by the rulers' new vision or could also be the result of policy changes through the concerted effort/pressure from the population.

So internal political change is initiated by citizens of the country. It can be done through regular events, such as elections and rulers choosing to hand power over, or through irregular events, such as a coup d'état or a rebellion. External political change is initiated by other countries and is usually the result of military threats or action. It can also be the result of economic pressure. An example of this is the war in Iraq. The old government was toppled, a new leader chosen, and a new style of governance installed by foreign powers.

Social change refers to changes in the political or economic context of societies which affect the vast majority of the population, albeit not necessarily in a uniform way. It may occur gradually (as in the process of globalization) or abruptly (as in the case of political revolutions) and be more or less broad in its scope. Social change can be driven by collective action, changes in values, technological innovation, and other exogenous or endogenous factors. Usually, various political institutions, norms of living together, and cultural symbols are affected simultaneously.

3.6.1 Political Crises and Social Changes in Nigeria

Nigeria is a conglomeration of multiple ethnic groups. The political unit consisted of three major ethnic groups and very many other ethnic groups. These various ethnic groups have different cultural

Backgrounds. The major groups are the Hausa/Fulani who inhabit the northern area, the Yoruba who occupy the southern area, and the Igbo who occupy the south-western area. Other minor groups include the Tiv, Urhobo, Itsekiri, Kanuri and Gwari. The cultural dissimilarities among the various ethics groups have been causing ethnic rivalries, during and after independence. For instance, the various constitutional conferences held before independence displayed the uncompromising attitude of the regional delegates. The various ethnic groups have always been suspicious of one another. There has been the fear of one group trying to dominate the other.

Similarly, the political parties formed before and after independence were regionally based: they were formed along ethnic lines. All these clearly show that all has not been well with Nigeria federalism as it is saddled with many problems among which is inter-ethnic rivalry, which provided the background for the major political crises in the country.

3.6.1.1 The Kano riot, 1953

On 1 April 1953, Anthony Enahoro tabled a motion in the federal house of representatives to the effect that the house accepts; as a primary political objective the attainment of self-government for Nigeria in 1956. This motion was seen by northern leaders in the house as being directed against them. The northern and its leaders were not ready for self-government. Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto, leader of government business in the northern as well as leader of the NPC, said so in the House. He amended the motion to read that the house accept as a primary political objective the attainment of self-government for Nigeria as soon as practicable. The southern political leaders were angry while some politically conscious citizens booed and jeered at the northern leaders on their way back to Kaduna from Lagos.

Soon after this event, the Action Group sent a delegation to the northern region under the leadership of Chief S. L Akintola. The main objective of this delegation was to show that the stand of the NPC on the self-government issue did not represent northern opinion. When the delegation got to Kano, they got a very hostile reception which led to bloody riots.

Nature of the Kano riots

The Kano riot of 1953 refers to the riot, which broke out in the ancient city of Kano, located in Northern Nigeria, on 16, May 1953. The riot was a clash between Northerners who were opposed to Nigeria's Independence and Southerners made up of mainly the Yorubas and the Igbos who supported immediate independence for Nigeria. The riot that lasted for four days claimed many lives of the Southerners and Northerners and many others were wounded. The remote cause of the riot was the

strained relationship between the Northern and Southern political leaders over the issue of self-government in 1956. This strained relationship started with a 1953 motion for self-government for Nigeria in 1956 tabled in the House of Representatives by a member of the Action Group (AG) Chief Anthony Enahoro. The Northerners did not accept the motion. The leader of the Northern People's Congress (NPC) and the Sardauna of Sokoto, Alhaji Ahmadu Bello in a counter-motion replaced in the year 1956 with the phrase "as soon as practicable." Another Northern member of the House moved a motion for adjournment, a motion which Southern members of AG and NCNC viewed as a delay tactics.

All the AG and NCNC members in the house walked out as a result of the adjournment motion. When the Northern delegates left the House, they were confronted by hostile crowds in Lagos who insulted, jeered and called them all sorts of names. Members of the Northern delegation were embittered and in their "Eight Point Program" in the Northern Regional Legislative House, they sought for secession. The last straw that broke the camel's back was the tour by a delegation of the AG and NCNC led by Chief S. L. Akintola. That tour which was aimed at campaigning for self-government acted as the immediate cause of the Kano riot. It sparked off a chain of disorder that culminated in the riot. The riot took place at Sabon Gari an area predominantly occupied by southern Nigerians. Disturbances that led to the riot started out at the Colonial Hotel, on 16 May 1953 which was supposed to be the venue of a meeting by the Action Group led by Akintola. Prior the meeting, the Kano Native Authority withdrew its permission to grant the meeting. A mob gathered outside of the hotel and started stoning people close to the hotel, during the fracas, two people believed to be southerners died, the mob later attempted to gain entry into Sabon Gari but were subdued by the Native Authority police.

The situation became more serious and became an inter-ethnic crisis on 17 May when mobs of hooligans from Northern section of Kano, in particular Fagge attempted to break into the Southern and Igbo dominated Sabon Gari area with some success, though their original chants were against the Yorubas, the casualties in the Sabon Gari area were mostly Igbos. Shops in the Sabon Gari Market were looted and violent attacks took place. But the Native Authority police and the Army were called upon and prevented further entry of hooligans into the Kano area.

Political implication of the Kano Riots

These riots further strained the relationship between the northern and southern political leaders. On 24 May 1953, the northern house of assembly and the house of chiefs jointly passed an 'eight-point programme' designed to end the federal structure being developed for Nigeria. What the programme called for was a customs union between the three regions of Nigeria-the North, East and West. The riots finally proved to the British government that the relationship between the three regions was too close and that there was a need to move apart, at least for some time. This led to the review of the Macpherson constitution and the Lyttleton constitution of 1954.

3.6.1.2 The Census Crisis, 1962/63

On the basis of the 1952/53 census, the 312 seats in the House of Representatives were allocated 174 to the North, 73 to the East, 62 to the West, and three to Lagos for contesting the 1959 federal elections. It was the hope of southern politicians that the 1962/63 census would favour them and thereby end the absolute majority which the North had in the house. The census was conducted on 13 May 1962. When the figures were received in Lagos, the 1952/53 figures for the North had increased by thirty percent, those of the West by seventy percent. The Census Commission in Lagos, under T. Warren, a British official, declared that only the northern figures were reasonable. As a result of the outcry that arose from this declaration, the prime minister was asked to cancel the whole exercise and order a fresh one.

In September 1963, the federal and regional governments agreed to conduct another census between 5 and 8 November, 1963. Regional census officials were to manage the operations in their own regions. In addition, each region was allowed to send inspectors to the other regions to observe the procedure and check the counting. The headquarters in Lagos was given the power to test the results from each region. When the figures were released on 24 February 1964, the northern region had 29,777,986, the East 12,388,646 (the same as in 1962), the West (including the new mid-west region) 12,811,837, and the Federal Territory of Lagos 675,352, giving a total of 55,653,821, i.e. Increase of over 25 million persons in ten years. In percent, the East the North had increased by 67 percent, the East by 65 percent and the West by almost 100 percent. The overall increase in population was 74 percent.

Dr. Michael Okpara, premier of the Eastern Region, rejected the result. Sir Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto and premier of the Northern Region accepted the figures. Chief Samuel L. Akintola, premier if the Western Region accepted the result of the census. The Prime Minister, Sir

Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, announced that the results were entirely satisfactory. Thus, the hope of southern political leaders to change the balance of power in their favour was not realized.

3.6.1.3 The Action Group crisis, 1962

In 1959, Chief Samuel Akintola replaced Chief Obafemi Awolowo as premier of the Western Region. Chief Awolowo had decided to contest the federal elections of December 1959 to the House of Representatives. He had hoped that his party, the Action Group, would win the election, hereby giving him the opportunity to become prime minister. The Action Group lost the elections and so Awolowo became the Leader of Opposition in Lagos. He was, however, still the national president and leader of the party, with Akintola as deputy leader. The primary root of the crisis was the struggle over who would control policy and major appointments in the Western Region. Awolowo insisted that he should be consulted on changes in policy and on major appointments. However, Akintola felt that this was not quite practicable, especially when emergency decisions had to be taken, or when agreements had to be reached on a national basis with other governments.

In January 1962, the Action Group-owned mass media started to criticize the decisions of the Akintola government in the Western Region. Another possible reason for the crisis was that in 1957, Akintola and Ayo Rosiji had joined the federal cabinet and became friendly with the prime minister. This relationship continued even after Akintola has left the federal legislature and become premier of the Western Region. Awolowo, on the other hand, did not get on well with the prime minister. There were also personal differences. The ideology of democratic socialism adopted by the Action Group in 1961 was not fully endorsed by Akintola and his supporters within the party, especially the Obas and business leaders. Also, the wives of the two Action Groups leaders were business rivals. Awolowo personally did not approve of Akintola succeeding him as premier of the Western Region in 1959. All these were, however, minor when compared to the power rivalry within the party.

Principal Actors in the Action Group Crisis

The two most important actors were Awolowo and Akintola. Other major actors were Dauda Adegbenro, Ayo Rosiji, Adegun, Samuel Ikoku, Anthony Enahoro, Bisi Onabanjo, Lateef Jakande and the Federal Government itself.

Federal Government Intervention in the Action Group Crisis

The federal government intervened, principally in favour of Samuel Akintola, in the following ways:

i. When fighting broke out in the western house of assembly and the federal government had to declare a state of emergency in the Western Region, the administrator appointed was a sympathizer of the Akintola faction.

ii. Within two months of the emergency and the restriction of all leaders involved in the crisis, virtually all the Akintola group were released. Awolowo's principal supporters, however, were still restricted.

iii. Five of the ministers in the administrator's cabinet were ministers without portfolio in the previous (i.e., Akintola's) government.

iv. The Coker tribunal set up to look into the finances of the Action Group found Awolowo guilty, whereas Akintola was exonerated.

v. Awolowo was tried and convicted of treasonable felony, i.e., for an attempt to take over the government by the use of force.

vi. Akintola was reinstalled as the premier of the Western Region.

vii. Implications of the Action Group crisis

viii. The crisis weakened the Action Group as a political party at the federal level. The government of the Western region was taken over by a newly formed political party, the Nigerian National Democratic Party (NNDP) led by the Akintola. Some regard the crisis as the beginning of the fall of the 'first republic' in Nigeria.

3.6.2 Electoral Crisis in Nigeria

We shall consider electoral crisis in Nigeria with regard to the following elections:

1. Federal elections.
2. Western Nigerian elections
3. General elections.

3.6.2.1 Federal elections, 1964

The last election to the federal House of Representatives was held in December 1959. Another was due in 1964, since the 'life' of parliament was fixed at five years. As we saw earlier, the strength of each political party in the house was 148 for the NPC, 89 for the NCNC and 75 for the Action Group. Both of the southern-based parties realized that in order to capture power at the federal level, they needed to win some seats in the north. However, the census which they had expected to favour the south, proved otherwise. By May 1964, the NPC controlled the North, the NCNC the East and the

Mid-West, while the NNDP of Akintola and Fani Kayode was in control of government in the West. The Action Group was in opposition in the West.

For the elections, the various political parties entered into alliances. The NCNC and the Action Group, together with their minority parties such as the umbrella of the United Progressive Grand Alliance (UPGA). The NPC, NNDP, Niger Delta Congress, and Mid-West Democratic Front teamed up to form the Nigerian National Alliance (NNA).

3.6.2.2 The Western Nigeria Elections Crisis, 1965

The leadership of the AG, which formed the official opposition in the federal parliament, split in May 1962 as a result of a rift between the party's leader, Chief Awolowo and his erstwhile deputy and Premier of Western Nigeria, Chief Akintola. Various historical accounts abound on the circumstances that led to the rift between the two political leaders. While some historians claimed that the genesis of the political crisis in Western Nigeria began with the sacking of Chief J. F. Odunjo as the Chairman, Western Region Marketing Board by Akintola over interfamily squabbles, others attributed the offshoot of the crisis to hardline stance of the AG leaders over differences that could have been amicably be resolved within the party.

According to a publication of The Human Rights Law Service (HURILAWS) "Managing Election Conflicts in Nigeria", the AG crisis of 1962 arose primarily from disagreement over matters of ideology between Chief Awolowo, the party's leader and Chief S.L Akintola, his deputy. Akintola was expelled for anti-party activities, among other reasons, and he went on to form the United Peoples Party (UPP). The UPP and some members of NCNC and the Nigerian National Democratic Party (NNDP) formed an alliance, which controlled the government of the Western Region until the Western Regional elections of 1965.

Prof. John. N. Paden in his book, *Ahmadu Bello, Sardauna of Sokoto: Values and Leadership in Nigeria* said, the key leaders of Northern Peoples' Congress (NPC) held secret talks with the Yorubas. Some of these meetings had actually begun in 1961- 62, and Awolowo and the Sardauna met casually on a few occasions and agreed to hold meetings. But Awolowo seemed more interested in documenting the discussions and the agreements for future use.

The NPC decided to try Akintola. The NPC came to regard Awolowo as the stumbling block to a union between the Yoruba and the north. Akintola was more trustworthy than Awolowo. The thinking was that later they might form one single party with Akintola. Another account in an article titled, "Nigeria Politics in the Crisis Years" obtained from the website of the Library of Congress Country

Studies, reveals thus, "Awolowo favoured the adoption of democratic socialism as party policy, following the lead of Kwame Nkrumah's regime in Ghana. This radical ideology that Awolowo expressed was seen as a bid to make the AG an interregional party that drew support across the country from educated younger voters." Akintola, in reaction, attempted to retain the support of conservative party elements. He called for better relations with the Northern Peoples' Congress (NPC) and an all-party federal coalition that would remove the AG from opposition and give its leaders greater access to power. Awolowo's majority expelled Akintola from the party. The then Governor of the Western Region, the Ooni of Ife, Sir Adesoji Aderemi demanded Akintola's resignation as Premier and named Alhaji Dauda Adegbenro as his successor. Crisis erupted in the Western Nigeria, and this earned the region the appellation "Wild West."

This action resulted in some legal battles as Akintola challenged his removal as the Premier of the region. The series of cases became popularly known and cited as Akintola-vs-Aderemi & Adegbenro (1962) 1 All. NLR. 442, Adegbenro -vs-Akintola & Aderemi (1962) 1 All NLR 465 and Adegbenro-vs-Akintola (1963) All NLR 305. In Adegbenro-vs-Akintola in May 1962, for instance, the issue tried by the court was the removal of Akintola as the Premier of Western Nigeria.

Specifically, Sir Aderemi had removed Chief Akintola from the office of Premier, and appointed Alhaji Dauda Adegbenro to the position. Akintola's supporters allegedly went wild and unleashed violence in the region while supporters of Awolowo reportedly retaliated. Akintola sued Adegbenro and the AG leadership, and the Federal Supreme Court decided that he had been wrongly removed.

Exercising a right conferred by Section 114 of the then Constitution of Western Nigeria, Adegbenro appealed to the Privy Council, where the judgement was upturned in his favour on the interpretation of S. 33 (10) (a) of the constitution. According to A. D. Badaiki's (1996) Interpretation of Statutes, this provison was later amended by the Constitution of Western Nigeria (Amendment) Law, 1963 retroactively in a manner which settled the question of the Premiership in Akintola's favour, but without mention of the court suit or of the costs awarded by the Privy Council to Alhaji Adegbenro."

Questions were raised on Adegbenro's ability to recover costs awarded to him, it was held that it is presumed that the legislature does not desire to confiscate the property or to encroach upon the right of persons, and, as there was no clear implication that the legislature intended not only to settle a political question, but also to deprive Adegbenro of his costs by the Constitution of Western Nigeria (Amendment) Law, 1963, his right to costs remained unaffected.

Akintola then organised the UPP, which pursued a policy of collaboration with the NPC-National Council of Nigeria and Cameroun (NCNC) government in the federal parliament. Akintola's removal in May 1962 sparked a bloody riot in the Western Region and brought effective government to an end as rival legislators, following the example in the streets, introduced violence to the floor of the regional legislature. The Federal Government declared a state of emergency, dissolved the legislature, and appointed a medical practitioner, Dr. Adekoyejo Majekodunmi as an administrator for the Western Region. One of his first acts was to place many AG leaders under house arrest. Later, the Police uncovered evidence linking Awolowo with a conspiracy to overthrow the government. With a number of other AG leaders, he was arrested and tried for treason. Authorities claimed that 200 activists had received military training in Ghana and had smuggled arms into Nigeria in preparation for a coup d'état. Awolowo was found guilty, along with 17 others, and was sentenced to 10 years imprisonment.

Chief Anthony Enahoro, Awolowo's close ally, who had been abroad at the time of the coup, was extradited from Britain and was also convicted of treason and imprisoned. In the meantime, the state of emergency was lifted and Balewa, obtained Akintola's reinstatement as Premier of the Western Region at the head of a coalition between the NCNC and the UPP. The AG successfully contested the legality of this action in the courts, but a retroactive amendment to the Western Region's constitution that validated Akintola's reappointment was quickly enacted. As Tafawa Balewa told parliament, the legality of the case "had been overtaken by events." Later in 1963, Nigeria became a republic within the Commonwealth. The change in status called for no practical alteration of the constitutional system. The president, elected to a five-year term by a joint session of the parliament, replaced the crown as the symbol of national sovereignty and the British monarchy as head of state, Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, who had been Governor-General, became the republic's first president.

The Consequences of the Western Nigeria Elections Crisis
It was the coup of Major Nzeogwu and his collaborators that finally put an end to the rebellion in the western Region and apparent lack of concern in the rest of the country. The crisis in the Western Region was mainly a problem of political succession. As in other parts of Nigeria and at the federal level, succession had become endemic problem in Nigeria. In the case of the Western Region in 1965, it led first to armed rebellion by civilian politicians and their aggrieved supporters, and eventually to military seizure of power.

3.6.2.3 The General Elections Crisis (1979 and 1983)

After more than thirteen years of military rule (1966-1979), it was decided that an election should be held as one of the processes for handing over power to civilians. Historically, between 1964 (last general election was held in Nigeria) and 1979. The military took power in January 1966, many constitutional bodies were set up. This suggested that the military would not stay in power for a long time and that civil rule would return soon. Early in 1966, General Aguiyi Ironsi set up three such constitutional bodies, while General Yakubu Gowon who took over from him, assembled old politicians to discuss constitutional proposals. The civil war of 1967-1970 appeared to have brought to end all hopes for an early return to democratic government. When the civil war ended, Gowon promised a return to civilian rule via general elections in 1976. Unfortunately, he revoked this promise in the course of his broadcast of October 1974. This and other promises led to the overthrow of General Gowon in July 1975. It was in the light of all these that the government of General Muritala Mohammed announced a five-stage pro-gramme of return to civilian rule. This included the setting up of a constitution Drafting Committee, the formation of political parties, and the holding of elections at the state and federal levels. All these were expected to be accomplished within four years.

As part of the constitution, which was adopted in 1979, it was agreed that elections would be held in Nigeria every four years. This was the basis for the 1983 elections.

Nature and Consequences of the General Elections' Crisis

Another important aspect of the 1979 constitution which had to do with elections was the setting up of the Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO), with powers not simply to conduct elections but also, to recognise and register political parties, payment subventions to these political parties, divide the country into electoral districts constituencies, register voters all over the country. With the adoption of an executive president system of government, Nigeria, being a federation, was confronted with many elections, i.e., of the president, state governor, senate, member of house of House of Representatives and members of the state legislatures. There were thus five elections to be conducted every four years.

Five political parties were registered by the electoral commission for the 1979 elections and six for the 1983 elections. These were the National party of Nigeria (NPN), Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN), Nigeria People Party (NPP), Great Nigeria Peoples Party (GNPP) and Peoples Redemption Party of Nigeria. The only additional party in 1983 was the Nigeria Advance Party (NAP) led by Tunji Braithwaite. There was no political party clearly won the elections to the National Assembly in 1979. Although the NPN was declared winner of the presidential election, the party won only seven of the

nineteen state governorship elections, had 36 of the 95 senate seats, 168 of the 449 house of representative seats, and a majority of seats in eight state house of assembly. The other political parties, the UPN, NPP, GNPP and PRP, followed in that order.

The most controversial in elections 1979, was the presidency. According to the constitution, the person to be declared winner of the presidential race must not only win more popular votes than the other candidates, but must also be voted for by at least one-quarter of the total number of voters in the two-thirds of the states of the federation. Since there were nineteen states in 1979, the question was whether two-thirds of nineteen states were equal to twelve or thirteen?   Alhaji Shehu Shagari was declared winner of presidential election of 1979, he had the highest number of votes cast all over the country and at least one quarter of the votes in twelve states. It was argued by those opposed to the NPN (particularly the UPN, whose candidate was Obafemi Awolowo) that Shehu Shagari did not meet the constitutional condition and therefore, a second election in which both of them would be the only candidates should be conducted. Awolowo filed a petition before the special electoral tribunal set up for this purpose and lost. Many Nigerians were with the view that Shagari was not properly elected. This feeling of wrong contributed to the problems of second republic.

Another major problem was the way in which the 1983 elections were conducted. There were widespread malpractices. The elections were not free and fair. Votes casts were not correctly reported. The police were generally thought to have been used against opponents of the party in power at the federal level, the NPN. Many believed that the elections were rigged, those benefitted from public office are seen by many as an avenue for enriching themselves fraudulently.

3.6.2.4 Kaduna State Government Crisis, 1981
At the 1979 elections, the NPN won three of the five seats allocated to Kaduna state in the senatorial election and 21 of the 33 seats in the House of Representatives. In the election to the 99-member state house of assembly, the NPN won 68 of the seats. Despite all this, the party lost the governorship election to the PRP whose candidate was Alhaji Balarabe Musa scored 560, 605 votes while Alhaji Kaita, the NPN candidate, polled 551,252. As a result, the NPN gained overwhelming control of the state legislature, while the PRP controlled the state executive. An attempt was made by the NPN to gain control of the state executive through the electoral tribunal set up to consider election petitions. The tribunal, presided over by Justice Adefarasin, ruled that the election result was in order. Alhaji Balarabe Musa thus became the governor of Kaduna state.

Events that Led to the Kaduna State Crisis

When he took over as governor, Balarabe Musa made several drastic changes in the state in favour of the poor, much to the annoyance of the powerful and the rich citizens of the state. He abolished the community tax and cattle tax in the state. He also stopped the collection of levy of eight naira per taxpayer imposed in 1979. While promising to protect the dignity of the traditional rulers, he abolished all the emirate councils and transferred their functions to the council of chiefs, he tried to get the attention of High court to compel the house of assembly of the state of state to confirm or approve his list of commissioners, but the court refused to grant his request. He later threatens to run his government without commissioners. Every attempt to resolve this proved abortive.

Implications of the Kaduna State Government Crisis

The implications were many. One of these was that, if the executive was not supported by the majority of the house of assembly members, he could be in serious trouble in the running of administration. Secondly, the law court under the 1979 constitution had little or no power in impeachment.

3.6.2.5 The Nigerian Civil War

The Nigerian civil war was fought between July 1967 and January 1970, a period of about thirty months. The war started as a result of conflict within Nigerian military, which took power from the civilians in January 1966.

Causes of the Nigerian Civil War

i. The forced British **amalgamation** of 250 diverse and distant ethic groups and two separate provinces into the single nation of Nigeria by combining the *Northern Province protectorate*, which provided a *security buffer* against the French and German colonies, and the *Southern Province protectorate*, which provided the raw materials for export and *revenue*.

ii. Social and religious barriers all hampered the creation of a unified state of Nigeria.

iii. The self-declared secession nation of Biafra by Eastern Military Governor, Lieutenant Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu, was **inter-ethnic domination.**

iv. The brutal and planned annihilation of officers of Eastern Nigeria origin had cast serious doubt as to whether they could ever sincerely live together as members of a nation.

v. The *ethnic hostilities*, a controversial census in 1963, a disputed post-independence election in 1964, and explosive western regional elections in 1965 worsened hostilities triggered.

vi. The first military coup on 15 January **1966**, led by Igbo (eastern region) Major Chukwuma ''Kaduna'' Nzeogwu. Though Nzeogwu's coup killed Nigerian Prime Minister Tafawa Balewa the *Sardauna* of Sokoto, Sir Ahmadu Bello, no Eastern Igbos were killed, a fact that

triggered the accusation that the coup was not political but rather ethnic and that the Igbos of the east were aiming for **ethnic domination** over north and south.

vii. Many believed that *Sardauna,* a **tribal** leader, opposed "emerging cosmopolitan, federal and democratic conscious" epitomized by the "new generation of Northerners" in favour of tribal traditions and structures.

viii. Major-General Johnson Aguiyi-Ironsi abolished the federal structure and introduced a **unitary system of government** in Nigeria, a unitary form has one central decision-making power.

ix. A **summit** of military leaders held at Aburi, Ghana, January **1967**. There, they agreed to a **confederal** system of government. This agreement was never implemented.

x. Lieutenant Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumegwu **Ojukwu**, Eastern Military Governor, unilaterally declared independence from Nigeria. The new independent nation was called **Biafra.**

The Outcome of the Civil War

The Civil War's aftermath in the Reconciliation, Reconstruction, and Rehabilitation program achieved some of the desperately overdue goals of a unified Nigeria, though fulfilment of promises was aborted by subsequent corruption and further military coups triggered by:

i. Resettlement of displaced Igbos in permanent residences

ii. Physical, emotional, and political rehabilitation of soldiers and civilians

iii. Reconstruction of destroyed infrastructure (roads, railways, communications, etc) and public buildings

iv. Correction of economic and social problems of poverty, malnourishment, disease (especially preventable disease), ignorance and lack of educational opportunities (in contrast to the abundant opportunities in the Southern area)

v. War relief food, medicine, shelter

vi. Establishment of civilian government and extinguishing of military government on 1 October 1975

vii. Well operated, non-controversial national census

viii. Draft of a new national constitution

ix. Conducting honest elections

x. Creation of states according to the 1967 agreement on implementing a confederal system of government

How to Prevent Civil War in Nigeria

    i.   Power should not be concentrated either at the centre or in any one of region.

    ii.   Nigerian should live together as brothers and sisters

    iii.   Unity in all respects must be encouraged

    iv.   Diversity in language and culture should be used to build a great nation, not to drive Nigerians apart.

    v.   Inter-ethnic marriage should be encouraged.

    vi.   Religious differences should be tolerated by all.

    vii.   Nigeria should be seen as belonging to all Nigerians.

3.6.3 REVOLUTIONS, RIOTS, COUP DETAT AND THE NEW WORLD ORDER

3.6.3.1 Revolutions

Revolution is an attempt to achieve fundamental and relatively sudden change in political power and political organization. It typically involves a revolt against the government due to perceived oppression (political, social, economic) or political incompetence. Revolutions have occurred throughout human history and vary widely in terms of methods, success or failure, duration, and motivating ideology. Their results include major changes in culture, economy, and socio-political institutions, usually in response to perceived overwhelming autocracy or plutocracy.

Scholarly debates about what does and does not constitute a revolution centres on several issues. Early studies of revolutions primarily analysed events in European history from a psychological perspective, but more modern examinations include global events and incorporate perspectives from several social sciences, including sociology and political science. Several generations of scholarly thought on revolutions have generated many competing theories and contributed much to the current understanding of this complex phenomenon.

Notable revolutions in recent centuries include the creation of the United States through the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783), the French Revolution (1789-1799), the Haitian Revolution (1791-1804), the Spanish American wars of independence (1808-1826), the European Revolutions of 1848, the Russian Revolution in 1917, the Chinese Revolution of the 1940s, the Cuban Revolution in 1959, the Iranian Revolution in 1979, and the European Revolutions of 1989.

Types of Revolution

Revolutions are tagged various labels as a form of typological nomenclature. Said typological nomenclature emerge for their instigators, core issues, agenda, or purpose, which lead to the Revolution.

Aristocratic Revolution

Such Revolution occurs from a crack in the unison of the aristocratic (privileged and entrenched elites) class of society. In such a situation, factions are formed, and one of such emerge to challenge the established order. The cause here could because of lost benefits from the current system or other reasons. E.g., The Meji Revolution

Bourgeois Revolution

Here, this Revolution emerges from the non-aristocratic or noble, wealthy elites of society. Said class is populated by wealthy entrepreneur, merchants, profession who have the resources to form a potent political force. The Bourgeois seeks to open up the space of political participation from the hands of a privileged elite few. Hence, they seek expanded power in a change of unfair conditions that inhibit them. E.g., The French Revolution etc.

Proletarian Revolution

A proletarian Revolution is one championed mostly by the working class or as **Karl Marx** term it as the "Have Not." Here, the group that leads said Revolution are usually radical. They seek to unseat an unjust economic or political order, that keeps them subservient, exploited, and downtrodden. e.g., The Bolshevik Revolution

Peasant Revolution

Peasant Revolution is such that has been phased out of modern International Society. It occurred in the past, in a situation where peasants (serfs or subservient class; tied to the land), as the lowest class in society, rise to overthrow their landlord or landed masters. E.g., the Red Turban Revolution

3.6.3.2 Riots

A riot is a form of civil disorder commonly characterized by a group lashing out in a violent public disturbance against authority, property, or people. Riots typically involve destruction of property, public or private. The property targeted varies depending on the riot and the inclinations of those

involved. Targets can include shops, cars, restaurants, state-owned institutions, and religious buildings.

Riots often occur in reaction to a grievance or out of dissent. Historically, riots have occurred due to poverty, unemployment, poor living conditions, governmental oppression, taxation or conscription, conflicts between ethnic groups (race riot) or religions (e.g., sectarian violence, pogrom), the outcome of a sporting event (e.g., sports riot, football hooliganism) or frustration with legal channels through which to air grievances.

While individuals may attempt to lead or control a riot, riots typically consist of disorganized groups that are frequently ''chaotic and exhibit herd behaviour.'' There is a growing body of evidence to suggest that riots are not irrational, herd-like behaviour (sometimes called mob mentality), but actually follow inverted social norms.

Dealing with riots is often a difficult task for police forces. They may use tear gas or CS gas to control rioters. Riot police may use less-than-lethal methods of control, such as shotguns that fire flexible baton rounds to injure or otherwise incapacitate rioters for easier arrest.

The economic and political effects of riots can be as complex as their origins. Property destruction and harm to individuals are often immediately measurable.

3.6.3.3 Coup d'état

A coup d'état is the sudden, often violent overthrow of an existing government by a small group. The coup d'état, also known as coup, is typically an illegal, unconstitutional seizure of power conducted by a dictator, a guerrilla military force, or an opposing political faction.

As a key to success, groups attempting coups typically seek to gain the support of all or parts of the country's armed forces, the police, and other military elements. Unlike revolutions, which are undertaken by large groups of people seeking sweeping social, economic, and political change, including the form of government itself, a coup seeks only to replace key government personnel. Coups rarely change a country's fundamental social and political ideology, such as replacing a monarchy with a democracy.

Coup d'états are seen controversially as a type of Revolution. However, that is not without challenge to its suitability in being termed as such. A Coup is a forceful action aimed at the overthrow of the political leadership of a system. It usually involves a small group within the government structure. Not necessarily linked to fundamental change. E.g., January 15th 1966 Coup in Nigeria

Differences between Coup d'état and Revolution

S/n	COUP D'ETAT	REVOLUTION
1	Mainly to effect political change in leadership.	To effect socio-political change, i.e., social transformation.
2	Highly, enclavistic, the work of a clique of conspirators working secretly to overthrow an existing government or existing individuals in a government.	The result of popular mobilization of an oppressed people over a period of time, with a large-scale organization, strategy and tactics.
3	Relies mainly on the Armed Forces and public sympathy	The target is often to overthrow existing socio-political and economic order. It often relies on the people and the Vanguard Party or Mass Movement
4	Could be the result of external forces and intervention on behalf of, and in support of local allies, e.g., U.S intervention in Chile, and Grenada, Tanzania's, intervention in Uganda, in order to touts Idi Amin.	Mainly the result of internal factors mainly social frustration, corruption, poverty, dictatorship, oppression. But receive inspiration from successful revolution, elsewhere.
5	Relies on circumstance, change and elaborate planning with strategic places as targets – airports, seaports, radio/TV stations, military installations and communications network.	Carried out by threats, sabotage, propaganda or even armed insurrection. And often based on an ideology which is built around freedom, social justice, truth, equality and democracy, as an alternative to decadent status quo.
6	Can take place during period of wealth. Takes place at night to reduce the possibility of civilian causalities.	Exploits public frustration, can break out at any time.
7	Leads mainly to reforms aimed at stabilizing the political system.	Leads to social transformation.

3.6.3.4 The New World Order

The term ''new world order'' refers to a new period of history evidencing dramatic change in world political thought and the balance of power in international relations. Despite varied interpretations of this term, it is primarily associated with the ideological notion of world governance only in the sense

of new collective efforts to identify, understand, or address global problems that go beyond the capacity of individual nation-states to solve.

SUMMARY

The American experience of over two hundred years has shown that the presidential system of government can be a success story. It is unique because political and administrative powers are divided among the executive, legislative and judicial organs. Despite its many advantages, however, it is claimed by the opponents of the model that the presidential system of government is too expensive to maintain, especially by less developed countries and that it cannot readily guarantee a responsive or provide a responsible government.

In this chapter, the various types and systems of governments were examined together the branches of government and their interrelationships. The various political and electoral crisis in Nigeria were also analyzed with justifications for Revolutions, Riots, Coup d'état and the New World Order.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Who is in charge of the executive branch? The ……………………..
    A. Speaker of the House.
    B. Prime Minister.
    C. President.
    D. Chief Justice.

2. Who is the Commander in Chief of the military? The ………………..
    A. President.
    B. Vice-President.
    C. Secretary of Defense.
    D. Attorney General.

3. If both the President and the Vice President can no longer serve, who becomes President?
    A. President of the Senate.
    B. Speaker of the House.
    C. Governor of the most populous state.
    D. Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

4. What stops one branch of government from becoming too powerful? The ……………..
    A. President.
    B. Checks and balances.
    C. People.
    D. Freedom of speech.

5. The idea of self-government is in the first three words of the United States Constitution. What are these words?
    A. We the People.
    B. We shall succeed
    C. We the British.
    D. We the Colonists.

6. Which of the following is not a cause for political change?
    A. Civil rights denial.
    B. Economic frustration.
    C. Coup d'état.
    D. Social frustration.

7. Which of the following is not a major type of political change?
    A. Social movement.
    B. Revolution.
    C. National elections.
    D. Civil war,

8. A key factor in the rise of the modern state was ………………………....
    A. war.
    B. the need for governments to raise revenue for various purposes.
    C. the creation of professionalized bureaucracy.
    D. All of these.

9. Which of these factors is not very significant when considering the strength of a state?
   A. Clever politicians
   B. Economic prosperity
   C. Strong military
   D. Widespread consent from the public.

10. In public administration, what does the term ''Weberian'' denote? A(n) ……………….
    A. bureaucracy composed of the ruler's friends.
    B. inefficient bureaucracy.
    C. rule-based bureaucracy based on promotion through merit.
    D. corrupt bureaucracy.

11. Who is claimed to be the real father of modern management?
    A. Woodrow Wilson.
    B. Frederick Taylor.
    C. Henri Fayol.
    D. Max Weber.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Identify the specific features of the presidential system that could lead to dictatorship.
2. Explain how the doctrine of checks and balances guides the operations of the presidential system from the excesses of an overbearing president.
3. Identify the factors that account for the success of the parliamentary system of government.
4. Explain the extent to which the parliamentary system of government provides for a more accountable and responsive government.
5. Compare and contrast the role of the Prime Minister and the President in a parliamentary system of government.
6. Explain the major features of a unitary system of government.
7. Analyze the major factors that encourage a country to adopt a unitary system of government.
8. Explain the factors that influence the choice of federalism.
9. Discuss the major differences between federal and unitary systems of government.
10. Discuss the powers and functions of the three tiers of government in Nigeria.
11. Explain the essential features of a confederal Constitution.
12. Explain the main features distinguishing a federation from a confederation.
13. Identify the major characteristics of a confederation
14. Examine the factors that can make a country prefer a confederation as a constitutional arrangement.
15. Explain citing appropriate examples of the reasons responsible for the consistent failures of confederal states.
16. Trace the various Political Crises and Social Change in Nigeria.
17. Write short notes on the following
    a. Electoral Crisis in Nigeria
    b. Revolutions, Riots, Coup d'état and the New World Order

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CHAPTER FOUR

THEORY OF BUREAUCRACY

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand the:

- concept of Bureacracy
- workability of modern Bureacracy
- modern debates on Bureacracy
- power of the Bureaucrats
- characteristics of Bureacracy
- major principles of Bureacracy
- advantages and disadvantages of Bureacracy

4.2 INTRODUCTION

Bureaucracy is a pyramidical hierarchy, which functions under impersonal, uniform rules and procedures, and is defined as a formal organization which has formal rules and departments to coordinate hierarchical areas of activities. Thus, in such a formal organization to look for an informal structure is to recognize how the relations within the bureaucracy are guided. While formal rules and close control mean reliability of bureaucracy, the very same stricture leads to lack of flexibility and an informal tendency to turn means into ends. The pyramidical structure, in fact, induces individual internalization, resulting in a goal displacement.

Informal structure within bureaucracy refers to the cliques, as recognized by American sociologist Melvile Dalton, and the struggles of such cliques for gaining power and ensuring a greater share of organizational rewards. This clearly testifies to what extent the members of bureaucracy can come together on an informal level to consolidate and improve their position. Thus, cliques, lobbies and opinion-groups exist along with the formal hierarchy in bureaucracies, which account for the informal structure.

4.3 MEANING OF BUREAUCRACY

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

large institution (Tony & Dagmar 2015). The public administration in many countries is an example of a bureaucracy. Since being coined, the word bureaucracy has developed negative connotations. Bureaucracies have been criticized as being inefficient, convoluted, or too inflexible to individuals. Others have noted the necessity of bureaucracies in modern life. The German sociologist Max Weber argued that bureaucracy constitutes the most efficient and rational way in which one can organize the human activity and that systematic processes and organized hierarchies are necessary to maintain order, maximize efficiency, and eliminate favouritism. On the other hand, Weber also saw unfettered bureaucracy as a threat to individual freedom, trapping individuals in an impersonal ''iron cage'' of rule-based, rational control. A bureaucracy is a way of administratively organizing large numbers of people who need to work together. Organizations in the public and private sector, including universities and governments, rely on bureaucracies to function. The term bureaucracy literally means - rule by desks or offices, a definition that highlights the often-impersonal character of bureaucracies. Even though bureaucracies sometimes seem inefficient or wasteful, setting up a bureaucracy helps ensure that thousands of people work together in compatible ways by defining everyone's role within a hierarchy.

4.4   MODERN BUREAUCRACY

Bureaucracy is a concept in sociology and political science referring to the way that the administrative execution and enforcement of legal rules is socially organized. This office organization is characterized by standardized procedure, formal division of responsibility, hierarchy, and impersonal social relationships. Examples of everyday bureaucracies include governments, armed forces, corporations, hospitals, courts, and schools. The general opinion of bureaucracies tends to focus on their drawbacks, and potentially negative impact on efficiency and individual rights. However, when those working in such an organization live for the sake of others more than for their own individual needs, the division of labour and clear regulation of responsibilities of bureaucracy support the efficient operation of any social institution.

 Modern bureaucracies arose as the government of states grew larger during the modern period and especially following the Industrial Revolution. Tax collectors became necessary as states began to take in more and more revenue, while the role of administrators increased as the functions of government multiplied. Along with this expansion, came the recognition of corruption and nepotism within the managerial system. All these led to a civil service reform on a large scale in many countries towards the end of the 19th century.

4.4.1 Modern Debates on Bureaucracy and the First Focuses on Bureaucratic Motivations

There have been concerns on the extent at which elected officials control their bureaucratic agents. In most cases bureaucrats have more information than elected officials about what they are doing and what they should be doing, and they might have the ability to implement policies or regulations that are against the public interest. These concerns led to the "Congressional abdication" hypotheses, a claim that the American Congress had left its authority over public policy to the appointed bureaucrats.

This debate was initiated by Theodore Lowi in his conclusion of a 1979 book that the U.S. Congress does not exercise effective control over bureaucratic agencies. He argues that policies are made by ''iron triangles'', consisting of interest groups, appointed bureaucrats, and Congressional subcommittees. It is thought that since 1979, interest groups have taken a large role which do not only effect bureaucracy, but also the budgets. The idea of "iron triangles" has evolved to ''iron hexagons'' and then to a ''hollow sphere.''

The are inter-relationships between the government, interest groups, bureaucrats, and the general public. Without one of these pieces the entire structure would completely change. This relationship is considered a network so that not one single piece can decide or control the entire process. The public votes in the government and the interest groups provide information, but the government and bureaucrats have an effect on the interest groups and the public. The entire system is codependent on each other. These debates crystallized into three models; Budget Maximizing model, Bureaucratic Motivations Theory/Bureau-Shaping Model and the Rent Seeking Bureaucracy Model.

4.4.1.1 The Budget Maximizing Model

William Niskanen's 1971 budget maximizing model completed Lowi's claims: Lowi claimed that governments failed to exercise oversight, Niskanen argued that rational bureaucrats will always and everywhere seek to increase their budgets, thereby contributing strongly to state growth. Niskanen went on to serve on the U.S. Council of Economic Advisors under President Reagan and his model provided a strong underpinning for the worldwide move towards the reduction of public spending and the introduction of privatization in the 1980s and 1990s. However, William Niskanen's claims was greeted by criticisms from two theories (the bureaucratic motivations theory/the Bureau-shaping model and the rent seeking bureaucracy Model).

4.4.1.2 The Bureaucratic Motivations Theory and the Bureau-Shaping Model

While the bureaucratic motivations theory criticized Niskanen's general approach and argued that officials' motivations are more public interest orientated than Niskanen allowed, the bureau-shaping model, postulated by Patrick Dunleavy, also argues against Niskanen's that rational bureaucrats should only maximize the part of their budget that they spend on their own agency's operations or give to contractors or powerful interest groups, that are able to organize a flowback of benefits to senior officials. For example, rational officials will get no benefit from paying out larger welfare cheques to millions of poor people, since the bureaucrats' own utilities are not improved. It should be expected that bureaucracies maximize budgets in areas like police forces and defense, but not in areas like welfare state spending.

In the same vein, a second branch of responses has focused more on Lowi's claims, asking whether governments can control bureaucrats. Within this second branch, authors have published numerous studies debating the circumstances under which elected officials can control bureaucratic outputs. Most of these studies examine the American case, though their findings have been generalized elsewhere as well. These studies argue that governments have a variety of oversight means at their disposal and they use many of them regularly.

4.4.1.3 The Rent Seeking Bureaucracy Model

This model, which was postulated by Faizul Latif Chowdhury emphasized the negative effects of rent seeking by bureaucrats on the production of public goods. In contrast to Niskanen's claim, who primarily focused on the self-interested behaviour of only the top-level bureaucrats involved in policy making, Chowdhury in his thesis submitted to the London School of Economics in 1997 drew attention to the impact of the low-level civil servants whose rent-seeking behaviour pushes up the cost of production of public goods. Particularly, it was shown with reference to the tax officials that rent-seeking causes loss in government revenue. Chowdhury's model of rent-seeking bureaucracy draws attention to administrative corruption where public money is directly expropriated by public servants in general.

4.4.2   The Power of Bureaucrats

The bureaucrat is an assumed maximizer of political power. Political power is used not only in the political science and sociology literature, but also in the analysis of government and bureaucracy of Public Concerns. Political power can be defined as the ability to achieve certain ends through a

political process. In the process of exercising political power, some actors could have conflicting goals. If all members of a group, including citizen X favours action A over action B and action A is chosen, we cannot say that citizen X has exercised power, but If only citizen X favours action A and action A is chosen then, citizen X has political power.

In 1938, Russell defined three ways in which an individual can have influence in a political context: by exercising direct physical power, for example, by imprisonment or death; by offering rewards and punishments; by exerting influence on opinion through the use of propaganda. The first two are closely related to a more general type of political power, which is called ''procedural power''. A citizen will achieve his choice of an action because the rules of an institution make him a dictator or grant him the right to set the agenda by which the institution will choose that action.

It is the third source of influence Russell listed that is most closely related to the general notion of political power which is exercised by Bureaucrats. Hence, Political power means inducing someone to do something that he/she did not want to do. For instance, when citizen X gets an instruction to choose action A when all but citizen X favour an alternative action B.

In bureaucracy, authority might exist, but no real power will accompany the authority. All employees would know all the possible events that might happen, and all could predict the outcomes or decisions that would follow. Employee procedures would be completely codified and both the supervisor's and the employee's reaction to any situation would be very predictable. In a world of complete certainty, all individuals are essentially acting out a part and those at the top of the bureaucracies are as full of power as those at the bottom. All power is purely procedural.

4.4.3 The Goals of Bureaucrats

While, an economic entrepreneur pursues profit, the goal of Bureaucrats is pursuit of political power. In Knight's (1921) theory of profit, profit exits because of uncertainty and is earned by those who possess the daring and information to allow them to make correct decisions under uncertainty. So, there is a close link between the economic theory of profit and the political theory of power. Both profit and power exist because of uncertainty, and both accrue to the possessors of information.

In the modern corporation, the information gatherers and processors are the managers. They are the possessors of power. A major difference between the business corporation and the public institution is that the power of managers can be paid off. The business of corporations is making profits and managers as information gatherers are its main beneficiaries.

Legally, corporations belong to the shareholders and the custom is that they are the rightful beneficiaries of corporate profits. So, managers are unable to pay themselves all the profits they create. They are forced to claim corporate profits in less conspicuous ways than simply salaries and cash bonuses. Numerous substitute goals have appeared: on-the-job consumption, excess staff and emoluments, security, and a range of non-paid goals.

Many of the non-paid goals of managers are correlated with the size or growth in size of the corporation. Large sized corporations can also be used as a justification for higher compensation packages and thus can allow managers to justify greater direct cash payments to themselves.

The pursuit of profits is not the legitimate goal of public institutions and so, it is even more difficult for public bureaucrats to convert the power they have into income. The non-paid goals of management become the logical objectives of the public bureaucrat. Among these, size and risk aversion have received the most attention. The first systematic effort to study bureaucracies within a public choice framework was made by William Niskanen.

Similarly, a bureau could be granted monopoly on the provision of a given service in order to avoid wasteful duplication. There is some validity in this justification, but the monopoly nature of most bureaus frees them from competitive pressure to be efficient and denies the funding agency an alternative source of information by which to gauge the efficiency of the monopolist bureaus. While managers in a private corporation can usually claim a share of the savings/profits generated by an increase in efficiency, public bureaucrats' salaries are either unrelated or indirectly related to improved efficiency. So, the public bureau is characterized by weak external control on efficiency and weak internal incentives.

However, Niskanen listed the following as the possible goals of a bureaucrat:

  i. Salary
 ii. perquisites of the office
iii. public reputation
 iv. power
  v. patronage
 vi. output of the bureau
vii. ease of making changes and
viii. ease of managing the bureau.

The author asserts that all but the last two are positively related to the size of the budget. Lastly, as long as there is money to be made, interest groups will never give up trying to impose corporate wishes; as long as there is more power to be earned, elected politicians will constantly change; as long as there are promises, taxpayers are willing to dream. A handful of bureaucrats want it all: the money of corporations, the power of elected officials and the dreams of a better life as all taxpayers want.

4.4.4 Functions of Bureaucracy

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

i. **Bureaucracy Implements the Laws and Policies Made by Elected Officials.**

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

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

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

iii. **Bureaucracy regulates various Government Activities.**

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

4.4.5 Characteristics of Bureaucracy

In small organizations, work may be done smoothly and efficiently through face-to-face communication. But this is not possible in large organizations with large number of employees and large-size clientele. Such large organizations are bound to take the help of bureaucracy.

The main characteristics of bureaucracy are as follows:

   i. **Hierarchy:** The officials in a bureaucratic organization are arranged hierarchically. In order of seniority, officials are placed in the organization— senior officials at the top and junior officials lower down the ladder. The file will move upward to the top for decision and once the decision is taken, the file is returned to the bottom, where the file has been initiated with order and instruction for implementation.

   ii. **Duties defined:** The duty of each official is well-defined. He is conscious of his jurisdiction, and he will not go beyond it. He will be committing a mistake and inviting punishment if he crosses the area of his jurisdiction.

   iii. **Specialization:** Although bureaucratic training produces generalists, they develop some amount of specialization in course of their work. When an official works in a particular organization or department for some period, he gains expertise on it

   iv. **Discipline and harmony:** Each official in an organization has his specified duty and defined jurisdiction. He is not expected to cross into the jurisdiction of any other official. If all officials are bound by these norms and expectations, there will be discipline and harmony in the organization.

   v. **Attainment of a specific goal:** Talcott Parsons argues that one of the main features of bureaucracy is the primacy orientation to the attainment of a specific goal. Each department is assigned a specific goal, and all its member stry to attain it.

   vi. **Promotion:** The two factors influencing promotion are seniority and ability, or merit. Seniority should be rewarded in respect of promotion. But exclusive reliance on seniority for promotion would undermine efficiency. Like seniority, efficiency should also be rewarded. Promotion is an incentive to meritorious officials.

   vii. **Training:** Civil servants are selected on the basis of merit, normally through competition. They are given intensive training both before service and during service.

   viii. **Impersonalization:** Bureaucracy is characterized by impersonalization. Civil servants are rigid in their interpretation of rules and regulations. They are objective. The face of the client is immaterial. Decisions are taken in accordance with rules, and not on the basis of any personal consideration.

   ix. **Secrecy:** Bureaucrats are adept at maintaining secrecy. They would not easily divulge official

secrets. Weber said, 'the monarch imagines it is he whois ruling, when in fact what he is doing is providing a screen, behind which theapparatus can enjoy the privilege of power without control of responsibility.'

4.4.6 Types of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy is formed by environmental influences including social, cultural,economic and political factors. At different points of time in history, bureaucracytransformed on the basis of the socio-political influences. Morstein Marx categorizedbureaucracy into four types as discussed below:

i. **Guardian bureaucracy:** Plato's guardians were considered to have the capacity to personify in their actions, the essence of public interest. They were considered the custodians of justice and welfare of the community.These guardians were selected on the basis of their educational background.This sort of bureaucracy existed in China before AD 960 and in Russia duringAD 640–1740. The Chinese Government in those days used to conduct itsbusiness based upon Confucius' teachings of righteousness i.e., supposed tobe a Platonic blueprint. Accordingly, the duty of Chinese officials is to demonstrate exemplary lifestyle. The selection was based on the scholasticachievements of officials who were trained in right conduct according to the classics. These guardians were expected to develop a moral fortitude andcould exert influence upon the exercise of power subject to righteousness.The guardian bureaucracy is apt to idealize the absolute practices and thus become traditionalistic and conservative. Such bureaucrats are also likely to turn aloof from the affairs of the community and the day-to-day political problems. They turn absolute authoritarian and unresponsive to public opinion.

ii. **Caste bureaucracy:** This bureaucracy is an outcome of class connectionsof those in power. In this type of bureaucracy, the recruitment is made onlyfrom one class. A good example would be the situation prevalent in Indianbureaucracy, where persons belonging to a higher class/caste are only drawnto the civil services, even the decision-making considers the 'caste consideration'. In olden days, only Brahmins and Kshatriyas could becomehigh rank officials. In England, for example, aristocratic classes were preferredto the civil service positions. There is too much and too constant consciousnessof rank, class, title and service membership, too little consciousness of membership in the public services in caste bureaucracy. Higher the intellectual resources of the bureaucracy, greater the likelihood of class or caste aspects,and social lines will be drawn between social groups. It has been observedthat mobility of civil servants does not act as an antidote to caste mentality.Instead, the 'climber' is expected to conform to the mentality of the highergroup. The civil services during the early Roman Empire, Japanese

CivilServices under Meiji Constitution, French Civil Services in 1950s are examplesof the caste bureaucracy.

iii. **Patronage bureaucracy:** This type of bureaucracy is also known as 'Spoils System'. Patronage here is seen as a means of political control. Under thissystem, the proteges of the ministers or the elected functionaries are nominatedto the civil service. The public jobs are distributed as personal or politicalfavours to their supporters. In England, before 19th century, the system sewedthe aristocracy to enter the civil services. In the United States, thetraditional home of patronage bureaucracy, it was considered that no oneperson had more right to official status than the others and that was how thepatronage was distributed. The system of patronage bureaucracy was condemned asit led to anachronism for its lack of competence, for its careless discipline, its concealed greediness, its irregular ways, its partisanship and forits absence of spirit of service.

iv. **Merit bureaucracy:** This type of bureaucracy is a response to the maladiesof other three types of bureaucracies. In this bureaucracy, the recruitment isbased on the qualifications, and the bureaucracy is governed by clear objectivesand standards. After entry in civil service, status and stability are ensured. Inmodern times, merit bureaucracy puts strong emphasis on political control over the administrative system, a feature not found in other forms of bureaucracy. Due to its sense of rationality behaviour, this type of bureaucracyis preferred over the other three types.

4.4.7 Six Major Principles of Bureaucracy

i. **A formal hierarchical structure**: Each level controls the level below and is controlled by the level above. A formal hierarchy is the basis of central planning and centralized decision making.

ii. **Management by rules**: Controlling by rules allows decisions made at high levels to be executed consistently by all lower levels.

iii. **Organization by functional specialty**: Work is to be done by specialists, and people are organized into units based on the type of work they do or skills they have.

iv. **Purposely impersonal**: The idea is to treat all employees equally and customers equally, and not be influenced by individual differences.

v. **Employment based on technical qualifications**: There may also be protection from arbitrary dismissal.

vi. **An ''up-focused'' or ''in-focused'' mission**: If the mission is described as "up-focused," then the organization's purpose is to serve the stockholders, the board, or whatever agency empowered it. If the mission is to serve the organization itself, and those within it, e.g., to produce high profits, to gain market share, or to produce a cash stream, then the mission is described as "in-focused."

The bureaucratic form, according to Parkinson, also has the underlisted attribute.

vii. Predisposition to grow in staff ''above the line.''

4.4.8 Advantages of Bureaucracy

i. **Central authority in bureaucracy makes it effective in organizing**: Advocates for bureaucracy have positive views on having hierarchy in an organization. They say that since there is a chain of command, there will be specific roles and tasks for people involved in the departments. This way, management will be able to monitor the performance of the people in lower ranks. Also, with strict regulations and policies that need to be observed, there is a big possibility that duties will be carried out in a systematic and timely manner.

ii. **It supports the hiring of specialized officials**: Supporters of bureaucracy prefer the idea of designating appointed officials who have the educational background and expertise on the agency they will be assigned to. These bureaucrats also have the training and skills particular to their designation. This ensures these non-elective members know what they are doing and will be able to maximize their knowledge and apply their skills. As a result, tasks are effectively carried out.

iii. **It follows Standard Operating Procedure**: Proponents of bureaucracy look at these formalized rules to bring about efficiency and predictability in results. In this set-up, officials are to follow instructions and procedures step by step in handling tasks and situations. This way, outcomes will be within the specified range.

iv. **It sets no room for favouritism**: People in favour of bureaucracy claim that with the regulations and procedure to be followed in order to achieve results, the risks of favouring some individuals over others will be minimal if not none at all.

v. **It allows for merit-based hiring and promotion**: For a non-elective member of a government agency, he or she should be qualified and pass the qualifying exams to be employed or appointed as well as climb the hierarchy. This means that whoever is

appointed has the knowledge, expertise, and skills to handle the job. No one will be considered simply because he or she is a relative or a friend of a high-ranking official in the agency.

vi. **It plays an important role in policy making**: Although civil servants do not make policies, they gather the data forwarded to the political executive. They are also responsible for formulating several alternative policies and determine the pros and cons of each. In turn, the political executive will choose one policy which will then be used as an alternative.

vii. **Simplification of Work:** The work of a complex nature can be simplified through division of labour or division of work into small units, component, or department.

viii. **Effective Means of Goals Realisation:** Through the structures and process of bureaucracy, the goal; of the organisation could be easily realise.

ix. **Encourages an Increase in Objectivity:** Impartial rigid rules and regulations foster objectiveness in most organisation.

4.4.9 Disadvantages of Bureaucracy

i. **It can hamper achievement of results in time:** Critics are arguing that with the certain steps needed to carry out tasks and the need to follow a chain of command to proceed, lots of time can be lost especially if decisions and results are needed immediately.

ii. **It breeds boredom and can affect productivity:** Opponents are criticizing the repetitive tasks in specialized jobs. They claimed that in time, it can bore members of the organization or agency. They added that even in a business which uses bureaucracy, employees might not be able to withstand doing the same work daily. The routine might just be too much from them and may result to absenteeism and less productivity.

iii. **It results to passive and rule-based human beings:** Another disadvantage being pointed out by some people who do not like a bureaucratic structure say that the strict rules and regulations imposed in bureaucracies seem to remove the freedom of an individual to act and discern on his or her own because of certain restrictions. This, according to some, is not beneficial.

iv. **It can result to inefficiency:** In bureaucracy, there is less competition since hiring and promotion is based on merits and qualifications. Moreover, once a civil servant is appointed, he or she has a fixed salary, works on specialized tasks, and cannot function

outside the sphere of the department he or she belongs to. Some people see this as unproductive and a disadvantage because it can demoralize civil servants who belong in a bureaucracy.

v. **Arbitrary Rules:** Impartial applications of rigid rules may be to the detriment of some employees within an organisation. Some of the laid down rules may be too much stringent to the employee of an organisation.

vi. **No Room for Personal Growth:** Use of official authority strictly does not allow personal growth of individual employee in an organisation.

vii. **Slowness to Adopt New Technology:** Stringent rigid rules make it difficult to change and sometime take long period to adopt new policies, thereby making it slow to adopt new technology.

viii. **Poor Communication:** As communication has to follow the hierarchical structures, it takes time to reach its final destination in an organisation.

4.4.10 Critics of Weber's Bureaucracy

Weber's bureaucratic model was criticized by subsequent social scientists on various grounds as follows:

i. It was characterized as "machine theory" due to its over concern with the formal structure of the organization to the neglect of human dimension.

ii. It was described as a ''closed system model'' as it did not consider in detail the interaction between organization and its environment.

iii. It cannot function in an unstable environment (i.e., in changeling environmental conditions).

iv. It is suitable for routine and repetitive jobs but not for jobs involving creativity and innovation.

4.5 ORGANIZATION AND BUREAUCRACY: A WEBERIAN PERSPECTIVE

All contemporary societies are essentially organizational societies i.e. almost all our needs are met in an organizational setting. If we look at any urban areain Nigeria, either large or small, we can see how true the above statement is. Ourbabies in cities and towns are born in hospitals, educated in schools, subsequent employed in governmental or private organizations, enrolled as members of

professional or recreational organizations and myriad other associations. As there is more specialized division of labour in society, organizations also increase in number and variety, each organization performing one or a few specialized functions. In the interest of efficiency, these organizations must develop a hierarchy or authority and devise a system of rules designed toward the pursuit of a specific goal. Thus, a particular form of organization, known as bureaucracy, emerges. Bureaucratic organization is increasingly becoming defining characteristic of modern industrial society. Max Weber's analysis of bureaucracy is a pioneering study in this particular field in sociology. Weber's views on bureaucracy should be seen in the context of his General Theory of Social Action. It is Weber's thesis that every man gives some meaning to his conduct. Human action can, therefore, be understood and appreciated in terms of the meanings and motives which lie behind it. Weber identified four types of social action. These include:

i.   Rational action in relation to a goal

ii.   Rational action in relation to a value

iii. Affective or emotional action

iv.   Traditional action

The classification of types of action governs, to a certain extent, the Weberian interpretation of the contemporary era. According to him, the characteristic of the world we live in is rationalization. For example, economic enterprise is rational, because it entails precise calculation of costs and careful weighing of the advantages and disadvantages of the various factors involved in the enterprise. So also, is the control of the state by bureaucracy, in fact, society, as a while tends towards goal-oriented organization. 'Bureaucratization is the prime example of this process. A bureaucratic organization has a clearly defined goal. It involves precise calculation of the means to attain this goal and systematically eliminates those factors which stand in the way of the achievement of its objectives. Bureaucracy is, therefore, rational action in an institutional form.

Bureaucracy is also a form of control. It implies a hierarchical organization in which there are superiors and subordinates with clearly defined responsibilities and powers. Some are required to issue orders and some others to carry put those orders. In a large-sized organization, there is also the need for coordination of activities of the organization. All these imply control of those in the lower ranks of the hierarchy by those in the higher. Such controls become effective as well as smooth, if there is a minimum of voluntary submission to higher authority. People voluntarily submit to authority when it is regarded as

legitimate. Max Weber identified three forms of legitimacy, which derive from three kinds of social action. Thus, it can derive from traditional meanings. Legitimacy of this kind, which we may call traditional legitimacy, depends on belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the right of those established of the strength of tradition in positions of authority to exercise it. Similarly, legitimacy can derive from ration meanings. Such legitimacy may be called rational legitimacy, which reflects belief in the legality of patterns of formative rules and the right of those people designated by the rules to exercise authority command. There is another type of legitimacy called charismatic legitimacy (so termed after the Greek word for grace), which depends on the devotion of followers to an individual who according to their perception, is endowed by exceptional sanctity, heroism or other personal qualities. Charismatic legitimacy, therefore, derives from affective or emotional action.

The **organizational structure** derives its form from the type of legitimacy on which it is based. While emphasizing this aspect, Max Weber observes as follows: 'According to the kind of legitimacy which is claimed, the type of obedience, the type of administrative staff developed to guarantee it and the mode of exercising authority will all differ fundamentally.' In order to understand bureaucracy, it is, therefore, necessary to consider the type of legitimacy on which bureaucratic control is based.

The corresponding type of authority which emerges from his Typology is as follows: traditional authority, rational legal authority and charismatic authority. Weber, however, points out that none of these ideal types were to be found in a pure form in any historical instance. While analyzing types of administrative organization, Max Weber selects the ideal type of bureaucracy. It is based on rational-legal authority, which as the source of its legitimacy.

Weber brings out the following characteristics of a bureaucratic organization:

i.   As an organization, bureaucracy implies a continuous performance of official functions according to rules.

ii.   Complex tasks of an organization are broken down into manageable parts with each official specializing in a particular area. For example, governmental functions are divided into various departments, such as health, education, agriculture, defense, etc. Within each department, every official has a clearly defined sphere of competence and responsibility. They are given the necessary authority to enable them to fulfil their duties.

iii.   This authority is differentially distributed so that a hierarchy of official positions is formed, some

officials having controlled and supervisory duties with respect to others.

iv. Bureaucratic administration, to Weber, means fundamentally the exercise of control on the basis of knowledge. This is the feature of it which makes it rational. Certain specified qualifications are required of those who are to exercise authority. They are appointed according to their possession of formal qualifications, usually based on examinations.

v. The bureaucrats do not own the means of production of administration. They are also not allowed to make use of their official position for private purposes. Official quarters or other perquisites which are occupied or enjoyed by the persons while in service cannot be appropriated by them after superannuation or termination of service.

vi. Acts of administrative kind are recorded in writing, thereby ensuring continuity and consistency of the administrative process

vii. The officials are personally free agents. But they are required to act impersonally according to rules which define their specific spheres of competence. The activities of the bureaucrat are governed by the rules, not by personal considerations, such as his feelings towards colleagues or clients. His actions are, therefore, rational rather than affective.

viii. The bureaucrats are paid a salary, although this may be on a scale of pay, increments being given according to age and experience, and they are paid a pension after a fixed number of years of employment and at a given age.

ix. Normally, bureaucrats have no other employment, and at all times during their service career, the officials are subject to rules governing their conduct insofar it is related to their official duties.

SUMMARY

According to Max Weber, bureaucracy is a defining feature of an industrial society, irrespective of whether it is capitalistic or socialistic. The question as to who owns the means of production is not relevant. Marx, however, looks upon bureaucracy as an essential feature of a capitalist society. In such a society, a small minority owns the forces of production. Bureaucracy is a tool in the hands of this small minority to serve the interests of the ruling group. A socialist society, in which the forces of production are communally owned, can, therefore, dispense with bureaucracy in the form in which it prevails in a capitalist society.

Bureaucracy has a number of relevant contributions into the nature of work in an organisation. At the same time, it also has a number of dysfunctions which is characterized by a complex maze of rules and regulations that has to be adhered to before arriving at a single decision. Some argued that it is impersonal as it lays more emphasis on the organisation while sidling the worker. Some are with the opinion that, the rigidity of bureaucracy is contributory to its inability to account adequately for vital human characteristics.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. The founding father of the theory of Bureaucracy was:
    A. Herman Finer.
    B. La Palombra.
    C. Max Weber.
    D. Albert Lepawsky.

2. Bureaucracy is based on ………………………………… authority.
    A. Traditional
    B. Personal
    C. Charismatic
    D. Corporate

3. Which of the following is one of the features of bureaucracy conceived by Max Weber?
    A. Authority.
    B. Hierarchy.
    C. Publicness.
    D. Civil society.

4. Bureaucracy is a form of ………………………………… organization.
    A. Political.
    B. Social
    C. Community
    D. Private

5. Bureacracy has certain characteristics which include:
    A. Hero or villain form of social organization.
    B. Pathological tendencies.
    C. Specialized structure of a nation.
    D. Indispensability in modern country.

6. Bureaucracy is seen as corruptible or otherwise because it ……………………………
    A. is essential and a necessary evil.
    B. plays role of a pariah or saviour.
    C. is suspected politically.
    D. is accused pariah if it fails.

7. Bureaucracy has been defined as a system of administration characterized by expertise, impartiality and absence of humanity. Who defined it as this?
    A. Charles Kannady.
    B. Max-weber.
    C. Brabant Ralph.
    D. Peter M. Blau.

8. How do you assess the status of bureaucracy under the Devolution plan 2000?

A. Reformer.
B. Pariah.
C. More responsible
D. More nationalist.

9. According to an early definition, the kind of management which conducts a business or affairs by standards, established by facts or truth gained through systematic observation experiments or reasoning is known as ………………………………… management.
    A. Classical
    B. Bureaucratic
    C. Neo-classical
    D. Scientific

10. The three components that compromise publicness and privateness in society are:
    A. Bureaucracy, consistency, and budget.
    B. Administration, management, and organization.
    C. Execution, regulation, and structure.
    D. Agency, access, interest.

11. Which of the following characteristics is not part of Weber's model of a functioning government?
    A. There are rules within civil society.
    B. Government must employ skilled experts.
    C. Skilled experts do not necessarily have to operate within an organized hierarchy.
    D. People must be treated equally.

12. If the administrative authority within a department is vested in a single individual, then that system is known as a ………………….
    A. Board.
    B. Bureau.
    C. Commission.
    D. Council.

13. Which of the following is a disadvantage of bureaucratic organization?
    A. Consistency in decision-making.
    B. Slow response time.
    C. Emphasis on personal relationships.
    D. Focus on individual initiative.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is bureaucracy?

2. Examine the major principles of Max Weber's bureaucratic model

3. State the merits and demerits of modern bureaucracy.

4. State any two characteristics of bureaucracy.

5. Describe ''Patronage bureaucracy'' and Bureaucratic 'red tape'.

6. Explain the concepts of Power and Goals of Bureaucrats

7. Write short notes on the types of Bureaucracy

8. Bureaucracy has recently been debated. Elucidate

9. Explain your view points on Organization and Bureaucracy: A Weberian Perspective

10. What are the Six Major Principles of Bureaucracy?

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CHAPTER FIVE

THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE

5.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand the:

- history and development of Nigerian Civil Service, Reforms of Nigerian Public Service
- management of the Civil Service; the Structure, functioning, recruitments, training and process of managing government departments.
- various tools and techniques used in Civil Service
- concept Public Financial Administration

5.2   INTRODUCTION

A working knowledge of the civil service is key to understanding of public administration. It is the hub through which administrative work revolves. The formulation, implementation and execution of government policies in departments, ministries and parastatals depends on the civil service in a state. The civil service excludes the judiciary, armed forces, local government services, universities and research institutions.

The civil service has as its objects to ensure:

a. Proper execution of the policies and programmes of the government
b. Increased effective and efficient management of government policies and programmes.
c. Reduction of expenditure and general cost of government business.

The civil service emerged with the evolution of modern state as an organ of the executive branch of government. The Nigerian civil service is fashioned after the British civil service. The civil service was not development oriented. The civil service enjoys job security, perpetuity and permanence. Several reforms have been embarked upon in the Nigerian civil service. In this chapter, we will examine the structure, management, characteristics and functions of the Nigerian Civil service commission.

5.3   HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE

The Nigerian civil service has its origin in the British colonial civil service administration system. The civil service originated in organizations set up by the British in colonial times. Following the departure of the colonialists, the Nigerian Government and the indigenous workers. Several attempts at the restructuring and reform of the Nigerian Civil service have been undertaken since independence. Examples are the Morgan commission of 1963, the Adebo Commission of 1971. This was followed by the Udoji Commission of 192-74. A major drastic change occurred with the 1979 constitution which was modeled after the Unified states. In 1985, there was an attempt at reforms with the Dotun Philips panel. The major reorganization of the Nigerian Civil service was the 1988 civil service reforms. Since May 29, 1999, the Nigerian civil service has been undergoing systematic reforms and general restructuring. Despite all the efforts some still consider stagnant and inefficient.

5.4   REFORMS OF THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE

A reform is a structural change aimed at bringing positive changes. Reforms are innovative and usually results in restructuring and reorientation. The goals of reforms could be to improve personnel management techniques and principles.

5.5   SALIENT FEATURES OF PUBLIC SERVICE REFORMS IN NIGERIA (1945 - 1995)

i.   **Tudor Davis Commission, 1945**
   - General Reviews of Condition of Service and salaries/wages.
ii.   **Harragin Salary Review Commission, 1946**
   - Stratification of the civil service into senior service and junior service
   - Also reviewed remuneration
iii. **Gorsuch Commission, 1951**
   - Reviewed structure and wages.
iv.   **Hewn Committee, 1959**
   - Role of Permanent secretaries
   - Integration of Department and ministries.
v.   **Mbanefo Salaries and Wages Commission, 1959**

- Renewal Remuneration

vi. **Morgan Commission, 1963**

- Reviewed salaries/ wages of junior staff of federal governments and private establishments

vii. **Elwood Grading Team 1966**

- Examined anomalies in the grading of posts to proposed uniform salaries for officers performing identical duties.

viii. **Adebo salaries / wages Commission, 1971**

- Proposed establishments of a public service review commission to examine: the role of the public service commission; structure of the civil service; conditions of service; and training arrangements.

ix. **Udoji Commission, 1972**

- Review and over-haul of the entire public service
- Promotion of efficiency & effectiveness.
- Proposed Unified Grading and Salary structure

x. **Dotun Phillips, 1988**

- Came into effect through the civil service reorganization decree No.43 of 1988.
- Recommended the abolition of the office of the head of civil service and a new administrative dispensation whereby ministers rather than permanent secretaries would serve as chief executives and accounting officers of ministries.
- Recommended the abolition of the post of permanent secretary. In its place, a new political post of director general was created which was to be held at the pleasure of the president and be vacated after the expiration of the tenure of the appointing administration unless such officers were reappointed by the new government.
- The civil service was professionalised in order to stimulate specialisation and expertise. In this regard, an officer was expected to make a career in a particular ministry or department.
- Each ministry was restructured along departmental lines to reflect the basic functions and areas of concern of the ministry.
- Each department was subdivided into divisions, each division was subdivided into branches, and branches were subdivided into sections.

- Each ministry was empowered to undertake the appointment, promotion, and discipline of its staff under the general and uniform guidelines provided by the federal civil service commission.
- Each ministry or extra-ministerial department was allowed to have three common services departments, viz: finance and supplies and departments of planning, research, and statistics, and not more than five operations departments.

The Significance of the 1988 Reforms

As stated above, a major Reform that made a notable impact in the Nigerian civil Service was the 1988 civil service reform. This reform was brought on board by the Buhari/Idiagbon military regime. It was headed by Dotun Philips in 1985 and their major function was to study the structure, operation, and modus operandi of the Nigerian Public Service. But the group's report was not considered as it is normal mode of operation of the Nigerian Government until 1987 when the Federal Government, under the Babangida regime, set up an implementational committee led by Vice-Admiral Patrick Koshoni, the then Chief of Naval Staff, to look into the recommendations of the Dotun Philips team. The implementation committee upheld most of the recommendation of the team. This was the foundation of the 1988 civil service reforms.

Major highlights of the 1988 civil service reforms included the following:

i. **Professionalisation of the Civil Service:** Here, civil servants are to perform specialized functions and spend their entire career in their respective ministries. This actually brought to a halt the practice of posting civil servants from one ministry to another. With regard to staff structure, all civil servants are to have functional titles to reflect their specialisation or profession. Each ministry should now appoint, promote, and discipline its staff. The power to do this was given to the Personnel Management Board of each ministry. The functions are, however, to be carried out under the guidelines of the Federal Civil Service Commission. However, the Federal Civil Service will continue to recruit staff on grade level 07 to 10 based on merit. Each civil servant can also appeal to the Federal Civil Service Commission if dissatisfied with any decision taken by the parent ministry or Personnel Management Board as it affects him.

ii. **Authority and Responsibility:** The Minister was made the Chief Executive and Accounting Officer of his Ministry, although this was later revised by the Ayida Panel set up under the Abacha regime. Now the Director-General, which has been renamed Permanent Secretary, is the Chief Accounting Officer.

iii. **Tenure of Office: The Permanent Secretary:** The post of the Permanent Secretary was taken out of the regular civil service structure and renamed Director-General, while the salary attached to it is fixed by the President. The Director-Generals should also come and go with the regime that appointed them, though the title has now been reversed to that of the Permanent Secretary.

iv. **Staff Training:** The importance of staff training is further emphasized by the fact that under the new dispensation successful participation in prescribed training courses are pre-requisite for promotion from certain level to another. Each ministry is also to have Departmental Training Officer (DTO) who, in addition to organizing induction courses for newly employed professional colleagues and clerical officers, act as the major link between the parent ministry and the Ministry of Establishment which is the Ministry specifically assigned the responsibility of training officers in the public service.

v. **Performance Evaluation:** Besides training, the Annual Performance Evaluation Report (APER) now emphasizes performance. Through the open reporting system, the hitherto heavy emphasis, on subjective factors and character gave way to factors which focused on concrete and measurable performance.

vi. **Promotion:** Promotion was now based on performance, thereby seniority no longer weighted as high as it was in the past, while "the Federal Character" syndrome was de-emphasized as criterion for promotion. The criteria for promotion were stated as follows:

Annual Performance - 50%

Interview - 30%

Additional Qualification - 15%

Seniority - 5%

In the area where interview or examination was not relevant for a particular promotion, weight allotted to performance was to be increased correspondingly.

xi. **Ayida Review Panel, 1994**

- Recommended abrogation of the civil service reorganization decree No.43 of 1988 and a return to the status quo.

xii. **Obasanjo Reform, 2004**

- Restructuring of Pilot Ministries, Departments and Agencies
- Payroll reform and the review of Public Service Rules and Financial Regulation

xiii. **Yar'adua Reform, 2009**

The main thrust of the reform includes:

- Civil service organizational efficiency
- Professional ethical and accountable workforce with improved competence of civil servants.

xiv. **Steve Oronsaye Committee, 2012**

- The reform centers on the disbandment of 102 agencies from the present 263
- Abolition of 38 agencies, merging of 52 agencies and reversal of 14 agencies to departments.

5.6   MANAGEMENT OF THE CIVIL SERVICE

5.6.1   The Nigerian Civil Service Commission

This is a constitutional body created by the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. This constitutional status is aimed at guaranteeing its effective impartial operations as well as ensuring its autonomy. The power and functions of the Federal and State Civil Service are entrenched in the constitution. The task or responsibility of posting, recruitment, appointment, transfer, and discipline are its primary responsibility. However, the administration of Ibrahim Babangida, in 1988, during the civil service reforms reduced their powers and functions and distributed them to the other Ministries and Extra-Ministerial Departments. Therefore, the present arrangement is that the civil service commission should delegate personnel management powers and functions as follows:

i. The respective ministries and extra-ministerial departments have the responsibility of appointments, promotion, and discipline of civil servants on GL 01-06.

ii. Appointments, promotion, and discipline of civil servants on GL.07-10 are not delegated. These are however handled directly by the civil service commission.

iii. Appointments, promotion, and discipline of officers on GL 12-14 are delegated in the senior management committee of various ministries and extra-ministerial departments or relevant staff pools.

5.6.2 The Structure of the Nigerian Civil Service

The civil service is mainly organized around the federal ministries, headed by a minister appointed by the president, who must include at least one member of each of the 36 states in his cabinet. The president's appointments are confirmed by the senate of Nigeria. The Civil Service is present in the 36 states in the federation. In some cases, a federal minister is responsible for more than one ministry (e.g., environment and housing may be combined), and a minister may be assisted by one or more ministers of state. Each ministry also has a permanent secretary, who is a senior civil servant.

The ministries are responsible for various parastatals (government-owned corporations) such as universities (Education), National Broadcasting commission (information) and Nigerian National petroleum Corporation (Petroleum). Other parastatals are the responsibility of the office of the presidency, such as the Independent National Electoral Commission, the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission and the Federal Civil Service Commission.

The service has six additional units which provide services to all the departments on the Civil Service:

i. Establishment & Record Office (E&RO)

ii. Career Management Office (CMO)

iii. Manpower Development Office (MDO)

iv. Management Services Office (MSO)

v. Common Services Office (CSO)

vi. Bureau of Public Service Reforms (BPSR)

5.6.3 Characteristics of the Nigerian Civil Service

Generalizations as to features and characteristics of the civil service may be misleading particularly where changes in the structure and operation of the service are continuously being made to enable the administrative machinery to be more proactive. This notwithstanding, over the years, certain characteristics have been attributed to the civil service the world over. According to E.N. Gladden (Padfield and Byne, 1989:162). The requirements of the Civil Service are that is shall be impartially selected, administratively competent, politically neutral and imbued with spirit of service to the community. In addition to these, the civil service is known to be comprehensive, permanent, anonymous, and professional. It is important to explain each of these characteristics briefly:

i. **Impartiality**

Impartiality is one of the basic principles of the civil service. This is not only about impartial selection but also about objectivity. Civil Servants are appointed by open competition. This involves certain levels of academic qualification, written examination and interviews and tests. However, it has to be noted that this is the general picture, there are societal exigencies – representativeness, federal character, feminine demands and so on that may and do occasionally put merit in the second place.

ii. **Permanence**

The Civil Service is permanent as its members continue in office notwithstanding changes of government or ministers. Ministers, governments, administrations may come and go but civil servants continue to carry on services that are vital to the community and remaining to serve the various sets of rulers as they come and go. Since independence in 1960, the Nigerian Civil Service, at state and federal levels, has served several elected civilian political leaders and several military leaders who took over government by force. Civil servants have security of tenure of office and may look forward to a full and work life career with reasonable pay and prospects. The issue of permanence is the base of the continuity aspect of the Civil Service.

iii. **Neutrality**

This underscores the issue of loyalty and dedication to duty. Civil servants are non-political, that is, they serve different governments in power impartially and disinterestedly. The Civil Service is there to serve any government of the day and to hold the fort when

there is no government on the ground (examples, Nigeria after the 29th of July 1996 coup d'état; Italy, Britain and so on upon resignation of particular head of government). In this connection, Lord Attles, Winston Churchill, and Harold Wilson all testified to the vigour of the British civil service in applying policies under their administrations. Thus, in 1949 labour proposed that the Iron and steel industry be nationalized. In 1951, the conservative government proposed denationalization. Both policies were carried through by virtually the same officials (Padfield and Byrne, 1989:163). In their relations with the general public, civil servants are also expected to be impartial. This means no discrimination, except so far as special circumstances justify this, between one member of the public and another.

iv. **Anonymity**

This means that the Civil Service must work behind the scenes, without praise or blame. Thus, while civil servants take part indirectly in formulating government policies, they do not publicly take the credit for such policies when they are good and successful, nor do they publicly take the blame for the failure of such policies. The minister takes all the credit or blame as the case maybe. He runs his department and is politically responsible for its activities. With regards to a policy, the top civil servants (permanent secretaries or director-generals etc.) may suggest alternative courses, pointing out the difficulties of each or the advantages and disadvantages. However, the minister must decide which course to follow. He or she alone will be answerable in the parliament or to the AFRC or the public for the results, good or bad. As finer puts it, "When a minister knows that he cannot put the blame on his civil servants, he is stimulated to judge their advice independently and carefully, and to insist that they shall do their best. That he is answerable to the parliament causes him to insist that others shall be answerable to him" (Padfield & Byrne, 1989, 163).

5.6.4 The Functioning of the Nigerian Civil Service Commission

i. **Recruitment**

The Civil Service Commission is responsible for the recruitment of officers on grade levels 07-10. It is provided that the principle of Federal character should be strictly applied in this process, at the point of entry. Also, it should monitor the activities of various Ministries and Extra-ministerial departments, on the appointment of officers as done by the Personnel Management Boards on the levels of officers delegated to them by law. One of the means

of achieving this is the provision of a Personnel Management Board of each Ministry or Extra- ministerial department as an observer. Although the attendance of the commissioner is on an observer status, his presence is mandatory. When a personnel management board meeting is conducted without the presence of a commissioner, the decisions of such a meeting are declared void, invalid and of no effect to the concerned civil servants who are supposed to be part of its institutional body.

ii. **Appellative body**

In respect of appointments, promotion and discipline, the Commission serves as an appellate body for all petitions from Civil servants in all Ministries and Extra-ministerial departments, as this forms part of their Personnel Management functions. It is provided that the decisions of the Civil Service Commission are binding on all Ministries and Extra-Ministerial departments. Appeal cases are lodged with the Commission. However, the Minister or Commissioner is given the power of appeal to the President or Governor respectively, where and when the need arises.

iii. **Monitoring functions**

The Civil Service Commission is also empowered to monitor the activities of Ministries and Extra-Ministerial departments on the discipline and promotion of officers, in order to ensure that the guidelines provided are strictly and uniformly followed.

iv. **Maintenance of personnel records**

Another function of the civil service commission is the maintenance of up-to-date personnel records of the entire Civil Service of the Federal or State government, as the case may be. These records are very vital for manpower planning and effective personnel utilization and management.

v. **Staff welfare**

The welfare of staff at both the Federal and State Civil Service are the joint responsibility of the Civil Service Commission, the Establishment Department and Extra-Ministerial Departments.

5.6.5 PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT BOARD

In 1988 the Babangida administration carried out a reform of the Civil Service in Nigeria, and subsequently introduced the Personnel Management Board for each ministry and Extra-

Ministerial department at the state and federal levels, sequel to the decentralization of the personnel management functions of the civil service. The Personnel Management Board which now handles the Personnel Management functions of the civil service is structured into three tiers which are briefly discussed below:

i. **Junior Staff Committee of the Personnel Management Board (Local)**

According to the recommendations of the 1988 Federal Government Civil Service Reforms, this committee consisted of a membership of five senior officers who are not below the rank of grade level 08. The committee is chaired by the most senior office in the state, not below the rank of grade level 10. the committee is establishment for federal government field officers in various states of the federation. It is charged with the responsibility of having staff matters relating to appointments, promotion, and discipline of junior officers on grade levels 01-06.

ii. **Junior Staff Committee of the Personnel Management Board** (headquarters)

This consists of a membership of not less than five senior officers not below the rank of grade level 12 with the Director of Personnel Management department of the Ministry, Extra-Ministerial Department as the chairman. Furthermore, it is charged with the duty of handling personnel matters on the recruitment, appointment, promotion, and discipline of officers on grade level 01-06. The committee exists at both the state and federal levels. Those at the federal level consider only officers at the headquarters.

iii. **Senior Staff Committee of Personnel Management Board**

According to the reforms of 1988, the committee consists of nine members of officers not below the rank of G.L. 14. A commissioner from the civil service commission should be in attendance as an observer. Although he is to attend the meeting of the committee as an observer, the commissioner's presence in the meeting is quite mandatory in order to make its decisions valid. The permanent secretary of the ministry concerned is the chairman of the committee. The committee is charged with the responsibility for personnel matters of all officers on grade level 11-13

iv. **Personnel Management Board**

This consists of all grade level 17 officers. According to the reforms, the permanent secretary in the ministry and a civil service commissioner will be in attendance on an observer status. But for the decisions of the board to be valid, the commissioner must be in

attendance. The board is presided over by the minister at the federal level or commissioner in the case of a state ministry or the civil executive of an extra-ministerial department. The responsibility of the board is to supervise the activities of other personnel management committees within the ministry and to handle all personnel matters of officers on grade levels 14-17.

There is also a provision that the composition of these committees should as far as possibly reflect the Federal character principle. However, where this is not possible, the Personnel Management Board is expected to inform the commission for guidance. Ministries and Extra-Ministerial departments should forward the names of members of the Personnel Management Board and its committees to the Civil Service Commission, and changes in their membership should be equally notified to the commission. It should be emphasized that the activities of the committees of the Personnel Management Board should be subjected to the general direction, supervision, and control of the Personnel Management Board.

v. **Permanent Secretaries**

According to the reforms, the position of Permanent Secretary forms the apex of the Civil Service career. Thus, it is crucial in the Personnel Management of their respective ministries. The successes or failures of the Civil Service will ultimately depend on the managerial capabilities of individual Permanent Secretaries. They are Principal Personnel Managers on the spot who know the problems and needs of civil servants under them and the best way to utilize these public servants for the maximum benefit to the government.

The Personnel Management responsibilities of the Permanent Secretary are many and these are summarized below:

a. He is responsible for the overall direction, supervision and control of all the civil servants within his ministry. He ensures high performance and productivity on the part of other civil servants under him.

b. The Permanent Secretary serves as an essential link between the civil servants within his ministry on the one hand, and the civil service commission, the department of establishments and the head of service on the other hand.

c. The Permanent Secretary is the chairman of the Personnel Management Board, senior staff committee, which handles personnel management functions. These

include appointments, promotion, and discipline, for officers on grade levels 11-13. he is also a key member of the Personnel Management Board of the ministry which is charged with the duty of supervising the work of other committees of the personnel management board, in addition to handling directly the cases of officers on grade levels 14-17. In these committees, he exerts a lot of influence on personnel management maters, which are brought before the committee.

d. The Permanent Secretary has the duty of inspiring, encouraging and motivating all the civil servants under him. He ensures their general welfare and seeks to improve their regular promotions.

e. He maintains a link between his ministry and other government ministries and extra- ministerial departments, and between his ministry and the public. He ensures a good image of the civil servants within his ministry.

f. He regularly and continuously assesses the staff needs of his ministry and sees that these are adequately met.

g. He is expected to make constant evaluation of the performance of the civil servants under him as a means of raising standards and improving performance.

5.6.6   Recruitments, Training and Development in the Nigerian Civil Service

The personnel management functions of the Civil Service in Nigeria are discussed under the following sub-themes:

a. Recruitment
b. Training and development
c. promotion and discipline

Recruitment

The overall aim of the recruitment and selection process in an organization is to obtain the quantity and quality of employees required by the workforce with maximum efficiency, that is, at least with fulfilment of the overall organizational objectives. These processes can be broken down into three main stages:

a. The definition of recruitment including the preparation of job description and specification.
b. The attracting of political employees including the evaluation and use of various methods of reaching sources of applicants inside and outside the organization; and

c. The selection of candidates.

In the recruitment of civil servants, the Civil Service Commissions at both the Federal and State levels are empowered to delegate their recruitment functions as follows:

a. Appointment of officers on GL 01-06 delegated to the respective ministries, extra-ministerial departments.

b. Appointment of officers on GL 07-10 not delegated.

c. Appointment to positions on GL 12-14 delegated to the senior management committee of the ministry and extra-ministerial departments or relevant staff pool.

d. Appointment to posts on GL 15-17 by the federal civil service commission on the recommendation of the respective ministries and extra-ministerial departments or staff pool and endorsement of the head of service at both state and federal levels.

e. According to the reform, it is a policy requirement that appointments to GL 12-14 posts must be advertised in at least three popular national newspapers; and a copy sent to the civil service commission. It is also stated that the screening of applicants should be done by the ministry while funds approval would be by the civil service commission. It should be observed that grade level 12-17 post are essentially promotion positions to which appointment from outside the service should be done with great care and under extreme exigency. The selection process governed by a progression is expected to be based normally on merit. It is interesting to note that the white paper on the Ayida panel report on the Nigerian civil service provides that "officers being transferred into the federal civil service from the states and other services should be placed on the grade they would normally have been had they joined the federal civil service in the first instance". This unacceptable provision was designed to make it difficult for officers from the state and local governments to join the Federal Civil Service.

Recruitment process

The procedure of recruitment in the Nigerian Civil Service is as follows:

i. **Identification of vacancy:** The recruitment process starts with the identification of the existence of a vacancy in a given areas. A vacancy may occur when someone has left the service of the organization by way of transfer, dismissal, death, etc., when new posts have

been created, when new departments or branches have been opened. It is the head of the department unit or organization that identifies the existence of a vacancy.

ii.   **Requisition to fill vacancy:** Once vacancies have been identified in a particular department or section, the head of that department or section now applies to the personnel department or any other section entrusted with the functions for such positions to be filled. If the request is approved by top management, the personnel department is supplied with the job specifications and job description, where the personnel department has not got the job specification and job description. Here job specification refers to the minimum human requirements necessary to perform the job. It spells out the required calibre, training and qualifications of the personnel needed, while job description spells out the major aspects of a job such as purpose, scope, duties, and responsibilities attached to the job.

iii. **Choosing the correct source(s) of recruitment:** There are two major sources of recruitment in an organization in Nigeria today. These are:
   a. Internal recruitment and
   b. External recruitment

Internal recruitment: This normally happens by way of promotion, upgrading and transfer. Also included in this category are those workers who have been on the payroll of a firm, but were laid off, retrenched; casual workers and contract staff who want their appointments regularized. The greatest advantage attached to the internal process of recruitment is that the employees recruited are well known to the organization.

External recruitment: This is the process of recruiting workers from outside the firm. It means employing entirely new workers in the organization. The different sources of recruitment are as follows:

- **Advertisement:** Establishments use various advertising media, both electronic and print, to fill in job openings. This has the advantage of attracting many applicants.
- **Schools, colleges, and universities**: Sometimes, organizations liaise with placement officers in various schools, colleges, and universities to interview and recruit final year students or postgraduate students or NYSC members for job openings. This is a very cheap source of external recruitment especially when job experience is not a prerequisite to utilize this method.

- **Employment agencies**: These are both public and private agencies that specialize in recruiting employees for other firms. The private agencies in the form of consultancy firms charge fees for their services. Examples of public employment agencies are the various civil service commissions at the federal and state levels that are also charged with the responsibility of recruiting employees into the civil service. However, there are some organizations that specialize in recruitment and placement of employees in organization.

- **Labour Unions:** The labour unions help in recruiting workers by recommending their members and relations.

- **Professional bodies:** Most professional organizations engage in employment service for their members and students. The greatest advantage of this source is that well-qualified workers are employed.

- **Employed recommendations:** existing employees also serve as a good source of recruiting staff by recommending suitably qualified people for appointment.

- **Short-listing:** the fourth stage in the recruitment process is to short-list qualified applicants by matching their qualifications with job descriptions and job specifications.

- **Arrangement for Interview**: Once candidates are short listed, they are informed of the test or interview that will follow.

- **Referees:** references can be made before the interview because it will help in the selection decision during the interview proper. The purpose of the employment references is to ascertain and confirm the qualifications, experience, character, and dexterity claimed by candidates. References can be obtained from the candidate's past employers, last school heads, etc. depending on what is sought.

- **Interview:** This is oral interaction between prospective employees and the interviewer in order to elicit the necessary information from both parties. Interviews may be conducted by a single person or a panel. However, the panel type is preferable. Interviews can be structured or unstructured. The structured ones are those pre-written questions that are asked candidates, while the unstructured ones are not pre-planned. It is advisable to have the prospective employee fill an application blank before the interview. The applicant blank supplies all the information about the candidate.

Limitations of an Interview

- **Halo-Effect**: This is a phenomenon which describes how an interviewer may be unduly influenced by one particular personality trait of the applicant and uses such traits to establish the overall picture of the applicant. For example, if an applicant is smart and good looking or well dressed, an interviewer suffering from a halo-effect may be led to believe that the applicant is efficient, well qualified and appropriate in all aspects.

- **Highly subjective**: subjectivity is bound to creep in during an interview because of the inherent human nature. Two different interviewers, for instance, may have different opinions on a candidate who has given some answers to a question.

- Attributes may not be easily and precisely quantified. Personal trait and attributes such as personal appearances cannot be easily qualified.

- Similarly, some attributes such as proficiency cannot be measured with the help of an oral interview.

- It is as a result of these limitations that selection tests appear to be better than job interviews. The subjective and un- quantitative nature of job interviews can be taken care of by selection tests. However, this does not mean that selection tests per se should be used in selection decisions. Most firms these days combine both tests and interviews in their selection decisions. This mode is applauded because the deficient area of the one is more than compensated for by the other.

Other issues to be taken into consideration when conducting interviews are as follows:

- **Administration of tests:** Tests should be administered especially for that job in which dexterity can be measured, for example, computer operation. Typewriting etc. test should also be used when it is necessary to reduce the number of applicants for an interview.

- **Medical Examination**: It might be necessary for candidates who passed the interview or test to undergo a medical examination before finally being selected.

The reasons for medical examinations are as follows

- To discover if they are physically fit for the job they applied for; and
- To find out also if prospective employees have contagious diseases.

- **Selection decision:** Based on the finding from the foregoing, decisions are finally made on which candidate(s) should be employed and those unsuccessful candidates should be written to and informed of the decision.

- **Placement:** Successful candidates are deployed and placed to the office where they are expected to work.

- **Induction:** This is the last of the steps in the recruitment process. It is also the bridge between newness and contribution. Induction is a very important aspect of personnel administration. Orientation or induction refers to the kind of training given to new employees to acquaint them with the environment in which they are to work. Simply put, induction means introducing new staff to the establishment or organization. It is the process of making the new worker aware of the conditions, organizations policy, his colleagues, etc.

Training and Development

It is one of the responsibilities of the personnel department to provide on-the-job and various forms of formal training for employees, and development programmes for supervisory and management personnel. Training is viewed as a process by which the aptitudes, skills, and abilities of employees to perform specific jobs are increased. Training in the Civil Service is a privilege and not a right. However, training increases productivity and enhances performance towards better service delivery. Technical and administrative training is important to the employees be it on-the-job training or off-the-job training. On-the-job training is normally handled by colleagues, supervisors, managers, mentors to help employees adjust to their work and equip them with appropriate job-related skills while Off-the-job training is handled by a team of professionals outside the work place.

Purpose of Training

The primary purpose of training is to achieve a positive change in the behaviour of employees in the performance of their assigned duties. Training equips employees with new skills, technical knowledge, problem-solving capability and new attitudes and values required for effective performance of their official duties. Training is different from education; it therefore provides the organization with the most suitable human resources for the task and environment. It is an ongoing

process. It involves not only recruitment and selection but also the training and development of employees prior to employment, or any time during their employment, in order to help them meet the requirements of the demands of the job. Therefore, both training and selection are concerned with:

i. fitting people to the requirements of the job

ii. securing better occupational adjustment; and

iii. in methodological terms setting and achieving targets and defining performance criteria against which the success of the process can be monitored.

Major Objectives of Training

a. Training is a practical approach to improving the job performance of civil servants by helping employees raise the level of their job performance.

b. It helps employees to get a proper understanding of the entire organization in which they work.

c. It helps them appreciate their roles and their relationship with other members of the organization.

d. It assists them to play their roles more meaningfully and effectively.

e. It tends to reconcile the attitudes, norms, and values of individual officials with those of their organization, thereby bringing about organizational harmony, cooperation, individual conformity and congruency between individual needs and organizational demands.

f. It reduces labour turnover, absenteeism, aggression, frustration, and apathy in the civil service by improving supervisory skills and techniques, especially in the areas of human relations techniques, clinical approach to supervision, communication, and positive and democratic leadership styles.

g. It enhances the job security and social status of employees, through the acquisition of new knowledge and new skill, retrains civil servants for new skills and techniques in order that they keep pace with the demands of a changing society.

Training Methods and Techniques

Training methods and techniques are discussed as follows:

a. **Formal Learning**

By internal or external residential courses, day course or lectures, distance learning, programmed learning, or computer aided learning. Here, the internal courses are run by the organization's training department, while the external courses may vary, and will involve:

➢ Day-release, which means that the employee works with organization; and on one day per week attends a local college for theoretical teaching.

➢ Evening classes, which make demands on the individual's time outside work; this is commonly used, for example by typists wishing to develop or refresh their shorthand skills and

➢ Revision courses for examinations of professional bodies

b. **On-the-Job Training**

On-the-job training is very common, especially when the work involved is not complex. Finance managers require more coaching and may be given assignments or projects as part of a planned programme to develop their experience. Unfortunately, this type of training will be unsuccessful if:

➢ the assignments do not have a specific purpose from which the trainee can learn and gain experience or

➢ The organization is intolerant of mistakes, which the trainer makes. Mistakes are an inevitable part of on-the-job learning.

c. **Group Learning**

This is not common in industry but is more common in organizations such as the social services department of local governments authorities. The purpose of group learning is to:

➢ Give each individual in a training group a greater insight into his/her own behaviour.

➢ To teach an individual how he/she "appears" to other people as a result of responses from other members of the group, and

➢ To reach an understanding of intra-group processes, that is, how people interrelate.

d. **In-Service Training**

In-serving training can be divided into local and overseas training. It can also be divided into state/ federal government sponsored and foreign technical aid financed. In-service training lasts between a period of one month to a maximum period of two years. Local training courses are obtainable in Nigerian universities, colleges of technology, polytechnics, and specialized institutions.

e. **Conferences, Workshops and Seminars** are among other types of training offered by states and federal governments in Nigeria. According to Beach, conference is a small group meeting conducted according to an organized plan, in which the leader seeks to develop knowledge and understanding by obtaining a considerable amount of oral participation from the trainers and students.

Conferences, workshops, and seminars when properly organized and executed are very effective in dealing with operational problems of management organizations because of their "clinical" and participative approach. It should be stressed that they are very irregular, and only very few of them are organized. Most of these seminars and workshops are initiated mostly by the universities, professional organizations, and training consultants. The State/Federal governments usually organized these conferences and seminars for the management staff of the civil service. In very few cases, some governments of the federation organize them for all categories and all grades of civil servants including clerical officers, messengers, cleaners, hall porters, drivers, store keepers, security guards, representatives from the civil service union, technical officers, professionals, executive officers, and administrative officers.

5.6.7 Promotion and Discipline in the Nigerian Civil Service

This is the third function of the Personnel Management of the Civil Service of Nigeria. The traditional managerial approach also stresses efficiency and productivity as the basis for promotion. Accordingly, promotions are generally made on the basis of written examinations and/or performance appraisals. The promotional examination resembles the merit entrance examination, except that it is open only to those employees who qualify for consideration for promotion. Promotion remains a controversial aspect of public personnel management. In hierarchical organizations, there are fewer positions at the top than at the bottom. Therefore, there

is a limit on how high up an employee can rise. Most employees will always be lower down in the organization's ranks. Thus, promotion tends to the "zero-sum", that is, one employee's gain is another's lost opportunity. The competition can be fierce and can lead to discord among employees. This is one of the virtues of a written promotional examination. As long as the examination is accepted as legitimate and fair, it settles the issues without any possibility of favouritism or office politics playing a role. Similarly, promotion by seniority is a principle often stressed by unions in collective bargaining and it tends to discourage it. Sometimes, merit-oriented promotion and seniority are combined by restricting the opportunity for promotion to those who have been on the job for a given number of years. Presumably, in the flexible, flatter organization favoured by the situation, employees can be rewarded for the results they produce without having to be promoted to new positions. However, in the Nigerian Civil Service, the procedure for promotion as stated in the guidelines for the implementation of the 1988 Civil Service Reforms is as follows:

All promotions shall be based on relativity of that is performance and seniority. Flexibility shall be exercised in extreme, unusual cases where there is a dire need to balance merit with federal or state character. Ministries and extra- ministerial departments (shall) have the power to promote and give advancements to all subject to the following guidelines:

   i.   Each ministry or extra-ministerial department shall prepare at the end of every year a comprehensive staff list showing the order of seniority of all the staff in each grade within each cadre.

  ii.   All officers who fall within the field of selection for any promotion exercise shall be considered, except those who are under disciplinary action. The minimum number of years that an officer must spend in a post before being considered eligible to come within the field of selection for promotions shall be as follows:

     01-06 minimum of 2 (two) years

     07-14 minimum of 3 (three) years

     15-17 minimum of 4 (four) years

 iii.   All personnel management committees shall consider the APER (Annual performance Evaluation Report) of each officer for the service. Each "APER" shall be summarized, and their equivalent marks shall be confirmed or vetted by the moderating officers and shall be shown on the APER form.

iv. Staff on GL.07 and above who are being considered for promotion must appear before the appropriate personnel management committee (PMC) for promotion interviews. In the case of officers entering into the senior management cadres at grade level 15 they must in addition pass a proficiency examination or based on prescribed courses. There must also be promotion examination for promotion for GL 06-07. However, where the GL.06 post is a training post then advancement from GL.06 to GL.07 shall be based on APER score only.

However, in the case of officers on the professional cadres moving from GL. 08 to GL.09, where the promotions are not subject to vacancies, each of such officers shall be required to pass suitable advancement test during the stipulated period or based on prescribed courses.

The criteria for promotion shall normally be weighted as follows:

Performance . . . 50%

Interview. 30%

Additional qualification system. 15%

Seniority 5%

Where additional qualification examination is not an applicable criterion, then the weigh assigned to performance shall be increased by 15. Similarly, in case where interview is not applicable the weight for performance shall be increased by 30.

Discipline

The concept of discipline as it applies in Personnel Management entrails the achieving and maintenance of orderly employee behaviour in accordance with established codes of conduct. Discipline also refers to punishment of wrongdoers. The Personnel Department is responsible for formulating disciplinary rules with corresponding penalties for those who break them.

Taking the conception of discipline further, and applying it to the Nigerian civil service, by virtue of the 1988 reforms, there are certain laid-down procedures for discipline to be applied. Therefore, discipline involves the conditioning or moulding of behaviour by applying rewards or penalties. This implies that there are two types of discipline, namely: positive discipline and negative discipline.

i. **Statutory Discipline**: By positive discipline, we mean the kind of discipline that all management should seek to create in their departments and agencies. Positive discipline

involves the creation of an attitude and an organizational climate, which enable the employees to willingly conform to established rules and regulations. It is achieved when management applies the principle of positive motivation. When sound leadership is exercised by supervision and when the entire organization is managed efficiently.

ii. **Punitive Discipline**: By negative discipline, we mean the use of penalties to cause people to obey orders and to live up to expected norms of the organization. Negative discipline should be used only when it is necessary. In all, both in the public or the organized private sector, regardless of whether positive or negative discipline is utilized, some individuals will sometimes break the rules. Corrective action against them should be applied by using some form of punishments. This is positive discipline, which seeks to correct or rehabilitate the offender. Negative discipline, on the other hand, is for retribution and seeks to scare others so that they will not commit the same offence. Disciplinary action needs to be exercised with a sense of proportion and fairness. In other works, punishment given for an offence should be proportional to the offence. Furthermore, rules should be simple and clear and should be explained to all employees. Conforming behaviour should be rewarded.

5.6.8   The Functions of the Nigerian Civil Service

The functions of the civil service may be discussed under the following main headings:

i. **Advice:** One of the primary functions of the civil service is to offer advice to the political executive. Ministers rely on the advice of their senior officials who are the reservoirs of information and organized knowledge concerning the subject-matters which they administer. The political executive necessarily depends upon the civil personnel for the information that he needs for formulating his own programme.

ii. **Programme and operational planning:** In its broad sense, planning is a responsibility of the political executive. Planning the periodic adjustments of the revenue structure is a responsibility of the Minister of Finance. Agricultural prices and food policy are functions of the Minister for Food and Agriculture. Industrial Policy is a function of the Minister for Industries and so on. Besides assisting the ministers in the formulation of policy and drawing the framework of plans, civil servants are required to participate in the execution of plans. This is termed operational planning.

iii. **Production:** Civil service exists to perform services in the broadest sense of the term. Its primary purpose is production. Things produced may be tangible objects such as kilograms of fertilizers and miles of concrete roadway or less tangible objects such as cases of legal disputes. The immediate test of success is production. The supervisor must cultivate attitudes that are conducive to co-operative energy and loyalty.

iv. **Delegated legislative powers:** This is another important power which has been entrusted to the executive due to the emergence of welfare states. The activities of the state have got multiplied. The legislature is neither competent nor has the time to cope with the enormous and complex legislation. Hence, the power of making laws is delegated to the executive. It also passes the legislative bills in skeletal forms leaving the details for the executive to fill. This job is evidently performed by the permanent secretaries and heads of the departments.

v. **Administrative adjudicatory power:** This is another important power which has been entrusted to the executive due to rapid technological developments and the emergence of the welfare concept of the state. Administrative adjudication means vesting judicial and quasi-judicial powers with an administrative department or agency.

vi. **Organisation and Methods (O & M):** An important function of the civil servants, particularly of middle management, is to bring about improvement in working methods so to eliminate waste and loss of efforts and secure the most complete vitalization of available resources. This function is performed with the assistance of units specialized in what has come to be known as organisation and methods work (often referred to as O and M).

From the foregoing, it is clear that civil servants have to play an important role in a modern state. Their powers are gradually growing. Today, civil servants play a crucial role of canvassing support for governmental policies and programmes. They seek public participation in the implementation of such policies and programmes.

5.6.9 Functional Responsibilities of the Civil Servants

These functions include:

i. Render professional and technical advice based on the totality of knowledge, experience available within the various ministries and departments.

ii. Contribute to the effective and realistic implementation of the declared objectives, policies, and programmes of government through careful analysis of the issues, identification of

constraints and suggestion of the most appropriate strategies for project implementation, having regard to the available resources.

iii. Contribute to the formulation of policy and carry out approved programme faithfully.

iv. Give honest and impartial advice on matters of public interest without fear of being regarded as disloyal to the cause of the administration.

v. Sustain the oath for public officers which requires them in essence:

- To be faithful and bear true allegiance to the Federal Republic of Nigeria at all times.
- Not to discriminate on the basis of religion, tribe, cult, or status etc.
- To place service to the public above selfish interest; and
- To perform their official duties diligently and efficiently.

5.7   POLICY MAKING PROCESS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE

There are various angles and controversies surrounding the definitions of public Policy and up till now there is no consensus to the Define. Public Policy is the pronouncement of government intention(s) by people in position of public trust demanding government actions or in actions and having impact either negative or positive on the majority of the members of a given society. This definition is flawed in that were declaration of intentions, wishes or principles, or expression of desires cannot be regarded as public policy. It is an aggregation of peoples hopes, aspirations and intentions embodied in official documents such as legislative enactments, white papers, estimates, government circulars, conclusions of the council of the council of ministers (executive councils) development or rolling plans, etc., or otherwise enunciated and enacted as the current stand on certain issues. Accordingly, it is a deliberate and binding action by the authoritative organs of the state designed to influence the behaviour of the society. It is not a haphazardness action but rather a systematic method of society fundamental national problems. The systematic approach is vital so that the numerous public problems will be prioritized against the available resources. As well as harmonize the various sectoral aspects of the total policy.

It is a pattern of purposive action by which political institutions shape society. This involves varieties of efforts to tackle identified societal problems. It has direct relationship with politics. Public policies are shaped by the manner in which power is organized within the government. It is

a guide to government actions since those values which set priorities and roles within the government and societies are encompassed in it. It is a road map for politicians to follow in the examination of their political agenda. It equally gives the public, who are the beneficiaries of these policies, an idea of what to expect from the government.

In some instances, government's inaction can also be as a result of its policy too. Public Policy is "whatever government chooses to do or not to do". It has to be borne in mind that policy does not mean the same thing as decision. Policy has a longer time frame and wider in scope than decision. It is policy that provides the framework for day-to-day decisions that are needed for the attainment of the organizational goals. Public policy is a written statement of government's action or inaction in a given political environment. It can equally be called a guiding practices or actions in a particular activity or a problem area.

Public Policy is an attempt by the government in power to address a public issue. The government which may be local, state, or federal develops this policy within the context of the laws, regulations, decisions, and actions of the government. Public policy making process involves what we call 'policy cycle'. The policy cycle is made up of policy initiation, policy formulation, policy implementation, policy monitoring and evaluation, and policy reformulation. Public policy making is an actively which provides the necessary framework for major decision that lead to concrete actions aimed at solving specific problems or improving an existing situation. In the political sphere, policy making serve as the instrument for authoritative allocation of resources and values to various sectors and activities towards achieving specific socio-political and economic objectives of the government. Having understood the meaning of public policy making, we can now go ahead to explain the stages of the policy making cycle.

i. **Policy Initiation:**
    This involves intensive research effort geared towards the collection and generation of relevant information, ideals, and facts and figures to appraise a proposed policy in terms of its chances of success or otherwise. At this initial stage, a group of experts from multi-disciplinary sector or 'think-tank' may be utilized. Other groups who may e used to initiate policies are politicians, legislative class, judiciary, community, professional bodies,

pressure groups, or other interact groups. This stage will also revel the popularity or otherwise of the policy, the anticipated problems, the benefits, the cost implication etc. the cost-benefit analysis if thoroughly done at this stage will facilitate the policy formulation and passage into law. It will also greatly enhance the success of the policy.

In Nigeria, policy initiation is undertaken by government and the politicians. Sometimes the interest groups get involved but government's reaction towards society's popular demand are still weak. This is not so in the developed countries where lots of think-tank', data and information are readily available for the government to articulate any proposed policy.

ii. **Policy Formulation:**

These are a thin line between policy initiation and policy formulation. In policy formulation, all the major and vital features of the policy such as unambiguous definition, policy statement and content, policy objectives, plans, programmers, projects and key activities policy priorities and its strategies, the resources available, implementation agencies and their roles, enabling environment for successful implementation are brought to the drawing table and initially reviewed at this stage. A good policy formulation is sine qua non to sustainability and positive impact of the policy to the society. In other to achieve this following stage should be taken in the formulation stage:

a. Identification of the problem

b. Unambiguous definition of the policy issue,

c. Identification of the source of data.

d. Collection of data and data analysis.

e. Formulation of all the policy options.

f. Organization and institutional framework for policy formulation (e.g., relevant civil servant departments).

g. Collection and Analysis of data is done after adequate consultation with the target groups and political leaders.

h. Draft content of policy proposal (involving the primary/ secondary data) as well as stakeholders' input, and availability of human and material resources.

The public servants act as chief advisers in the public policy process but the responsibility for policy formulation and the policy itself rests with the politicians or the political decision makers.

iii. **Policy Implementation**

This is a very critical stage to the success of any policy process. It is made up of the following: identification of policy plans, programmers, projects, and activities, explicit, definition of the roles of implementing agencies, detailed strategies, and linkages as well as coordinating mechanisms, resources (human and materials) acquisition and utilization. For an effective and efficient policy implementation to take place, sound, and proper managerial capabilities in terms of resource mobilization, and rationalization, budgeting, cost- benefit analysis, proper activity scheduling, supervision, problem solving and sound decision-making technique is required policy performance standards and targets should be set and met.

The principal implementing agency or machinery for policy implementation is the public service. sometimes, government may use committees or task force or commission for the implementation of its policy. Nigeria governments have many good policies but have the problem of implementation. this is as a result of indiscipline and corruption. the public service which in the major of organ for policy implementation has been accused as being inefficient and ineffective to respond adequately and promptly to government needs. there are some other factors which have been identified for poor policy implementation in Nigeria there are: financial misappropriation, lack of political will on the part of the government in terms of financial allocation and prompt release of same, as well as lack of commitment and discipline by the implementing agencies, undue rivalry, diversion of resources, poor definition of policy or overlapping roles of the implementing agencies.

To avoid these problems the under listed conditions should be adhered to:
a. Policy objectives should be explicit and unambiguous.
b. Principal success factors and linkage must be identified.
c. Implementing agencies should be provided with adequate and capable staff.
d. The implementing agencies should be given the necessary incentives and independence.

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e. Supportive roles and procedures for proper accountability, and transparency should be provided.

f. Adequate financial resources should be provided.

g. The stakeholders must be consulted from time to time.

iv. **Policy Monitoring and Evaluation**

This stage involves proper and continues observation of all the activities and output of the policy, especially the planned activities, programmers undertaken at various stages of the implementation. It is at this stage that problems are identified and necessary corrections, adjustments are effected so as to ensure the success of the policy objective. The major concern at this stage is to ensure that the implementation follows the policy specifications, strategies in terms of timing, resources rationalization, adherence to planning etc. The evaluation of the policy accesses the successful implementation on the basis of efficiency and effectiveness, responsiveness as well as the impact and innovation of the policy. This may be called appraised. The distinguishing factor between monitoring and evaluation is that while monitoring is a feed- forward mechanism, evaluation is a feed- back mechanism. Monitoring provides information about the activity as it progresses with a view to identifying derivations (if any) and effecting necessary corrections before they get out of hand. While policy evaluation, provide information on a finished project. This can be regarded as a post-mortem activity which will be utilized as a guide to future plans on similar event or activity.

v. **Policy Reformation**

The data gathered at the policy evaluation stage will dictate the possibility or otherwise of policy reformation.

5.8   VALUES AND ETHICS IN GOVERNMENT BUSINESSES

Ethics can be defined as the branch of Philosophy which deals with the morality of human actions, or a branch of Philosophy which studies the norms of human behaviour… (or) the systematic study of the fundamental principles of the moral law; or as the normative science of human conduct." Examples of 'unethical' conduct or behaviour are: lying, cheating, dishonesty, unreliability, abuse of position, abuse of trust, etc.

Ethics concepts or explanations are proffered regarding what affects or guides the moral conduct of man. Every organization has its norms, values, interests, and acceptable ways of behaviour and at the same time, employees of the same organization individually or collectively have their own peculiar behaviour acquired prior to joining the organization. The employees' behaviour reflects and protects their interests, which may be at variance with the organizational interests. Therefore, for an organization to continue to survive and grow there must be that congruence between the organization's interest and those of its employees. This will forestall conflicts, lack of productivity, disenchantment, and even industrial actions. This informs the emphasis on ethic and code of conduct. An organization that does not enforce its ethics and code of conduct of its employees will collapse.

The key ethics ideas in civil service rules are that civil servants and public officials, including judges, ministers and politicians should do the following:

i.   Occupy a position of trust, on behalf of the whole community.

ii.   Exercise power assigned by a lawful authority, or law.

iii.   Are expected to use that power for a propose as expressed in law.

iv.   Are expected to act competently (that is with relevant skill) and responsibly (that is, with due consideration of the consequences of their actions).

v.   Are expected to be accountable for their actions to a manager, the head of their organization, and perhaps ultimately to an external authority.

vi.   Are expected to recognize that this accountability includes being required to give reasons for decisions they make.

vii.   Are expected to act in the public interest – that is, for the overall good of the community as a whole.

viii. Are expected to be personally disinterested – that is, to exclude conflicts between their personal interests or advantage and the public interest, so that their advice, decisions, and actions should be, and appear to be, unaffected by any private interest or personal advantage; and

ix.   Are expected to comply with a civil service code of ethics which will emphasize the values of responsibility, legitimacy, fairness, efficiency and effectiveness, diligence, accountability, and integrity.

5.8.1   Code of Ethics in the Nigerian Public Service

Code of ethics implies a framework within which staff can be expected to work. A code of ethics is an important follow. Ethics means discipline dealing with good and evil and with moral duty, moral principles, or practice. Values, on the other hand, are abstract ideas or principles which help to decide what to do because they define what is important in our dealings with other people and things. What we 'value' will be very important in deciding how we live our lives, and what methods we well choose to attain our goals. The vital points in these definitions are moral values or principles and all these though not the same are all geared towards public morality.

5.8.2   Functions of Ethical principles

i.   They set down specific values which are important to an individual, such as 'honesty', fairness, integrity, reliability, selflessness.

ii.   Principles provide general guidance which assists a person to make decisions.

iii. They invite other people to trust that the person can be relied on to observe the ethical standard for judgment so that everyone can make judgment about the ethics of the person.

Nigerians expected 'high' standards of ethics from the civil servants and public officials, including the judiciary and elected representatives, who undertake the tasks of government and public management on its behalf. Ethics problems are generally concerned with choosing between "right" and "wrong" when we are required to decide what we ought to do in a 'particular' situation. In private life, we generally approve of promise keeping, selflessness, responsibility, reliability, hard work, commitment, courage, honesty, frankness, and above all, trustworthiness. Ethics involves obligation, duty and conflict of interests, responsibility, integrity, fairness, and trust. On the other hand, special words used to show disapproval of management tool which can positively shape the culture of an organization. He went further to say that it is used to help prevent corruption in the society by specifying punitive measures for corrupt officials. It helps staff in the conduct of their day-to-day activities. It must also include clearly stated example of conduct and relationships that

are relevant to the particular function of the organization. A code of ethics should function as a positive guide to decision-making and it must provide specific, concrete examples to illustrate the ethical problem that might arise in an organization and strategies for dealing with them. Areas specific concern or ethical risk to the organization such as bribery, theft, abuse of public office, etc, should be carefully considered and included in the code. Since no two organizations are the same, the code of ethics should reflect the peculiarity in the organization if such a code should be relevant. We shall concern ourselves with the code of ethics or conduct for public servants in Nigeria.

The 1999 constitution stipulates the following as the code of conduct for public officers:

i.   A public officer shall not put himself in a position where his personal interest conflicts with his duties and responsibilities.

ii.   Without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing paragraph, a public office shall not:

   a. Receive or he paid the emolument of any public office at the same time as he receives or is paid the emoluments of any other public office; or

   b. Except where he is not employed on full-time basis, engage, or participate in the management or running of any private business, profession or trade; but nothing in this sub-paragraph shall prevent a public officer from engaging in farming.

iii.   The President, Vice-President, Governor, Deputy Governor, Ministers of the Government of the Federation and Commissioners of the Government of the States, members of the National Assembly and of the Houses of Assembly of the States and such other public officers or Persons as the National Assembly may by law prescribe, shall not maintain, or operate a bank account in any country outside Nigeria.

iv.   (1) a public officer shall not, after his retirement from public service and while receiving pension from public funds, accept more than one remunerative position as chairman, director, or employee of:

   a. A company owned or controlled by the government; and

   b. Any public authority.

   (2) A retired public servant shall not receive any other remuneration from public funds in addition to his pension and the emolument of such one remunerative position.

v. retired public officers who have held offices to which this paragraph applies are prohibited from service or employment in foreign companies or foreign enterprises.

(2) This paragraph applies to the office of President, Vice-President, Chief Justice of Nigeria, Governor and Deputy Governor of a State.

vi. A public officer shall not ask for or accept property or benefits of any kind for himself or any other person on account of anything done or omitted to be done by him in the discharge of his duties.

(2) For the purpose of sub-paragraph (1) of this paragraph, the receipt by a public officer of any gifts or benefits from commercial firms, business enterprises or persons who have contracts with the government shall be presumed to have been received in contravention of the said sub-paragraph unless the contrary is proved.

(3) a public officer shall only accept personal gifts or benefit from relatives or personal friends to such extent and on such occasions as are recognized by custom, provided that any gift or donation to a public officer on any public ceremonial occasion shall be treated as a gift to the appropriate institution represented by the public officer, and accordingly, the mere acceptance or receipt of any such gift shall not be treated as contravention of this provision.

vii. the President or Vice-President, Governor or Deputy Governor, minister of the government of the federation or commissioner of the government of a state, or any other public officer who holds the of a permanent secretary or head of any public corporation, university, or other parastatal organization, shall not accept:

   a. A loan, except from government or its agencies such as, a bank building society, mortgage institution or other financial institutions recognized law; and

   b. Any benefit of whatever nature from any company, contractor, or businessman, or the nominee or agent of such a person. Provided that the head of a public corporation or of a university or other parastatal organization may, subject to the rules and regulations of the body, accept a loan from such a body.

viii. No person shall offer a public officer any property, gift, or benefit of any kind as an inducement or bribe for the granting of any favour or the discharge in his favour, of the public officer's duties.

ix.   a public officer shall not do, or direct to be done, in abuse of his office, any arbitrary act prejudicial to rights of any other person, knowing that such act is unlawful, or contrary to any government policy.

x.   A public officer shall not be a member of, belong to, or take part in any society, the membership of which is incompatible with the functions or dignity of his officer.

xi.   (1) subject to the provisions of the constitution, "every public officer shall, within three months after the coming into force of the code of conduct or immediately after taking office and thereafter:

    a. at the end of every four years; and

    b. at the end of his term of office, submit to the code of conduct Bureau a written declaration of all his properties, assets, and liabilities and those of his unmarried children under the age of eighteen.

    (2) any statement in such declaration that is found to be false by any authority or person authorized in that behalf to verify it, shall be deemed to be a breach of the code.

    (3) any property or assets acquired by a public officer after any declaration required under the constitution and which is not fairly attributable to income, gift, or loan approved by the code unless the contrary is proved.

xii.   any allegation that a public officer has committed a breach of or shas not complied with the provisions of this code shall be made to the code of conduct Bureau.

xiii.   a public officer who does act in a manner prohibited by this code through a nominee, trustee, or other agent, shall be deemed ipso facto to have committed a breach of this code.

5.8.3   Institutions in charge of Ethics in the Nigerian Public Service

The following organs are charged with the responsibilities of enforcing ethical principles in Nigeria Public Service organizations.

i.   **Code of Conduct Bureau:** its functions are fully explained in the Third Schedule, Part 1, of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999.

ii.   **Code of Conduct Tribunal**: its functions are equally explained in Part 1 of the Fifth Schedule of the same constitution.

iii.   **Anti-Corruption Law** which was passed as an Act of the National Assembly, 2000 and known as accountability and Transparency Act, 2000.

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Code of Conduct Bureau: In accordance with the provisions of the Third Schedule, Part 1, of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999, this body was set up to, among others:

a. receive from every public officer, written declaration of all his properties, assets, and liabilities and those of his unmarried children under the age of eighteen immediately after taking office and therefore, at the end of every four (4) years, and at the end of his terms of office.

b. examine the declaration in accordance with the requirements of the code of conduct or any law.

c. retain custody of such declarations and make them available for inspection by any citizen of Nigeria on such terms and conditions as the National Assembly may prescribe.

d. Ensure compliance with, and, where appropriate, enforce the provisions of the code of conduct or any law relating thereto; and

e. Receive complaints about non-compliance with breach of the provisions of the code of conduct or any law in relation thereto, investigate the complaint and, where appropriate, refer such matter to the code of conduct Tribunal.

Code of Conduct Tribunal: this was established by the same Constitution as contained in Part 1 of the Fifth Schedule, to:

1. Impose on officers found guilty of contravening provisions of the code of conduct Bureau such punishment as:

a. Vacation of office or seat in any legislative house, as the case may be.

b. Disqualification from membership of a legislative house and from holding any public office for a period not exceeding ten years; and

c. Seizure and forfeiture to the state of any property acquired in abuse of office, or corruption.

2. Where the conduct is a criminal offence, the above sanctions will merely be in addition to the penalties that may be imposed by any law.

3. Where the Tribunal gives a decision as to whether or not a person is guilty of a contravention of any of the provisions of the code, "an appeal shall lie as of right from such

a decision or from any punishment imposed on such person to the Court of Appeal at the instance of any party to the proceeding".

5.9   REASONS FOR THE INEFFICIENCY IN THE SYSTEM

i.   Corruption and abuse of office by political office holders.

ii.   Public offices are the shopping floors of government business.

iii.   Non-compliance with due process

5.10   PUBLIC FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Public financial management has been variously described as cluster of core financial activities. It is an indispensable tool in the management of a nation's resources because; it is mainly involved with resource mobilization and expenditure-management in the public sector. Edam (2001) and Agu (2002) see public financial management as the flow of money or financial resources through an organization. It concerns itself with the actual flow of money or financial resources as well as claims against money in a more judicious way. Lawson (2015) defines Public Financial Management (PFM) as set of laws, rules, system and processes used by sovereign nations and sub-national governments to mobilize revenue, allocate public funds, undertake public spending, and account for funds and audit results. According to Lawson, PFM encourages a broader set of functions than financial management and is commonly conceived as a cycle of six phases, beginning with policy design and ending with external audit and evaluation. The essence of PFM is to ensure accountability which by implication involves effective and transparent operation

Scope of Public Financial Administration

The main objective of financial management is to arrange sufficient finance for meeting short term and long-term needs. The main work of the financial manager is acquisition/mobilization of resources geared towards attainment of short term and long-term needs. In all organizations, public financial management is very important. The reason is because money/finance is the livewire of every organization. Bearing this in mind the financial manager's scope includes:

i.   **Estimation of financial requirements:**

The first and foremost duty of the financial manager is to estimate the resources required on the short term and long term. His estimates should be based on sound financial principles

which will further lead to stability/equilibrium. The funds so estimated should be adequate to cover all expenditures to avoid extravagant spending and the business of the organization coming to a halt.

ii. **Capital Structures:** The financial manager decides on the quantum of fund to mobilize and then how and where to spend these resources to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. He has to decide on the type of securities to invest in and the kind of debts and funds to use in financing these securities. It is a wise decision to finance fixed assets through long term debts. If one decides to raise funds, then the cost of raising such funds is very important. If the cost of raising funds to sponsor a project is viewed to be high, then such sources may not be useful as the enterprise/organization runs for profit motive. Therefore, the financial manager should check the various options available and choose the least cost terms. Longer funds should be employed to finance working capital. In addition, to use overdrafts and cash credits for meeting working capital needs may not be suitable.

iii. **Selecting the Sources of Funds:** This is the next step after preparing a capital structure. He has to decide on the sources of finance to embark on in order to finance the project. The various sources include share capital, debentures, financial institutions, commercial banks, public deposit, finance houses, etc. Short term projects could be financed through bank loans, public deposits, and financial institutions while long term projects may be financed through share capital and debentures or public deposits. The factors that would determine the sources of funding are the need, purpose, object and cost involved.

iv. **Pattern of Investment:** Procurement and use of funds are very vital and related to investment pattern. It is the duty of the financial manager to decide on the assets to procure, depending on the available resources and the priority needs of the organization. There are categories of expenditures and assets (fixed and current assets). The financial manager should select the pattern of investment in relation to the cost of funding. For instance, funds have to be spent first on fixed assets and then an appropriate portion will be retained for working capital.

v. **Proper Cash Management:** Proper cash management must be embarked upon by the finance manager. He has to assess the various cash needs at different times and then plan for cash backing. Cash may be required to:

a. purchase raw materials

b. make payments to creditors

c. meet wage bills

d. meet day to day expenses.

The usual sources of cash many be:

a. cash sales

b. collection of debts

c. short term or through arrangements with banks. He should be very careful and prudent in his management to avoid shortage or idle cash. Idle cash indicates improper use of resources while shortage of cash will damage the credit worthiness of the enterprise. A better approach will be to have a cash flow statement proposed regularly.

vi. **Implementing Financial Controls:** It is the duty of the finance manager to use the various control techniques to evaluate the performance of the organization in various areas and take corrective measures when needed. This guarantees an effective system of financial management. The various control techniques widely used in organizations including public sector organizations are Return on Investment (ROI), Budgetary Control (BC), and Breakeven Analysis (BEA), Cost control (CC), Ratio Analysis (RA), Cost and Internal Audit (CIA). ROI is the best control device to evaluate performance of various financial policies.

5.10.1 Aims/Objectives of Public Financial Administration

The aims/objectives of public financial Administration cannot be over-emphasized. A sound public financial administration is critical to the achievement of the aims of the public sector through its role in enhancing the quality of public service outcomes; etc. Public financial administration improves the management of the flow of resources through government and its agencies. The Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA) identified four key objectives of effective public financial administration as Aggregate Financial Administration, Operational Administration, Review and Performance Evaluation, and Reporting to Stakeholders.

i. **Aggregate Financial Administration:** A state by right acquires revenue from natural resources under its control, ensures prompt collection of taxes, borrows, and embarks on other revenue collection due to it. These resources are than allocated according to priority to the different sectors in the state as agreed by the stakeholders. Public financial

management, in spite of the judicious allocation and control functions, also aids government in setting future priorities and ensuring fiscal sustainability.

ii. **Operational Administration:** If financial administration is well operated, it has a positive impact on short term and long-term decision-making, performance management, strategic planning, and management of public services. According to ACCA some operational aspects that are directly affected through financial administration are.

    a. **Asset Acquisition and Disposal:** The acquisition and disposal of capital assets are some of the key decisions in the administration of financial resources because they involve huge capital outflow. Therefore, in an efficient financial system, alternative options are explored to finance capital assets in such a way that liquidity is maintained in the successful pursuit of long-term objectives.

    b. **Treasury Management:** One of the aims of public financial management is operational management which can be achieved through sound treasury management, which balances the value maximization objectives of the government with the need to maintain liquidity for the discharge of institutional liabilities.

    c. **Review and Performance Evaluation:** When review is undertaken and performance evaluated, it aids in identifying and understanding previous mistakes and the taking of corrective measures in the future.

    d. **Reporting to Stakeholders:** Public financial administration shows how the financial managers of the public sector discharge their financial administration responsibilities. The Finance manager prepares and publishes annual audited financial statements in entities' annual reports. The financial statement presents a true and fair view of the financial performance, position, and cash flows of entities. It is believed that the timely finalization of the financial statement and the expressed opinion of an independent auditor are important indicators of the effectiveness of an entity's financial management performance. Sound financial management shows that the entity is using public funds efficiently to provide value for money.

iii. **Governance**

Good governance in public services is defined as the process of ''ensuring the organization is doing the right things, in the right way, for the right people, in a timely, inclusive, open, honest, and accountable manner''.

Good governance assigns the decision-making structure to people that can be relied upon for the effective discharge of their responsibility, and this would only be possible when persons with the right set of technical skills and proven capabilities for managing their role have been employed. Decision making provides an opportunity for choosing between available alternatives, hence if an efficient governance structure is established then one can expect that the chosen alternatives would maximize the desired outcomes.

Knowledge of the constitutional environment within which a country operates is crucial to understanding the accountability structures within the public sector. In most jurisdictions/countries, the overall accountability of government organisations to the public is through parliaments or democratically elected representatives. A good public financial management system supports this by providing information, which is understandable, accessible, and clear and through parliamentary scrutiny of the Government's performance. Sound public financial management is inextricably linked with anti-fraud and corruption cultures. An independent internal audit function within a public entity has an integral role to play towards its good governance. It is important that control structures are in place to ascertain whether the allocated financial resources are being utilized for the service of desired outcomes. The public and other stakeholders increasingly expect public entities to bring about improvements in their financial discipline and internal control environments in order to minimise the possibility of fraud and malpractices through improved governance structures.

iv. **Fiduciary risk management**

Flexible and intuitive fiduciary risk management is required to mitigate anticipated and unanticipated risks that public entities face while pursuing their objectives. Ongoing monitoring of progress versus goals aids the timely correction of errors and identification of problem areas and future risks. Public audit from an independent external third party is one of the ways through which the risks that may deter the achievement of desired objectives can be addressed. Public audit is the examination of the records and reports of an enterprise or governmental department by experts or persons other than those responsible for their preparation. Although every transaction cannot be verified by an independent authority, external audits can nonetheless provide reasonable assurance about

the governance and discharge of the financial management responsibility by the organisation and that it represents value for money. It can also highlight any shortcomings for management action.

SUMMARY

The civil service is "a complex organization with a body of permanent officials appointed in a civil capacity to assist the political executives in the formulation, execution, and implementation of government policies in ministries, departments, and agencies within which specific government works are carried out. This excludes the Judiciary, Police, Armed forces, Local Government Services, research institutions and Universities. The officials whose remunerations are paid wholly out of monies voted and approved by the national assembly are called civil servants. The civil service which possesses a status of neutrality among other public service organizations Public service reform is expected to re-engineer and streamline government machinery, so that a significant quantity, quality, and cost effectiveness of public service can be achieved. The efforts of various reforms although their focus might differ were geared towards enhancing efficiency of the public service. This chapter Explored the Nigeria Civil Service and its various reforms over the years. A call for effective management of the Civil Service was also examined together with Values and Ethics in Government Businesses. The chapter was concluded by investigating the Reasons for the Inefficiency in the System and examination of the concept of Public Financial Administration

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Which means of influencing public policy is generally seen as ineffective by interest groups and those who analyse them?
   A. Lobbying a cabinet minister.
   B. Using the legal system.
   C. Lobbying Members of Parliament.
   D. Taking their case to the public.

2. A network of groups and individuals that seek major social and political change who act outside of established political institutions is commonly referred to as ……………..
   A. Old social movement.
   B. Policy community.
   C. Social movement.
3. Public interest group.
   During which part of the public policy cycle does the government explore potential policy responses?
   A. Agenda Setting.
   B. Policy Formulation.
   C. Policy Implementation.
   D. Decision Making.

4. When a relevant minister holds a news conference to announce the government's intent to introduce a new policy, this is known as …………………………….
   A. Decision-making.
   B. Policy Evaluation.
   C. Policy Implementation.
   D. Policy Change.

5. 'Efficiency record' method for determining the merit for promotion is practiced in………….
   A. the USA.
   B. France.
   C. the UK.
   D. Japan.

6. "Officials make work for each other." This is said by…………………………...
   A. Peter Drucker.
   B. Ramsay Muir.
   C. Parkinson.
   D. H. Finer.

7. 'Mandamus' is a writ issued by the Court………………………….…………
   A. asking a public official or any authority to perform legal duties.
   B. enquiring into the legality of claim of any person to public office.
   C. asking a person who has detained any other person, to appear before a court.

D. against any lower court not to do any act excess of their jurisdiction.

8. Impeachment proceedings against the President for violation of the Constitution can be initiated in………………………………………….
    A. the political party.
    B. the elder's council.
    C. house of Assembly.
    D. the supreme court.

9. Which of the following policies provides a tax refund on all or part of a poor family's social security tax?
    A. Temporary Assistance to Needy Families.
    B. Earned Income Tax Credit.
    C. Food stamps.
    D. Supplemental Security Income.

10. The National Environmental Policy Act required all federal agencies to conduct a(n) Environmental………………………….. prior to taking any major action.
    A. Means-testing
    B. Cost-benefit analysis
    C. impact statement
    D. Tax assessment

11. In Nigeria, the practice of making appointments in public services on the basis of political affiliation and personal relationship is known as:
    A. Party Privilege
    B. Spoils System
    C. Fitness Principle
    D. Discretion System

12. The British concept of Civil Service neutrality is laid down by …………… Committee.
    A. Fulton
    B. Assheton
    C. Masterman
    D. North Cote-Trevelyn

13. If a public servant imposes upon the citizens duties and obligations which are not required by law, this can lead to ………………………………………..
    A. error of law.
    B. abuse of power.
    C. error of authority.
    D. error of fact finding.

14. The civil service was defined as ''professional body of officials, permanent, paid, and skilled'' by ………………………………………….
    A. Herman Finer.

B. O. G Stahl.
C. Felix Nigro.
D. E. N Gladden.

15. Which country started civil service competition first?
   A. USA.
   B. British India.
   C. China.
   D. Germany.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the objectives of the civil service?

2. Discuss the main characteristics of the civil service.

3. Highlight the ministries listed under the federal ministry.

4. Discuss the salient features of Dotun Phillips Commission of 1988.

5. What is reform? Highlight the underlying principles of reform.

6. Explain the Policy Making Process in the Civil Service

7. What are the Characteristics of the Nigerian Civil Service

8. Briefly illustrate the functioning of the Nigerian Civil Service Commission

9. Explain the operation of the Personnel Management Board

10. With respect to the Nigerian Civil Service, concisely explain the process of Recruitments, Training and Development, Promotion and Discipline.

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CHAPTER SIX

PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

6.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to:

- understand the roles and management of public corporations and enterprises.

- differentiate between public corporations and public enterprises

- understand the various Administrative Enquiries and Tribunals

6.2   INTRODUCTION

Public enterprise refers to an organization that is set up as a corporate body and as part of the governmental apparatus for entrepreneurial or entrepreneurial-like objectives. Public enterprises are organizations which emerged as a result of government acting in the capacity of an entrepreneur (Obikeze & Anthony, 2004, 248). Public Enterprise (also known as public corporation) as defined by Dimock and Dimock (1970, 69), is a publicly owned enterprise that has been chartered under federal, state, or local government law for a particular business or financial purpose. According to Pfiffner (1964, 40), it is a corporation is a body framed for the purpose of enabling a number of persons to act as single person.

6.3   PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

Public enterprises essentially have the features of several individuals who act as one. The enterprise thus is viewed as an artificial person who is authorized by law to carry on particular activities and functions. It is described as a corporate body created by the legislature with defined powers and functions and independently having a clear-cut jurisdiction over a specified area or over a particular type of commercial activity (Ekhator, 2002,167). Public enterprise is part of government apparatus, and three implications are hereby highlighted. First, a public enterprise, by virtue of its intricate relationship with government, is an instrument of public policy and its primary mission is in connection with governmental objectives and programmes. It is therefore naturally under governmental control. Second, a public enterprise, by its nature, mostly manages public resources, especially public money and this means that attention must be paid to mechanisms for enforcing accountability. Third, the combination of financial and economic objectives with social

and political aims invariably makes it difficult to devise appropriate performance measurement instrument (Obikeze & Anthony, 2004, 248-249).

6.3.1   Origin of Public Enterprises

The origin of public enterprises could be traced to early twentieth century when government intervened in economic management through departmental organizations. This intervention did not involve the creation of autonomous public bodies. In the alternative, it granted license to a private enterprise for the management of natural or national monopolies and where public bodies were involved in managing economic ventures, such bodies did not enjoy financial autonomy. Public enterprises made a very strong appearance after World War I for a variety of reasons, including managing the consequences of the war, especially the economic crisis of the 1930s. However, public enterprises sector developed rapidly because of the spread of Keynesian Interventionist. Between the two World Wars, political and ideological consideration prompted the establishment of parastatals in the former colonial metropolis.

The movement toward the establishment of public enterprises received a new impetus after World War II for reasons related to both ideological considerations and economic efficiency. Economic nationalism and the success of the Soviet Revolution paved the way for nationalization and strong state intervention in national economic management. When the former European colonies in Africa became independent in the late 1950s and the 1960s, there were only a few public enterprises in different countries. The public enterprises sector then developed at a tremendous pace in the immediate years after independence through the 1980s and a huge public enterprise sector was firmly established in most countries.

The weakness of the private sector, the lack of infrastructure, the low level of social and human development, and the unfavorable social, economic and financial environment are some of the reasons given to explain the proliferation of public enterprises in all areas of economic and social development. Other reasons include the urge to generate revenue to limit foreign economic domination, and to provide a substitute for private initiative where it was not forthcoming.

Public enterprises in Nigeria date back to the colonial era when colonial government established some public enterprises to provide essential services like electricity, railway, and water. The post independent era marked a watershed in the growth and spread of public corporations. At Independence in 1960, Nigeria had 50 public enterprises, 200 in the 1970s and 1,500 in 1987 when government embarked upon economic reform programmes. The factors that account for the phenomenal increase include: the evolution of the federal administrative structures (from four units in 1950s to twelve in 1967, nineteen in 1976, twenty-one in 1987, thirty in 1991 and thirty-six in 1996), the oil boom, and successive governments commitment to making public enterprises an instrument of state economic intervention in the 1970s (Adamolekun, 2002, 33).

6.3.2 Characteristics of Public Enterprises

The main characteristics of public enterprises are:

i.   A public enterprise comes into existence as a result of an Act passed by the legislature or a decree under military rule. Public enterprise also defines its aims and objectives, powers and duties, immunities, the form of management and relationship with established departments and ministries.

ii.   It is a legal person, capable of suing and being sued, entering into contracts, acquiring and owing property in its own name and can also dispose of property than ordinary government departments.

iii. It is wholly owned by the state.

iv.   Except for appropriations to produce capital or to cover losses, a public enterprise is usually independently financed. It obtains its funds from the treasury or the public and from revenues derived from the sale of goods and services. It is authorized to use and reuse its revenues.

v.   It is generally exempted from most regulatory and prohibitory statutes applicable to expenditure of public funds. There are no hard and fast rules behind them in the matter of making contracts of buying and selling works, etc. Thus, a great deal of liability and discretion is left for the management in the matter of procedure.

vi.   It is ordinarily not subject to the budget, account and audit laws and procedures applicable to government departments. Their audit is to be done by the Accountant-General of Nigeria

or any other person appointed by him. However, both the accounts and audit are commercial in nature.

vii. Excluding the offices taken from government departments on deputation, the employees of public corporations are not civil servants and are not governed by government regulations in respect of conditions of service. The recruitment is not subject to civil service rules, promotion is by seniority and personnel can be fired easily if they are incompetent.

viii. Corporations are free from the control of the legislature

6.3.3 Classification of Public Enterprises

Public enterprises are classified into three; namely public/statutory corporations, state-owned companies, and mixed economy enterprises. These are explained below:

i. **Public/Statutory Corporations**

These are enterprises, which arise when the government assumes responsibility for the management of an economic or social pursuit through a special entity that has its own legal personality and still keeps some of the special prerogatives or privileges associated with a governmental organization. The blend of these features is aimed at enabling the organization to function effectively as an autonomous body while it remains an instrument of government policy. Enterprises that fall under statutory corporations include Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Nigerian Television Authority (NTA), and Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN) among others.

ii. **State Owned Companies**

These are companies created by government under the provisions of ordinary company law, though they belong entirely to the government. They are registered in the registry of companies, with the government as the sole proprietor. Government, therefore, appoints the Board of Directors as is customary in private companies. Example of such companies includes New Nigeria Newspaper Ltd, New Nigeria Development Company Ltd., and Oódua Investment Company Ltd.

iii. **Mixed-Economy Enterprises**

These are enterprises where the government is the majority shareholder in a partnership with private entrepreneurs. In such companies, government usually dominates the board

since it is the major shareholder. One example of such enterprises is Peugeot Automobile Nigeria Ltd. (PAN)

6.3.4 Differences between Public Corporations and PublicEnterprises

From the foregoing it can be conveniently deduced that Public Corporations is a form and class of Public Enterprises. Hence, both terms are sometimes used synonymously.

6.3.5 Reasons for Establishment of Public Corporations and Enterprises

Government intervention of a positive kind in the ownership, operation and regulation of public enterprises and public utility services has today become all-comprehensive and varied. These undertakings have served as a powerful instrument for achieving social and economic development. Without basic infrastructural facilities like roads, dams, railways, energy and means of communication, economic growth would not have been possible. These activities are not undertaken by the private sectors as its sole concern is profit motive. The growth of public enterprises is influenced by various factors like needs of the nation, defence considerations, political and social philosophy, and the state of economic development. In Nigeria, the following reasons justify government participation in economic activities.

i. **Need for Sound Industrial Base:** Nigeria was economically backward during the colonial rule. After independence in 1960, the task of its economic reconstruction was vast. Huge capital investment was required to build dams, provide infrastructure for industrial growth, and provide public utility services to the people; that could be done by the government only.

ii. **Modern Economy is a Planned Economy:** It is believed that the success of a planned economy depends on the growth of public enterprises. Planning is of particular significance for Nigeria where a lot has to be achieved with limited resources and within a limited time. Modern economy has to be a planned economy; the national responsibility of planning is something which cannot be discharged by any authority other than the government. According to A.H. Hanson, "Public enterprise without a plan can achieve something; a plan without public enterprise is likely to remain on paper."

iii. **Balanced Growth:** Since the private sector does not take any interest in the establishment of industrial base including development of key and basic industries and since it has no

social interest in promoting balanced regional development (It sets up industry only in such areas where it is profitable to do so), the government has to take up the task of nation-building and ensure balanced regional growth of the country by providing infrastructure and facilities in the backward regions.

iv.   **Commitment to Socialist Society:** The government is committed to build up a secular socialist society in Nigeria and therefore it is increasingly compelled to enter directly into industrial and commercial activities.

v.   **Need for Funds:** The government needs funds for its diverse welfare activities. By active participation in business, the state can get money in the form of profits which may be used by it to discharge the new and heavier burdens of a welfare state.

vi.   **Socio-Politico-Factors:** A government committed to certain social and political philosophy may well decide to intervene in the economic activity. The political philosophy of socialism may lead a country to nationalize certain enterprises such as the banks, air transport and coal mines. The social purposes may include development of weaker sections of society, development of backward areas and child and women welfare. In a survey undertaken by the United Nations, it was found that the factors determining a government's attitude towards public enterprises are in part ideological and in part pragmatism.

6.4   ROLES OF PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND ENTERPRISES

There are many reasons for the establishment of public enterprises. They include:

i.   Flexibility and Operational Autonomy: Public corporations are established to enable them to adopt business-like approach to decision making.

ii.   Foreign Competition: To check foreign businesses and encourage indigenous talents, government decides to establish corporations which have the skilled manpower, finance, and management, to compete effectively with the giant foreign monopolies (companies).

iii.   Heavy Capital Requirement: The provision of certain essential services like water, electricity, telecommunications facilities, housing, ports and harbours, railways, etc., require heavy initial capital investment, so that both local and foreign investors are discouraged from providing them.

iv.   Public Interest: Public corporations may be set up for reasons of public interests, especially for welfare services, e.g., water, electricity, radio, television, etc.

v. National Security: Services concerned with national security and economic survival e.g., coal, iron and steel, central bank etc., are best provided through public ownership. National security may be in jeopardy and a nation may be blackmailed if such strategic services are left to private initiative.

vi. Stabilization of Producers' Incomes and Development: Marketing boards were established in West Africa during the colonial era for the purpose of stabilizing the supply and prices of agricultural products. Such stabilization policy helps to remove price fluctuations and ensure a steady income for farmers. It is generally believed that the more direct control government has on the economy, the easier it is to influence socio-economic development. Other reasons include the;

vii. desire to use the public enterprise as an instrument of effective plan implementation in a context where it appears a futile devise; a development plan for the private sector.

viii. need to secure economic independence.

ix. urgent desire to assure government control over "strategic'' sectors of the economy, e.g., the Central Bank.

x. need to separate some activities from the civil service and allow more autonomy in their running.

xi. perceived need to provide employment for the citizens in context where the private sector offers very lucrative employment opportunities.

xii. need to ensure state control of key profitable enterprises with a view to generating revenues that will add to available national capital for financing development programmes and projects.

xiii. desire of some socialist-oriented regimes to use sate control of key profitable enterprises to pursue the objectives of preventing the concentration of wealth or of the means of production and exchange in the hands of few individuals or of a group, i.e., promoting equitable distribution of wealth.

6.5   PROBLEMS OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

General Problems

The fundamental problems of public enterprises are the defective capital structures, excessive bureaucratic control or intervention, inappropriate technology, gross incompetence,

mismanagement, corruption and crippling complacency which monopoly engenders. Public enterprises equally serve as platforms for patronage and promotion of political objectives and therefore, even when their managements have the will and the capability to work honestly, they will still suffer from operational interference by political appointees. Furthermore, most of the leadership of public enterprises in Nigeria is corrupt and they feel only accountable to the political office holders who got them their jobs instead of serving public interest.

Incompetent Management

It is mandatory for the management of every organization to carry out it organizational objectives. Hence, it is expected that the management would have the technical or managerial competence to do their duties. But in most of Nigeria's public enterprises, the management teams are not appointed on merit, rather appointments are considered on political connections or primordial reasons. Consequently, the appointees lack the necessary skills, expertise or experience, and the management may end up mismanaging the enterprises. Similarly, board members of public enterprises may not possess any requisite skills to perform their functions because they are politicians who are usually compensated for their political patronage or contribution. The Max Weber's assertion that candidates for position in organizations must be selected on the basis of technical qualifications is not adhered to in appointing both management and board members. This also results into recruitment and selection being based on emotive, primordial, and purely sentimental reasons. The effect of incompetent staff is gross inefficiency in their operations. Moreover, political instability and lack of continuity of developmental programmes affect public enterprises in Nigeria.

Government Interference

With the limited autonomy granted public enterprises, they are expected to be free from the day to day bureaucratic bottleneck of the mainstream civil service and government. In reality, however, political office holders regard public enterprises as their "property" and frequently interfere in their affairs. Ministers and/or commissioners who are managers of ministries of public enterprises interfere in issues normally within the jurisdiction of the board or management of political or personal reasons. Consequently, their interference could lead to distortion of policies, corruption, and overstaffing of public enterprises which often accounts for their inefficiency.

Monopoly

Most public enterprises operate as monopolies and are therefore faced with the same problems which afflict monopolies. Since monopolies do not have competitors, they don't take the challenge to either innovate or offer better services seriously. This is because they know that their customers have no alternative. Competitive market promotes efficiency since there are always options to choose from.

Conflict of Objectives

While public enterprises are established to provide essential services as a public utility, they are also expected to make profit as a business outfit. These twin objectives are contradictory and have been the main reason for non-performance of public enterprises. For example, despite political interference from government at the expense of economic rationality, public enterprises are still expected to make profits. Economic and political rationalities are hardly compatible.

6.6 MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND ENTERPRISES

The management and control of public corporations and Enterprises are necessary in order to have effective and efficient public enterprises. The management of public corporations is done through the management boards and the policy board.

i. **The Executive Board** In the executive board, majority of the board are staff of the organisation. They are usually the heads of the various departments of the organization. However, a few outside representatives are brought to be in charge of some outside interest.

ii. **The Policy Board** Majority of the members of the policy board are from outside the organization with few members from within the organization. The policy board is responsible for managing all the policy decisions of the organization, but the implementation of policies and the day-to-day operation of the organization are carried out by the Managing Director. This method is applied to most public corporations in Nigeria.

6.7 CONTROL OF PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND ENTERPRISES

Public enterprises being owned by government, either wholly or partially, are subject to some control. The two main forms of control are ministerial control and parliamentary control:

i. Ministerial Control: Ministerial control of public enterprises takes various forms: firstly, a PE must inform its supervising ministry, and obtain its permission before it makes any

major changes, and embarks on any new important lines of operation, especially, where such major changes affect the public interest. For example, a public corporation, such as the Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), must obtain clearance from its controlling ministry before it takes any major decision on almost all the major areas of its operation. Examples are personnel issues, increases in electricity bills, introduction of new products into the markets, construction or purchase of important technical installation, etc. The second form of ministerial control is in the appointment of board members. The President is politically responsible for the appointment of the board and can dissolve it if he is not satisfied with their performance.

Usually, the controlling ministry has a representative in the board whose role is to explain government position on important issues and ensures that the corporation's affairs are managed along public service rules and other conditions of service of the public enterprise. Each ministry, at the end of the year, prepares an annual report which it submits to the government through its supervising ministry. The ministry after studying the reports asks questions where necessary, before submitting the report to the government with its own comments. The minister also appoints auditors to audit the account of public enterprises and intervenes whenever there is a crisis, like employees of a public enterprises embarking on riots or strikes or destruction of public property.

ii. Parliamentary Control/National Assembly: Apart from ministerial control, public enterprises are ultimately accountable to the National Assembly through their ministers, who are the political heads of the specific government ministries and oversee public enterprises. Parliamentary committees maintain oversight functions over the public enterprises. Parliamentary control takes the following forms.

  a. Control through annual report- A public enterprise usually submits a comprehensive annual report of its activities to the parliament through the Minister.

  b. Control through annual account- A public enterprise usually submits its annual account for a given financial year to the parliament. Such annual account and report are subject to debate in the Parliament.

c. The Financial Committee of the House may summon the Minister whose ministry supervises a particular public enterprise to explain or discuss issues concerning his/her corporation.

iii. Judicial Control: Many public enterprises in Nigeria have, at one time or the other, been subjected to judicial control by the government. From time to time, a government sets up a commission of inquiry into the affairs of one or other of its public corporation. This action is prompted by public or employee outcry about corruption, mismanagement or incompetence in the company/organization.

6.8   ADMINISTRATIVE ENQUIRIES AND TRIBUNALS

6.8.1   Administrative Tribunal

A Tribunal is an administrative body which has the force of law and which is set up to investigate and adjudicate in disputes referred to it.   In the process it may make claims where necessary while recommending solutions to solving the problems.   In adjudication, members of an administrative body make judicial decisions by applying the law to the facts of the dispute.   Its operation is less formal than the court system. The difference between the court system and the administrative tribunal (a quasi-judicial organ) is that in the judicial system, there is a nag for details following rules of evidence where no discretion is allowed. In the tribunal system, members are allowed some form of discretion as long as it will not compromise the fairness and impartiality that is required of the process. A tribunal therefore, is the administrative body set up   with definite terms of reference which possesses the attribute of a court of law in its bid to consider evidence in order to settle the disputes referred to it. It applies legal rules laid down by statute to the facts in issue presented to it for adjudication.

6.8.2   Tribunals of Inquiry

Egwummuo (2000) defines inquiries as, "investigation into matters concerning government policy and administration or allegations of impropriety or negligence in public life, with a view to finding out facts in relation thereto, for the purpose of determining the appropriate policy that would be adopted by the appropriate authority" (p. 283). In specific terms, it is generally believed that there is no main difference between an administrative tribunal and tribunals of inquiry. They are both constituted by government whose power to do so is derived from the Tribunals and Inquiries Act

of 1960 and the relevant laws of the different states. An apparent difference if any is in their functions. For example, an administrative tribunal which operates like the court system applies the relevant law to the facts in dispute and decides as a court would do without reference to either the authority that set it up or any other extraneous body.

In the case of Alakija v. Medical Disciplinary Committee (1959)4 F.S.C.38, the administrative tribunal decided that if it is a court of law without reference or recommendations to any head of state, governor, minister or commissioner. But in a typical tribunal of inquiry, the tribunal entertains evidence and examines the facts but makes the final recommendation to another party which may be either the Head of State/President, governor or Minister as the case may be, who will act on all the findings and recommendations or set some aside as he deems fit. An example is the Udoji commission of 1973 in which government accepted many of the recommendations and set aside some.

6.9   PROBES AND COMMISSIONS OF INQUIRY INTO PUBLIC ENTERPRISES IN NIGERIA

The performances of public corporations are dismal in nature. Instead of improving their services most of them seemed to be retrogressing and became drain pipes on the economy without making any meaningful contribution to the nation's economic development through service delivery. Virtually all public corporations in Nigeria render epileptic and unsatisfactory service to the people.

Due to problems faced by public enterprises in Nigeria in the recent past, which included corruption, inefficiency and poor management, the Nigerian government attempted to solve these problems by taking certain steps. A commission was set up under Michael Ani to look into the problems of public corporations and make appropriate recommendations. The Ani Commission had recommended that the responsibility for personnel matters be removed from the boards and entrusted to an independent body to be called the Statutory Corporation Service Commission (SCSC). The recommendation was implemented at both the federal and state levels. However, after its review in the early 1970s, the Udoji Commission recommended that it should be abolished. The government accepted the recommendation and SCSC was eventually abolished. The second

option to solve the problem of public corporations in the Nigeria by the government was to invite foreign management consultants to manage some of them. In 1979, the federal government brought into the country some experts to manage public corporations. A two-year management services agreement was signed between the federal government and Rail India Technical and Economic Services Corporation (RITES) for the management of Nigerian Railways Corporation. Another agreement was signed with the Metallurgical Engineering Consultants of India (MECON) to manage the Nigerian Steel Authority. The government later terminated these agreements and reverted to the previous methods of management.

SUMMARY

Public corporations are owned by government, owned, and managed by the state to run certain public enterprises of a specialized nature requiring business-like administration. Public Corporations are established by acts of parliament which define their powers, functions, structure, and relationship with other government institutions. They have legal personality, can sue, and can be sued and can enter into negotiations, sign contracts, and acquire property on their own or on behalf of government. This chapter examined the concepts, and differences between Public Corporations and Public Enterprises. It also analyzed the problems in the effective management of these entities. Conclusively, the operation of Administrative Tribunals, Tribunals of Inquiries, Probes and Commissions of Inquiry into Public Enterprises in Nigeria were discussed

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Public corporation is the innovation of 20th century. The basic features are:
    A. Public corporation is a corporation by courtesy.
    B. It is created for particular purpose.
    C. It is the result of Government's entry into business.
    D. It has virtue of business management.

2. Public corporations have been created with the objective of:
    A. Increased profits.
    B. Handling large scale projects.
    C. Creating various job opportunities.
    D. Operational flexibility and autonomy.

3. The Public Corporation is………………………………………
    A. accountable to finance ministry only.
    B. partially accountable to parliament.
    C. not accountable to parliament.
    D. accountable to parliament.

4. The public sector enterprises are owned, managed, and controlled by the ………………
    A. Government.
    B. Individuals.
    C. Foreigners.
    D. Investors.

5. The Industrial Policy Resolution took place in the year:
    A. 1991.
    B. 1947.
    C. 1956.
    D. 1963.

6. There are …………………. forms of public sector enterprises.
    A. 3
    B. 4
    C. 7
    D. 5

7. The oldest and most traditional form of organising public sector enterprises is:
    A. Statutory corporation
    B. Departmental undertaking
    C. Government companies
    D. Both B and C

8. Departmental undertakings act through the ………………………. of the government.

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A. Officers.
B. Employees.
C. Agents.
D. People.

9. Departmental undertakings are considered as a part or an extension of its ……………
    A. Holding company.
    B. Ministry.
    C. State government.
    D. Municipal corporation.

10. Which one of the following is not a limitation of the departmental undertakings?
    A. Failure to provide flexibility.
    B. Employees are not allowed to take independent decisions.
    C. They are unable to take advantage of business opportunities.
    D. Government is the only shareholder.

11. Public enterprises that are brought into existence by an Act of the Parliament are called
    …………….
    A. Departmental undertakings.
    B. Statutory corporations.
    C. Government companies.
    D. Joint ventures,

12. Which of the following is a merit of a Statutory Corporation?
    A. It has a separate legal entity, apart from the Government.
    B. They are able to control the market and curb unhealthy business practices.
    C. They enjoy independence in their functioning and a high degree of operational flexibility.
    D. The revenue earned by the enterprise goes directly to the treasury of its ministry.

13. The main document of a Government Company is:
    A. Memorandum of Association
    B. Articles of Association
    C. Prospectus
    D. Both A and B

14. If a public sector was making losses continuously, it would be referred to the …………..
    for complete overhauling or shut down:
    A. Board for Industrial and Financial Reconstruction
    B. Central Bank of Nigeria
    C. Private sector
    D. Government

15. Which among these is not a role of the public sector?
    A. Economies of scale.

B. Development of infrastructure.
C. Import substitution.
D. Encouraging privatisation.

16. What is the meaning of check over concentration of economic power as a changing role of Public Sector Units?
    A. It means that the Government had to invest in huge enterprises because if private sectors were made to do so then there would be concentration of wealth and economic power in the hands of such private enterprises.
    B. Government had to do so, so that monopolistic practices by the private sector is discouraged.
    C. It gave rise to equality in income of the people.
    D. All of these.

17. What does disinvestment of public sector undertaking means?
    A. Sale of equity shares to the private sector.
    B. Sale of equity shares to the public.
    C. Both A and B.
    D. None of the above.

18. Full form of MNC is:
    A. More National Corporations.
    B. Mining National Corporation.
    C. Multi National Corporation.
    D. Multi New Corporations.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the reasons for establishing public corporations?

2. Examine the major characteristics of Public Corporations.

3. Mention the reasons for establishing Public Corporations

4. Briefly trace the origin of Public Enterprises

5. Explain in detail, the characteristics of Public Enterprises

6. Provide a logical classification of Public Enterprises

7. Suggest of ways of improving the management of Public Corporations and Enterprises in Nigeria

8. Are Public Corporations and Enterprises well managed in Nigeria? Discuss.

9. Explain the roles and functions of Administrative Enquiries and Tribunals.

10. How can the problems of Public Enterprises be completely solved in Nigeria?

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CHAPTER SEVEN

ACCOUNTING SYSTEM AND METHODS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

7.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand the:

- concept of Public Administration Accounting and Information & Communication Technology
- objectives of Electronic payment
- operation of Treasury Single Account (TSA) system
- workability of Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS)
- operation of Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS)
- various basic concepts of Budgeting

7.2   INTRODUCTION

Public sector accounting is the system of accounting that involves recording and maintenance of books of accounts by the government authorities on their financial performance. There are three categories of organizations normally working in any environment: public, private and non-profit concerns. Each of these organizations is working on a different motive, for instance, private sector organizations run for making more profit for their long-existence, public organizations or governments work for socioeconomic sustainable development of the country, whereas NGOs are for rendering the services to the society at large. If this is the reality, it is clear that the financial transactions of each of these organizations are different from each other.

So, it is not possible to record their transactions as per single accounting standards. Hence, it is necessary to have different accounting systems and methods applicable to these organizations individually. Government accounts must be available to the public in a transparent manner. To ensure this, it is necessary to have acceptable systems, modes and methods which are applicable to the public sector to account for their financial transactions on a transparent basis involving the use of electronic payment modes, Treasury Single Account (TSA), Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS), Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS), effective budgeting etc.

7.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION ACCOUNTING INFORMATION & COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

The contemporary evolution of accounting has led to the development of an I.T system that supports the harmonization of relations between citizens and public authorities, while respecting the fundamental right of citizens to access public information. The implementation of information and communication technologies means improving the quality of public services, allowing citizens easier access to these services, and making the activities of public authorities more efficient and transparent. The aim of digital governance and digitalized system of processing accounting information in the public sector is to contribute to efficiency gains, cost savings in the Nigerian public sector by modernizing, digitizing public administration, providing access to ICT equipment, facilitating social inclusion, increasing digital literacy, and improving digital skills. This is evidenced by the ATRRS and other ICT modes discussed below.

7.4 AUTOMATED ACCOUNTING TRANSACTION RECORDING AND REPORTING SYSTEM (ATRRS)

It is an ICT based accounting software application, which facilitates the input of accounting transactions, reconciliations and generation of standard accounting reports that meet the required standard of the Treasury. The Treasury (OAGF) develops the software. It provides a leverage solution to automate the manual recording of the accounting transactions in the Line Ministries, Agencies and Parastatals of government. Its introduction helps in prompt rendition of financial and accounting returns; accurate presentation of financial reports; enhanced capacity to generate complex analytical reports; enhanced ability to cope with large volume of transactions; automatic mode of processing transactions; and ability to eventually operate on-line real time processing. With this package, solution is provided to most of the challenges posed by the manual accounting processes.

7.4.1 Benefits of the ATRRS Accounting software

i.   Familiarizes the workforce with the use of IT equipment at an early stage of Government integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS) implementation, which would enable a smoother transition to the GIFMIS software.

ii. Potentially reduces training period and requirement for GIFMIS.

iii.   Potentially reduces GIFMIS implementation costs.

iv.   Shortens Business Process re-engineering period (i.e., it is faster to transit from a semi-automated process than a manual process.

v.   Facilitates ease of reconciliation of the various bank accounts.

vi.   Ensures that clean and accurate data will be available for migration into GIFMIS.

7.5 ELECTRONIC PAYMENT

E-payment is any kind of non-cash payment that does not involve a paper check. Method of electronic payments includes credit cards, debit cards and the Authorized cleaning house (ACH) network. The e-payment as a concept is a subset of e-governance which is the application of electronic means in the interaction between government and citizens as well as government and businesses. It is a form of direct payments and banking without physical appearance at the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA) or bank through the means of electronic, interactive communication channels and other technology infrastructure. E-payment can be described as the method of effecting payments from one end to another through the medium of computer without manual intervention beyond inputting the payment data.

7.5.1 Benefits of Electronic Payment

i.   It is very convenient for the consumer in most cases, you only need to enter your account information such as your credit card number.

ii.   Faster, completing a transaction is as Single as clicking your mouse, with your username and password.

iii.   Lowers costs for businesses. The more payments they can process electronically, the less they spend on paper and postage.

iv.   It improves customer retention, so therefore, the business has the tendency to expand

7.5.2 Challenges of Electronic payment

The challenges of electronic payment are stated below, according to a former CBN Governor, Mr. Godwin Emefiele who made the disclosure as a keynote at the 8th Annual Conference of the Chartered Institute of bankers of Nigeria in Abuja in 2022.

i.   Lack of unique identifier for customers across institutions and high operation cost.

ii.   Fraud

iii.   There are limited numbers of people online

iv.   No one wants to take responsibility of any mishap in the house.

v.   People are not trusted with online business.

7.6   TREASURY SINGLE ACCOUNT (TSA)

TSA is bank account or a set of linked accounts through which the federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) transacts all its receipts and payments. TSA is part of the Public Financial Management (PFM) reforms initiatives under the Economics Reforms and Governance project (ERGP). TSA is domiciled at the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) as a banker for government. All payments out of TSA are made through Commercial banks where the respective beneficiaries maintain their accounts.

In addition, all revenue collection services are being rendered by commercial banks. The banks also ensure real-time remittance into the Treasury Single Account.

The following are the notables of TSA in Nigeria:

➢ The Treasury Single Account (TSA) is part of the Public Financial Management (PFM) Reforms approved in 2004.

➢ The TSA is a bank account or set of linked accounts through which government transacts financial operations.

➢ It is a unified structure that gives consolidated view of government cash resources with a view to strengthening effective budget implementation, check idle cash balances, make planning easy and allow for effective decision making.

7.6.1   Key Principles of TSA

i.   That the government banking arrangement should be unified to enable treasury inverse cash flows in and out of the bank account.

ii.   To promote a consolidated views of government cash resources and position at any point in time and allow for common use by MDAs according to warrant amounts.

iii.   That the TSA should have comprehensive coverage, which should ideally include cash balances of all government entities, both budgetary and extra-budgetary, to ensure full view of government cash resources.

iv.   That no government agency should operate bank account outside the authority of the treasury.

7.6.2   Objectives of TSA

The cardinal objective of TSA is to facilitate the implementation of an effective cash flow policy with a view to:

i.   Ensuring that sufficient cash is available as and when needed to meet payment commitments.

ii.   Controlling the aggregate of cash flows within fiscal, monetary, and legal limits.

iii.   Improving the management of government's domestic borrowing programmes.

iv.   Enhancing operating efficiency through the provision of high-quality services at minimal costs.

v.   Investing of excess or idle cash

vi.   Ensuring greater accountability in public expenditure.

7.6.3   Reasons for the Introduction of TSA

i.   Inability of government to determine cash position at any point in time.

ii.   Unlimited commercial bank accounts maintained by MDA.

iii.   Growing domestic debt and borrowing not aligned to need.

iv.   Idle Cash balances/unspent balances in MDA accounts.

v.   Excessive use of Ways and Means in financing budget expenditure.

vi.   Inability to undertake effective cash planning and management as required by the Fiscal Responsibility Act.

vii.   No reliable basis to prepare Warrants to MDA, delays in budget execution and perennial existence of unspent balances by the year end. Warrants/AIEs releases were not based on cash plan.

viii.   Over ₦100 billion lost in failed commercial banks.

7.6.4   Benefits of TSA

i.   Helps the government to unify banking arrangements.

ii.   Assists the government in the efficient utilization of government funds for approved projects.

iii.   Promotes transparency and accountability in government operations.

iv.   Reduces the amount, and cost of government borrowing by maximizing the use of available government resources to deliver projects.

v.   Ensures centralized control over revenue through effective cash management.

vi.   Enhances accountability and enables government to know how much is accruing to it on a daily basis.

vii.   Reduces fiscal criminality and help tame the tide of corruption.

7.6.5   Components of TSA

i.   **E-Payment:** This is a direct payment through electronic transfer to an individual or an organisation using the medium of information and

ii.   **E- Collection:** This is a comprehensive electronic solution for the remittance, management and reporting of all Federal Government receipts (revenues, donations, transfers, refunds, grants, fees, taxes, duties, tariffs, etc.) into the TSA and sub-accounts maintained and operated at the CBN.

7.6.6   Challenges in TSA Operation

i.   Some MDA still maintains and operates Commercial Bank Accounts.

ii.   Incessant transfer of funds from TSA to Commercial Bank Accounts in the Name of counterpart Funding/Associated Project by (MDA) Ministries, department and agencies.

iii.   It is difficult to monitor tax revenue aspects in the MDAs transaction under TSA platform.

iv.   'Queue management" inability of the current platform to effect real time payment, a lot of transactions pending at time.

v.   Resistance by some MDAs to join the TSA operation.

vi.   Lack of well-trained manpower.

vii.   Lack of legislation.

7.7   GOVERNMENT INTEGRATED FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM (GIFMIS)

GIFMIS is a subcomponent of the ERGP (Economic Reform and Governance Project) which will support the public resource management and targets anti-corruption initiatives through

modernizing fiscal processes using better methods, techniques, and information technology. The Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS) is an IT based system for budget management and accounting that is being implemented by the Federal Government of Nigeria to improve Public Expenditure Management processes, enhance greater accountability and transparency across Ministries and Agencies.

GIFMIS is designed to make use of modern information and communication technologies to help the Government of Nigeria to plan and use its financial resources more efficiently and effectively. The Government recognizes, nevertheless that additional challenges remain, and that public expenditure management needs to be further strengthened to:

i. build an integrated budget based on programs that are clearly linked to key developmental objectives.

ii. ensure greater accountability from budget holders.

iii. allow greater emphasis on budget outcomes and impact; and

iv. identify and address the remaining sources of leakage in budget execution in order to strengthen efficiency of public expenditure.

This will require, in addition to changes in policies and regulations, considerable modernization and automation of current budget and financial management and procurement practices.

7.7.1   Purpose of GIFMIS

The purpose of introducing GIFMIS is to assist the FGN in improving the management, performance, and outcomes of Public Financial Management (PFM). The immediate purpose of this project is to enable an executable budget, i.e., a budget that can be implemented as planned by addressing the critical public financial management weaknesses including:

i. Failure to enact the budget before the start of the financial year.

ii. Budget not based on realistic forecasts of cash availability.

iii. Lack of effective cash management – multiple bank accounts within Treasury and MDAs that make effective control impossible and when combined with lack of cash forecasting leads to inefficient and unplanned borrowings; and

iv. Lack of integration between different financial management functions and processes, e.g., budget is prepared in a way that makes it difficult to manage budget execution through the chart of accounts.

It must be underscored that, whereas GIFMIS is part of the solution to the above problems, it (GIFMIS) cannot be a driver of change to better public financial management, rather it is a tool to facilitate change. To this end, the introduction of GIFMIS will have to be combined with major changes in business processes. However, GIFMIS provides an opportunity to move to Treasury Single Account and to reduce the number of stages in transaction processing. In addition, it will provide better access to information, which can be used to improve fiscal and operational management. GIFMIS will also reduce fiduciary risk by enabling greater transparency and by reducing the opportunities for manual intervention in financial transactions.

7.7.2 Objectives of GIFMIS

The overall objective is to implement a computerized financial management information system for the FGN, which is efficient, effective, and user friendly and which will increase:

i. he ability of FGN to undertake central control and monitoring of expenditure and receipts in the MDAs.

ii. the ability to access information on financial and operational performance.

iii. internal controls to prevent and detect potential and actual fraud.

iv. he ability to access information on Government's cash position and economic performance.

v. Improvement in medium term planning through a Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF).

vi. the ability to understand the costs of groups of activities and tasks and

vii. the ability to demonstrate accountability and transparency to the public and cooperating partners.

7.7.3 Scope of GIFMIS

i. The GIFMIS will be used to support the government in all aspects of budget preparation, execution, and management of government financial resources.

ii. The system will cover all spending units financed from the government's budget and will process and manage all expenditure transactions (including interfaces) pertaining to these units.

iii. All steps in the expenditure cycle including, budget appropriations, financing limits, commitments, verification, and payment transactions will be recorded by and managed through the system.

In other words, the system will be a modern, efficient, and user-friendly facility, providing comprehensive information on all the financial affairs of the Government. This will act as a reliable basis for multi-year budgeting, annual budgeting, commitment control, payment control, financial and cash management and economic planning.

iv. The financial management functions of the GIFMIS covers the entire financial management cycle including:

   a. Budget preparation.

   b. Budget maintenance and management.

   c. Budget execution and treasury management.

   d. General ledger.

   e. Procurement, including commitments of purchase orders, maintenance of a central suppliers' registers and support for procurement.

   f. Receipting, accounts receivable and revenue management.

   g. Payments and accounts payable.

   h. Inventory and stock control.

   i. Asset management.

   j. Budget execution reporting.

   k. Financial reporting.

   l. Project accounting; and

   m. Loans and advances.

7.8   INTEGRATED PERSONNEL AND PAYROLL INFORMATION SYSTEM (IPPIS)

IPPIS was conceived by the Federal Government (FGN) to improve the effectiveness and efficiency in the storage of personnel records and administration of monthly payroll in such a way as to enhance confidence in staff emolument costs and budgeting.

7.8.1 Objectives of IPPIS

The following are the objectives of IPPIS:

i. Facilitates planning: Having all the civil service records in a centralized data base will aid manpower planning as well as assist in providing information for decision-making.

ii. Aids Budgeting: An accurate recurrent expenditure budget on emolument could be planned and budgeted for on a yearly basis.

iii. Monitors the monthly payment of staff emolument against what was provided for.

iv. Ensures data base integrity so that personnel information is correct and intact.

v. Eliminates payroll fraud such as "ghost workers syndrome"; and

vi. Facilitates easy storage, updating and retrieval of personnel records for administrative and pension processes.

7.8.2 Functions of Components of IPPIS

The functions of the components of IPPIS are:

i. Data capture equipment with fingerprint scanners for biometric enrolment and camera for employee photographs. These allow each of the MDA to capture, update and process its personnel records.

ii. They allow all public servants from the MDAs to have their records and biometric data captured, verified, and stored in the centralized personnel database of IPPIS.

iii. They allow salaries to be paid directly into the bank accounts of public servants whose records exist in the IPPIS database; and

iv. They also allow third party agencies such as FIRS, SBIR, PENCOM and Cooperative Societies to also receive their payments directly.

7.8.3 Challenges of IPPIS

i. It takes time to correct errors in the system.

ii. Many names were omitted for payment.

iii. Delaying in correcting errors, sometime it may take six months.

iv. Salary delays in some of the ministries.

v. Lack of trained personnel to handle the volume of job.

vi. Not all bank accounts are recognized by the system.

vii.   Problems of hackers

7.9   BASIC CONCEPTS IN BUDGETING

Meaning of Budget

To analyze the meaning of government budget, it is first important to learn what the term "budget" denotes. The budget refers to an estimation of expense and revenue generated over a certain period. A budget is evaluated and compiled periodically. Budgets can be made for a person's income and expenses, as well as that for a business, a group of people, and most importantly, the government. The following is an analysis of the government budget definition, its components, and its structure.

7.9.1   Government Budget

Government budget refers to an annual financial statement that denotes its anticipated expenditure and expected revenue generation in a fiscal year. It is presented by the government in Lok Sabha at the beginning of every fiscal year, to give an estimate of its expenditure and receipts for the upcoming year. The term "Annual Financial Statement" of a nation is often used to define government budget.

Planning of Government Budget

A government plans its budget by gauging its foreseeable expenditure and planning to raise resources to meet these expenses. A country's government generates revenue primarily through tax collection, interest on loans provided to states, from fines and fees, alongside dividends collected from public sector enterprises.

In turn, government spends on:

i.   Security, defense, staff salaries
ii.   Providing goods and services to citizen.
iii.   Maintaining law and order

A budget is prepared by keeping these expenditures and revenue into consideration. The Nigerian constitution mandates this budget for an ensuing financial year to be presented before the Parliament. A financial year begins on January 1st and ends on December 31st of the same year.

7.9.2   Components of a Government Budget

Government budget and its components can be divided into two parts:

   i.   Capital budget.
  ii.   Revenue budget

Capital Budget: These refer to receipts that reduce assets for a government and create financial liabilities. Conversely, capital expenditure on a government's part helps to create assets and reduce liabilities. The capital budget, thus, is an account of these liabilities and assets under the government, which denote a change in total capital.

Revenue Budget: As its name suggests, the revenue budget refers to revenue receipts generated, and expenses met through this revenue. These receipts include both tax and non-tax revenue earned by a government.

7.9.3   Balanced and Unbalanced Budget

A govt. budget is an annual financial statement which outlines the estimated Govt. expenditure and expected Govt. receipts or revenues for the forthcoming fiscal year.   Depending on the feasibility of these estimates, Budgets are of two types: Balanced Budget and Unbalanced Budget.

Balanced Budget: Government Budget is said to be a balanced budget if estimated Govt. receipts are equal to the estimated Govt. expenditure.

Balanced Budget → Budget Receipts = Budget Expenditure.

Merits Balanced Budget

   i.   Balanced Budget, an ideal approach to achieve a balanced economy and maintain fiscal discipline.
  ii.   It does not indulge in wasteful expenditure.

Demerits Balanced Budget

i. Not applicable for a developing country like Nigeria or less developed countries. In such countries, the Government should have more expenditures (than revenue) which will raise aggregate demand.

ii. Restricts the Govt. from spending on public welfare.

iii. Cannot secure full employment.

iv. Not effective during war and emergency, e.g., during depression it cannot solve unemployment problem.

v. Cannot tackle inflation or deflation. Balanced Budget multiplier defined as the ratio of increase in income to increase in Government expenditure financed by taxes.

Unbalanced Budget

Government budget is said to be an unbalanced budget if Government receipts are not equal to expenditures of the Government. It is of two kinds:

a. **Surplus Budget**
   If estimated Government receipts are more than the estimated Govt. expenditure, then the budget is termed as 'Surplus Budget'. It lowers aggregate demand.
   Government expected revenue > Government proposed expenditure.

b. **Deficit Budget**
   If estimated Government receipts are less than the estimated Government expenditure, then the budget is termed as 'Deficit Budget'.
   Government's estimated Revenue < Government proposed Expenditure.
   Merits
   ➢ In underdeveloped countries deficit budget is used for financing planned development and in advanced countries it is used as stability tool to control business and economic functions.
   ➢ In developing countries like India, for promoting economic growth deficit budget is the only option.
   ➢ When there is too much inflation, the Govt. can adopt the policy of surplus budget as it will reduce aggregate demand.

- Deficit budget is a good policy to control recession when an economy is in an under-employment equilibrium level.

Demerits

- When receipts not equal to expenditure is a liability of the Govt.
- In modern times it is virtually impossible to have a Surplus Budget and Deficit Budget can encourage imprudent expenditures by the Government.
- Deficit Budget increases burden on the Government by accumulating debts. From the above discussion it follows that the Govt. should live within its means and annually balance its budget is the fiscal policy objective, but to promote economic growth and development, Govt. often adopts Unbalanced Budget (specially Deficit Budget) as a virtue.

7.9.4   Objectives of Government Budget

While rapid economic growth and social justice are primary goals of any policy undertaken by any government, a budget's general objectives are given below:

i. **Promoting Economic Growth**

Economic growth of a country refers to sustained growth in its GDP. The primary objective of the government budget is, thus, to boost GDP growth by promoting balanced economic development and improving people's standard of living. That is done by considering general public welfare.

ii. **Poverty Alleviation and Employment Generation**

Social welfare is the most crucial objective of setting a country's budget. This budget is set in a way to ensure that every Nigerian can meet basic requirements like housing, clothing, food, alongside basic education, and healthcare. Further, a budget is also set by keeping in consideration goals like eradication of poverty by generating employment.

iii. **Resource Reallocation**

Each year, the government allocates more resources to the socially productive sector where there is a shortage of private initiatives, like – providing electricity to rural areas, health, education, public sanitation, etc.

iv. **Reducing Inequality and Income Redistribution**

To reduce inequality in the country, the government can undertake measures like imposing taxes or granting subsidies. The government usually imposes taxes on the country's affluent to reduce their disposable income and undertakes schemes to aid the country's poor. The government also provides amenities and subsidies to those in need. Redistribution of income is another measure undertaken by the government to promote economic welfare.

v. **Income Redistribution:** Income redistribution means allocating income in a way to bridge the gap of income inequality and ensure that there is no concentration of wealth among a select few. To implement this, the government makes use of fiscal instruments like subsidies, taxation, public expenditure, etc.

7.10   NIGERIAN PENSION SCHEMES

A pension is a fund into which a sum of money is added during an employee's employment years, and from which payments are drawn to support the person's retirement from work in the form of periodic payments. A pension may be a defined benefit plan where a fixed sum is paid regularly to a person or a "defined contribution plan" under which a fixed sum is invested and then becomes available at retirement age. Pensions should not be confused with severance pay; the former is usually paid after retirement, while the latter is typically paid as a fixed amount after involuntary termination of employment prior to retirement.

7.10.1 Types of Pensions

i. **Employment based pensions**

This is a retirement plan to provide people with an income during their retirement from work. Often retirement plans require both the employer and employee to contribute money to a fund during their employment, in order to receive defined benefits upon retirement. It is a tax deferred savings vehicle that allows for the tax-free accumulation of a fund for later use as a retirement income.

ii. **Social and state pensions**

Many countries have created funds for their citizens and residents to provide income when they retire (or in some cases become disabled). Typically, this requires payments

throughout the citizens working life in order to qualify for benefits later on. A basic state pension is a 'contribution-based benefit' and depends on an individual's contribution history. For example, National Insurance contributions in the United Kingdom.

iii. **Disability pensions** – Some pension plans will provide for members in the event that that they suffer a disability. This may take the form of early entry into a retirement plan for a disabled member below the normal retirement age.

7.10.2 The Nigerian Pension Reform Act, 2014

In Nigeria, the **Pension Reform Act 2014 (PRA)** governs the framework and procedure for pensions. The Act repeals the **Pension Reform Act No 2 2004** and enacts the Pension Reform Act 2014 to continue to govern and regulate the administration of the uniform contributory pension scheme for both public and private sectors in Nigeria.

7.10.3 Challenges of Pensions in Nigeria for Individuals

A pension is a retirement account where employers and employees make monthly contributions. In Nigeria, employers contribute 10% of the salary and the employee contributes 8%. This is known as the contribution scheme. The money goes into what is known as the **Retirement Savings Account.** However, the problem of pensions in Nigeria as related to individuals is that most Nigerian workers are not preparing for retirement.

7.10.4 Who is entitled to a pension plan?

i.   Workers in the public sector

ii.   A worker in a private company with over 15 workers makes the contributions mandatory.

iii. Workers in a private company with less than 3 workers (or self-employed workers) are entitled to participate in the scheme subject to Pension Commission guidelines.

iv.   The law is however silent on a worker in a private company with more than 3 workers and less than 15 workers.

7.11 MANAGEMENT OF PENSION IN NIGERIA

The Pension Reform Act 2014 (PRA) established a body called the National Pension Commission (NPC). The main function of the NPC is to enforce and administer the pension regulations as laid down by the PRA 2014. It regulates 2 types of companies:

i.   The Pension Fund Administrators (PFAs)

ii.   The Pension Fund Custodian (PFCs)

The employee is meant to choose a PFA to manage his/her pension. There are a number of registered PFAs in Nigeria and so the employee has a variety of choices to make. Once the employee has made a choice, he/she then has to inform the employer. The pension contributions are then deducted from the employee's salary and are paid to the PFC specified by the PFA. The PFC upon receipt of the contribution then informs the PFA of receipt of the funds and the PFA then credits the Retirement Savings Account of the employee. If the employee changes jobs, the law provides that the employee can keep his/her account with the PFA, if he/she so wishes. However, they can change PFAs but restricted to not more than once in a year.

7.11.1 Processing of Pension Funds after Deduction

The PFA take the funds and invest them in certain approved investments e.g., government bonds, bill, and other securities, shares of public limited companies, real estate development investments. This is strictly monitored by the Pension Fund Commission with substantial fines and penalties for erring PFA's.

7.11.2 Accessing Pension Proceeds

Employees are not allowed to access the Retirement Savings Account until they retire or attain the age of 50 years (whichever is later). The 50 year/retirement rule is a general one. However, there are exceptions to the rule, if the person leaves employment before age 50 for medical reasons or in accordance with the terms and conditions if his/her employment which allow for partial lump sum removal in certain circumstances. Upon retirement, the individual is able to utilize the amount credited to his retirement savings account for the following benefits:

i.   Withdraw a lump sum from the total amount, provided that the amount left after the lump sum withdrawal is sufficient to procure a programmed fund withdrawals or annuity for life.

ii.   Programmed monthly or quarterly withdrawals calculated on the basis of an expected life span.

iii.   Annuity for life purchased from a life insurance company.

7.11.3 Penalty for Non-remittance of Pension Proceeds by an Employer

It is mandatory for your employer to remit the pension contributions and any non-remittance or late remittance is illegal. The penalty is payment of the amounts which are due to be paid back plus not less than 2% of the amount due.

7.11.4 Advantages of Contributing to the Pension Fund

i.   The employee does not need to worry about retirement plans as a pension is basically a long-term savings plan with tax relief.

ii.   Regular contributions are invested so that they grow throughout the employees' career and then provide him/her with an income in retirement.

iii.   In a country that does not have a welfare state, pensions will go a long way in catering for the employee during his/her retirement years.

iv.   Death and old age are inevitable and so the beneficiaries of an employee have something to fall back on, when the latter dies unexpectedly or cannot work any longer due to medical reasons.

v.   A supplemental pension plan is part of the fringe benefits that an employer can offer his employees. The employer will therefore make it easier to attract and keep competent employees.

vi.   Pension contributions provide both employers and employees with a way to reduce current income taxes by making pre-tax contributions into a retirement investment account. Contributions grow tax-deferred until withdrawal.

vii.   A pension will in the long run help the retired employee to maintain a middle-class standard of living and retirement savings provides important supplementary income for unforeseen expenses.

7.11.5 Registered Pension Fund Administrators in Nigeria

i.   Apt Pension Fund

ii.   ARM Pension Managers (PFA)

iii.   AXA Mansard Pensions

iv.   Certified Pension Institute of Nigeria (CPIN)

v.   Crusader Pensions

vi.   Fidelity Pensions Managers Limited.

vii.   First Guarantee Pension

viii.   Fug Pensions

7.11.6 Pension Fund Custodians in Nigeria

i.   Diamond Pension Fund Custodian Limited.

ii.   First Pension Custodian Nigeria Limited

iii.   UBA Pensions Custodian Limited.

iv.   Zenith Pensions Custodian Limited

SUMMARY

In July 2003, the Federal Government commenced the implementation of deliberate policies, programmes and projects aimed at strengthening the economy, governance, and fight corruption. This led to initiatives of the Treasury Single Account (TSA), Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS), Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) etc. This chapter examined the benefits, challenges, problems of these initiatives and that of the Electronic Payment system. It also went further to examine the basic concepts in budgeting, the Nigerian Pension Scheme and the Management of Pension in Nigerian economy.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Fiscal deficit in government budget can be reduced by ………………………………………….
   A. improving the productivity of the departments.
   B. closing down some of the expensive projects.
   C. banning the recreational activities.
   D. rationalizing expenditure for economy.

2. Zero-based budgeting evaluates current and new activities and programs which solve …………….
   A. governmental programs in detail.
   B. risks involving decision-developing and ranking packages.
   C. organizational services programs.
   D. basic developmental issues.

3. A budget is essentially a statement of:
   A. Identification of targets to be achieved.
   B. Surplus or deficit of the previous budget.
   C. Estimated revenue and expenditure over a period of time.
   D. Allocation of funds in various heads of expenditure.

4. Deficit financing refers to:
   A. Excess revenues
   B. Excess expenditures
   C. Both of these
   D. None of these

5. In times of a budget deficit, which of the following is more indicative of a right-wing approach to budgeting?
   A. Increasing spending.
   B. Increasing borrowing.
   C. Maintaining taxes.
   D. Increasing taxes.

6. The term 'Performance Budget' was coined by the………………………………….
   A. Administrative Reforms Commission of Nigeria.
   B. Second Hoover Commission of USA.
   C. Estimates Commission of United Kingdom.
   D. First Hoover Commission of USA.

7. All of the following statements regarding characteristics of defined benefit plans are True, EXCEPT:
   A. A specified benefit is promised to be paid at retirement.
   B. The employer assumes the investment risk.
   C. The benefits are usually expressed as a dollar amount to be paid as an annuity.

D. Younger employees require higher contributions than older employees given the same benefit level.

8. "All of the following describe types of benefits provided by welfare benefit plans, EXCEPT:
   A. Scholarship funds.
   B. Vacation benefits.
   C. Retirement benefits.
   D. Prepaid legal services.

9. ''All of the following statements regarding defined contribution plans are TRUE, EXCEPT:
   A. Investment results do not affect the employer's cost.
   B. There is no promised benefit to be paid to the participant.
   C. The employer's defined contributions are the extent of the employer's commitment to the participant's retirement income.
   D. The benefit to be paid is generally expressed as an annuity.

10. ''All of the following are benefits provided by a pension benefit plan, EXCEPT:
    A. Retirement income to employees.
    B. Unemployment benefits.
    C. Disability retirement benefits.
    D. Retirement savings through individual accounts.

11. ''All of the following are employee benefit plans, EXCEPT ……… benefit plans.
    A. Welfare
    B. Pension
    C. Compliance.
    D. Plans covered by PENCOM

12. ''All of the following may affect the cost of benefits in a defined benefit plan, EXCEPT:
    A. Contribution formula.
    B. Age of the employees.
    C. Years worked for the plan sponsor.
    D. Compensation of the employees.

13. A plan that generally covers a span of one year or less is ……………………. plan.
    A. Operational
    B. Intermediate
    C. Long range
    D. None of these

14. Identify the correct option:
    Deficit ………………………………………………………………….. in the developing countries.
    A. financing is a boon

B. financing is a curse
C. budgeting is a boon
D. budgeting is a curse

15. Identify the correct machinery which is most effective in financial administration.
    A. Legislature.
    B. The central department concerned with financial administration.
    C. Principal financial officers in the administrative department.
    D. Audit organization.

16. A plan for allowing each employee to determine the make-up of his or her fringe benefit
    Package is ……………………………..
    A. Compensation.
    B. Salary administration.
    C. Cafeteria compensation.
    D. Loaning.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is e-payment and list ten benefits of e-payment
2. State two types of transactions covered by-payments.
3. Explain the concept of Treasury Single Account (TSA)
4. Discuss any five benefits of TSA.
5. Explain the operation of GIFMIS
6. Concisely differentiate between GIFMIS and IPPISS
7. Enumerate six factors considered critical to the success of GIFMIS.
8. Discuss the various components of the Nigerian Government Budget
9. Differentiate between Balanced and Unbalanced Budget
10. Discuss the merits and demerits of the Contributory Pension Scheme
11. Describe how the pensions proceeds can be assessed
12. Explain the functions of the PFAs and PFCs.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

PUBLIC SECTOR AUDIT

8.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be ableto understand:

- the concept of Public Sector Audit
- components of Public Sector Audit
- the 3 Es
- differentiate between performance audit and other types of public audits
- the concept of Electronic audit
- the relevant regulatory framework in the Nigerian public sector such as the Public Procurement Act,2007, Fiscal and Financial Responsibility Act, 2007, Finance Act, 2007 and the Freedom of Information Act

8.2   INTRODUCTION

In today's dynamic and fiercely competitive business environment, ranging from local businesses to global corporations, change is constant. Companies face a multitude of new and intricate risks, making it imperative to have a reliable and impartial audit alongside credible financial data to instill confidence among stakeholders. Auditing, a process regulated by law, involves a thorough examination of an organization's financial statements by a qualified individual. The auditor's objective is to form an opinion on the truth, precision, validity, reliability, and fairness of the statements and the underlying records, ensuring they adhere to legal requirements. Subsequently, the auditor provides a report to financial statement users, expressing their judgment on the accuracy and reliability of the accounting records and information.

8.3   PUBLIC SECTOR AUDIT

Public sector auditing is a methodical approach that involves impartially collecting and assessing evidence to ascertain if information or real situations align with predetermined standards. There are three primary categories of public sector auditing: compliance audit, financial audit, and performance audit. It is crucial to recognize the distinctions among these audit types. The specific

objectives of the audit being conducted determine the relevant standards that need to be adhered to.

8.3.1 Compliance Audit

Building upon the broader concept of public sector audits, the compliance audit specifically concentrates on evaluating adherence to criteria established by authorities. These authorities encompass parliamentary decisions, laws, legislative acts, codes, and agreed-upon terms that public sector entities must comply with in carrying out their duties. The primary aim of a compliance audit is to furnish relevant users with information about whether the audited public entities are in alignment with parliamentary decisions, laws, policies, codes, and agreed terms. In this type of audit, a specific subject matter is identified, such as the entity's procurement practices, their reporting on non-financial information, or their compliance with laws like freedom of information or staff codes of conduct.

A compliance audit entails an independent assessment to determine if a particular subject matter conforms to the specified criteria. Auditors scrutinize whether the entity's activities, financial transactions, and information substantially comply with the governing authorities. Auditors in compliance audits seek significant deviations from criteria, which may be rooted in laws, financial management principles, or propriety—following general principles guiding financial management and public officials' conduct.

In the public sector, funds allocated by the Legislative arm of Government serve citizens' interests. Public sector auditing is essential to ascertain whether public sector administration uses allocated funds as intended by the appropriators. Officials are obligated to act in the public's best interest, adhering to governing authorities, i.e., laws and regulations. Public sector entities and officials are responsible for transparently managing entrusted funds, ensuring accountability to citizens, and exercising prudent governance over these funds.

Compliance auditing fosters transparency by delivering reliable reports on fund administration and the protection of citizens' due process rights as required by governing authorities. It enforces accountability by reporting deviations and violations, prompting corrective actions and holding

responsible parties accountable. Additionally, compliance auditing promotes good governance by identifying shortcomings and deviations from laws and regulations and assessing propriety in cases where regulations are insufficient. Fraud and corruption, which inherently undermine transparency, accountability, and good stewardship, are considered in compliance audits, thereby reinforcing good governance in the public sector.

8.3.2 Financial Audit

Financial auditing involves assessing whether an organization's financial data complies with relevant financial reporting and regulatory guidelines. During a financial audit, auditors focus on identifying errors or misstatements that could significantly impact the information presented in the financial statements. These errors are deemed significant if they influence the decisions made by the intended users of the financial statements.

In financial audits, compliance is limited, as outlined in ISSAI 1250 paragraph 10. The audit objectives include:

i. Gathering sufficient and appropriate audit evidence related to compliance with laws and regulations that directly affect significant amounts and disclosures in the financial statements.

iii. Conducting specific audit procedures to detect instances of non-compliance with other laws and regulations that might significantly impact the financial statements.

iv. Taking appropriate action in response to identified non-compliance or suspected non-compliance with laws and regulations discovered during the audit.

Compliance considerations in the public sector often extend beyond the scope defined in the International Standards of Supreme Audit Institutions (ISSAI) 1250. This broader scope might involve additional responsibilities, such as providing a separate opinion or conclusion on the entity's compliance with laws and regulations. Public sector auditors with such added responsibilities should refer to ISSAI 4000 instead of trying to incorporate these aspects into financial audits.

8.3.3 Performance Audit or Value-for-Money Audit and the 3 Es

Performance audit involves an unbiased and thorough evaluation to determine whether government activities, systems, operations, programs, or organizations adhere to principles of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness, while also identifying potential areas for improvement. This type of audit aims to offer fresh information, analysis, or insights and, when suitable, recommendations for enhancements.

The concept of 'value for money' (VFM) revolves around utilizing resources optimally to accomplish intended objectives. Achieving value for money is based on three key elements, often referred to as the '3Es':

i. **Economy**: This entails prudent spending, avoiding unnecessary expenses, and ensuring resources like materials, labor, and other costs are utilized wisely.

ii. **Efficiency**: Efficiency involves maximizing output from available resources. It means utilizing resources in a manner that yields the highest possible results. For instance, efficient use of an employee's time means generating significant output for every worked hour or day.

iii. **Effectiveness**: Effectiveness focuses on utilizing resources in a manner that attains the desired objectives. Efficiency is meaningful only if the outcomes align with the entity's goals and objectives.

A 'value for money' (VFM) assessment aims to investigate specific aspects of an entity's operations and draw conclusions regarding whether the entity is achieving value for money in its endeavors.

S/n	3 Es	Meaning	Measurement
1	Economy	Doing it cheaply	Compare money spent with inputs acquired.
2	Efficiency	Doing it well	Compare inputs used with output achieved
3	Effectiveness	Doing the right thin	Compare output achieved with objectives

8.3.3.1 Economy: Keeping the cost low

Auditing economy focuses the audit on how the audited entities succeeded in minimizing the cost of resources (input), considering the appropriate quality of these resources. This part of the audit focuses only on the input by asking: "Are the resources used available in due time, of appropriate quantity and quality, and at the best price?". When conducting audits of economy, the auditor may provide answers to such questions as:

➢ Have the best prices been obtained for consultancy services?

➢ Is there potential for reducing the cost of sickness absences?

➢ Are there procedures in place to ensure that transport costs of food aid are the lowest available?

➢ Has there been a waste of resources in achieving an output? Considerations of economy often lead to examining processes and management decisions regarding the procurement of goods, works and services.

8.3.3.2 Efficiency Audit: Making the most of available resources.

Efficiency Audit is broad in its scope. The scholars express two distinct views on this subject. According to one school of thought, the principal objective of efficiency audit is to ensure that resources flow into the most remunerative channels.

Efficiency assesses the relationship between inputs and outputs. Auditing efficiency means asking whether the inputs have been put to optimal or satisfactory use or whether the same or similar outputs (in terms of quantity, quality, and turnaround time) could have been achieved with fewer resources. In other words, "Are we getting the most output - in terms of quantity and quality – from our inputs?". Therefore, efficiency is about the maximum output obtained for a given level of input or the minimum level of input required for a given output level. Quality is an important concept on the input side, both in efficiency and economy. Efficiency is a relative concept, meaning that a process, instrument, or programme is either more or less efficient than another. For an audit on efficiency, you, need to conduct some comparison. You may, for example, compare similar activities in comparable entities; one process (in one entity) with the same process at an earlier point in time; a process before and after the adoption of a policy or procedure; the efficiency of an organization with an accepted set of characteristics of efficient organizations. Audits of

efficiency can also examine the processes leading from input to output to expose shortcomings in these processes or their implementation. This can lead to a better understanding of why processes are efficient, even without measuring efficiency itself. In audits of efficiency, the following questions are relevant:

> - How does the cost per job created by a training programme for the unemployed compare with similar costs per job elsewhere?
> - Could project X have been implemented differently that would have resulted in improved timeliness and quality?
> - Are adequate procedures and criteria for prioritizing and selecting transport infrastructure projects to ensure maximum impact in place?
> - Are schools maximizing the use of their information technology equipment?

When the audit objective of efficiency considers outputs, you will usually focus on processes by which an organization transforms inputs into outputs.

Purpose of Efficiency Audit

i.   That every Naira invested in capital, or in other fields gives optimum results, and

ii.   That the balancing of investment between different functions and the aspects is designed to give optimum results.

Thus, the efficiency audit, according to this school of thought connotes *financial efficiency*. According to another school of thought the term efficiency denotes *executive efficiency and operational efficiency*. Efficiency audit according to this school of thought is concerned with the evaluation of the following qualities of the executives in term of:

i.   **Personality:** This means and includes honesty, integrity, aggressiveness, initiative, judgement, leadership, and common sense.

ii.   **Skill, Knowledge, Techniques, and Experience**: These mean and include leadership qualities human relations approach, technical knowledge, and the skills.

iii. **Attitude:** This means and includes loyalty, willingness to co-operate self-confidence, and job satisfaction.

However, efficiency audit according to some authors covers the financial efficiency, performance efficiency, and the productivity efficiency. This view seems to be more appropriate. In this sense, it possesses some of the characteristics of the enterprise's audit or management audit.

Efficiency of an enterprise cannot be evaluated by assessing one or two aspects only. A number of aspects should be properly assessed in an efficiency audit.

Objectives of Efficiency Audit

Modern management now-a-days undertake efficiency audit with a variety of objectives in mind. The principal objectives are to.

i. diagnoses the operational weaknesses by a review of the organization's environment.

ii. know whether the resources of the business flow into constructive and profitable channels.

iii. assess how far the measures and techniques adopted are effective in attaining the goals and objectives of the firm.

iv. highlight the important fact in each of the functions or operations that are employed.

v. evaluate and compare the optimum return on capital invested in the business operations.

vi. suggest and recommend feasible alternative treatments for improvements in a manner that the heads of the functional or operational management themselves would do if they have time for self-introspection (Examination of their own thoughts and feelings).

Parameters for Measuring Efficiency

The parameters for measuring efficiency include the following:

i. The overall rate of return on capital employed shows both efficiency of the capital turnover and efficiency of the sales.

ii. Capacity utilization.

iii. Utilization of natural, functional, physical, and human resources.

iv. Export performance and import substitution.

v. Cash flow performance.

vi. The pay-back period of the entire organization (i.e., by dividing the capital employed by annual cash flow).

Scope / Areas of Appraisal under Efficiency Audit

An appraisal, under efficiency audit should cover the following areas:

i. Factors responsible for survival and prosperity of the business.

ii. Bottlenecks to achieve the goals and the objectives of the organization.

iii.   Inefficiencies and ineffectiveness of the operations resulting m cash drainage or other kind of losses.

iv.   Areas of uncertainty of the business.

v.   Causes for the business failures.

vi.   Machinery for the corporate planning and the management controls for the future profitability and growth.

The auditor should appraise the above-mentioned areas, identify the defects in them, and suggest suitable recommendations to remove the deficiencies.

8.3.3.3 Effectiveness: Achieving the stipulated aims or objectives

Effectiveness deals with outputs, results or impacts. It is about the extent to which policy objectives have been met in terms of the generated output. It is concerned with the relationship between goals or objectives on the one hand and outcome on the other. The question of effectiveness consists of two parts: first, to what extent the objectives are met and second, if this can be attributed to the output of the policy pursued. It focuses on questions such as:

➢   Have infrastructure projects contributed to increased traffic flow while improving safety and reducing journey times?

➢   Have suitable measures to monitor and mitigate the environmental impact in sector X been set up and properly implemented?

➢   Are departments or entities achieving their objectives for all sectors of the community?

Audit of effectiveness will concentrate on outputs, results or impacts. When assessing effectiveness, the main consideration is whether and how a government policy, programme or activity is meeting its goals. Sometimes effectiveness is split into two distinct aspects:

i.   The attainment of specific objectives in terms of outputs (this is called efficacy).

ii.   The achievement of intended results in terms of outcomes.

Auditing the effectiveness of performance in relation to the achievement of the audited entities' objectives entails auditing the actual impact of activities compared with the intended impacts. Effectiveness can be measured by various methods. The most sophisticated methods compare the situation being addressed before and after the introduction of the policy or programme and involve measuring the behaviour of a control group, which has not been subject to the policy or programme (the counterfactual) through a randomized trial or as a quasi-experiment.

8.3.3.4 Performance Auditing and Promotion of Accountability and Transparency

Performance auditing promotes accountability by helping those with governance and oversight responsibilities understand the actions needed to improve performance. It can bring to light hidden issues or problems by examining if decisions by the legislature or the executive are economically, efficiently and effectively prepared and implemented and whether taxpayers and citizens have received value for money. It does not question the intentions and decisions of the legislature or policy but examines whether any shortcomings in their implementation have prevented the specified objectives from being achieved. Performance auditing promotes transparency by giving an insight into the management and outcomes of different government activities. The outputs of this work will be of interest to:

- ➢ government and legislative bodies;
- ➢ taxpayers and other sources of public finance;
- ➢ those targeted by government policies; and
- ➢ in some cases, the media.

Thus, performance auditing directly contributes to providing useful information to citizens while also serving as a basis for learning and improving the public sector. Performance audits also help the legislature hold government accountable for performance. A performance audit is often addressed to the legislature, although some countries may have different arrangements. Performance audits promote both accountability and transparency.

8.3.3.5 Value Added of Performance Audit

Performance auditing focuses on areas in which it can add value for citizens and which have the greatest potential for improvement and provides constructive recommendations for the audited entities to take appropriate action to improve performance.

8.3.3.6 Differences between Performance Audit and other types of Public Audits

Performance auditing is a specific discipline with its own standards and conventions. It is important to understand the differences between performance auditing and the other two main types of public sector audits: financial audits and compliance audits. It is usually easy to distinguish a financial audit from a performance audit. A financial audit involves determining,

through the collection of audit evidence, whether an entity´s financial information is presented in its financial statements following the financial reporting and regulatory framework applicable. Financial audits are conducted annually, in which auditors certify an audited entity's financial statements. A financial audit adds value by providing the intended users of the financial statements with confidence in the reliability and relevance of information presented in the audited statements. It can be more challenging to understand the difference between a compliance audit and a performance audit because they sometimes overlap. Compliance audits cover a broad spectrum of audits, with different characteristics, examining activities, financial transactions or information. Compliance auditing is the independent assessment of whether a given subject matter complies with applicable authorities identified as criteria. Compliance audits are carried out by assessing whether activities, financial transactions and information comply, in all material respects, with the authorities which govern the audited entity. These authorities may include rules, laws and regulations, budgetary resolutions, policy, established codes, agreed terms or the general principles governing sound public-sector financial management and the conduct of public officials.

Some performance audits can include compliance questions to the extent that these are necessary and relevant to examining 3Es of the subject matter. A performance audit is a direct reporting engagement. In direct reporting engagements, the auditor selects the subject matter and criteria and measures or evaluates the subject matter against the criteria, considering risk and materiality. The outcome of the measure is presented in the audit report in findings, conclusions, recommendations, or an opinion. The other type of engagement is attestation engagement, where the responsible party measures the subject matter against the criteria and presents the subject matter information. The auditor gathers sufficient and appropriate audit evidence to provide a reasonable basis for expressing a conclusion. Financial audits are always attestation engagements, and compliance audits may be attestation or direct reporting engagements, or both at once.

8.4   ELECTRONIC AUDIT

E-audit or electronic audit is computer assisted auditing that uses electronic records to complete all or part of the audit. If you use a computer to record your business activity and maintain this data electronically, you are a candidate for an electronic audit. It can as well be seen, as online

compliance and risk management software solution for compliance managers to build and report all the checks you have or might want.

8.5   PUBLIC PROCUREMENT ACT, 2007 (AS AMENDED 2016)

Public procurement can be defined as the acquisition, whether under formal contract or not, of works, supplies and services by public bodies. It ranges from the purchase of routine supplies or services to formal tendering and placing contracts for large infrastructural projects. According to Wikipedia, government procurement or public procurement is the procurement of goods, services, or constructions on behalf of a public authority such as a government agency.

In Nigeria, government procurement or public procurement is governed by the Public Procurement Act 2007 (as amended 2016). The Act established two regulatory authorities to control and supervise government public procurement in Nigeria.   These regulatory bodies are responsible for: The monitoring and oversight of public procurement; Harmonizing the existing government policies and practices by regulating, setting standards and; Developing the legal framework and professional capacity for public procurement in Nigeria; And for other related matters. The regulatory bodies are:

a.   The National Council on Public Procurement and
b.   The Bureau of Public Procurement.

The duties of the Council are spelt out in section 2 of the Act. The Council is saddled with oversight responsibilities with respect to the Bureau. The Council approves the appointment of the directors of the Bureau, considers for approval the audited accounts of the Bureau, considers, and approves public policies on public procurement and approves changes in the procurement process to adapt to improvement in modern technology. The Council also considers, approves, and amends monetary and prior review threshold for the application of the provisions of the Act by procuring entities and has the power to give other directives to the necessary agencies and perform any other function necessary for the achievement of the objectives of the Act.

The Bureau of Public Procurement is established by section 3 of the Act as a legal person with all the characteristics of legal personality vested in it. The following are the objectives of establishing the Bureau.

a. Harmonizing existing government policies and practices on public procurement to ensure probity, accountability and transparency in the procurement process;

b. Establishing pricing standards and benchmarks;

c. Ensuring the application of fair, competitive, transparent, value-for-money standards and practices for the   procurement and disposal of public assets;

d. Attaining transparency, competitiveness, cost effectiveness and professionalism in the public sector procurement system.

However, the Senate on Thursday 16th of June, 2016 passed the Public Procurement Act 2007 (amendment) bill 2016 into law. The bill which is explained by its long title to be a bill for an Act to amend the Public Procurement Act to provide for and adopt Local Content Policy and timely completion of procurement processes and other related matters was sponsored by Senator Sam Egwu (PDP-Ebonyi North).

The major essence of the bill was its amendment of the existing Public Procurement Act 2007 to ensure speedy completion of projects and favoring local manufacturers through mandatory procurement of made-in-Nigeria goods by government Ministries, Departments and Agencies.

8.6   FISCAL AND FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY ACT, 2007

An Act to provide for prudent management of the Nation's Resources, ensure Long- Term Macro-Economic stability of the National Economy, secure greater accountability and transparency in Fiscal operations within the Medium-Term Fiscal Policy Framework, and the establishment if the Fiscal Responsibility Commission to ensure the promotion and enforcement of the Nation's Economic objectives; and for related matters.

8.6.1   Responsibilities and Powers of the Commission

1. For the purpose of performing its functions under the Act, the Commission shall have power to:

a. Compel any person or government institution to disclose information relating to public revenues and expenditure; and

b. Cause an investigation into whether any person has violated any provisions of this Act.

2. If the Commission is satisfied that such a person has committed any punishable offence under this Act violated any provisions of this Act, the Commission shall forward a report of the investigation to the Attorney- General of the Federation for the possible prosecution.

8.6.2   Functions of the Commission

1. The Commission shall:
a. Monitor and enforce the provisions of this Act and by so doing, promote the economic objectives contained in section 16 of the Constitution;
b. Disseminate such standard practices including international good practice that will result in greater efficiency in the allocation and management of public expenditure, revenue collection, debt control and transparency in fiscal matters;
c. Undertake fiscal and financial studies, analysis and diagnosis and disseminate the result to the general public;
d. Make rules for carrying out its functions under the Act; and
e. Perform any other function consistent with the promotion of the objectives of this Act.
f. The Commission shall establish and maintain a Fund from which shall be defrayed all expenditure incurred by the Commission.
g. One member to represent each of the following six geographical zones of the country, that is: North Central, North-East, North- West, South- East, South-West, and South-South.
h. All members of the Commission shall be people of proven integrity and must possess appropriate qualifications with not less than 10 years cognate post qualification experience.
i. The Chairman and other members of the Commission other than ex- officio members shall be appointed by the President subject to confirmation by the Senate.
j. The Chairman and members of representing the six geographical zones shall be full time members.

8.7   FINANCE (CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT) ACT, 2007

This is an Act that governs the management and operation of government funds. It also regulates the accounting system, the books of accounts to be kept and the procedures to be followed in the preparation of accounts and financial statements: Specifically, the Act contains the following provision.

i. General provision and control of the finances and expenditure of the federation by the minister of finance who should render full accounts to the legislature.

ii. Control and management of Consolidate Revenue Fund (CRF) as stipulated by the constitution. It stipulated that the minister of finance shell issue warrant before any amount can be spent out of (CRF).

iii. Financial affairs of the federation which are by law not assigned to any minister of finance

iv. Other provision includes;

   a. preparation of annual estimate and appropriation bill

   b. Provision of contingency fund from the CRF

   c. Un-expired votes to lapse at the end of financial year.

   d. Rules for the operation of capital development fund.

8.8   FREEDOM OF INFORMATION ACT, LFN, 2011

The Freedom of Information Act, Laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2011 is an Act to make public records and information more freely available, provide for public access to public records and information, protect public records and information to the extent consistent with the public interest and the protection of personal privacy, protect serving public officers from adverse consequences of disclosing certain kinds of official information without authorization and establish procedures for the achievement of those purposes and; for related matters.

The Act which was enacted by the National Assembly of the Federal Republic of Nigeria on the 28th day of May 2011 reads thus;

1. Notwithstanding anything contained in any other Act, law or regulation, the right of any person to access or request information, whether or not contained in any written form, which is in the custody or possession of any public official, agency or institution howsoever described, is established.

2. An applicant under this Act needs not demonstrate any specific interest in the information being applied for.

3. Any person entitled to the right to information under this Act, shall have the right to institute proceedings in the Court to compel any public institution to comply with the provisions of this Act.

4. A public institution shall ensure that it records and keeps information about all its activities, operations and businesses.

5. A public institution shall ensure the proper organization and maintenance of all information in its custody in a manner that facilitates public access to such information.

SUMMARY

Public sector auditing is an important factor in making a difference to the lives of citizens. The auditing of government and public sector entities has a positive impact on trust in society because it focuses the minds of the custodians of public resources on how well they use those resources. Such awareness supports desirable values and underpins accountability mechanisms, which in turn leads to improved decisions. Once the audit results have been made public, citizens can hold the custodians of public resources accountable. In this way, Performance audit promote the efficiency, accountability, effectiveness and transparency of public administration.

Generally, performance audit offers benefits such as identifying:

➤ waste and inefficiency in delivering public services;

➤ opportunities to maximize return on investment in public services;

➤ risks to the achievement of policy goals; and

➤ matters of social and economic concern to citizens.

This chapter comprehensively examined the concept of Public Sector Audit and the 3Es of Value Added or Performance Audit. It further examined the Electronic means of Auditing and regulatory frameworks of Public Sector Audit such as the Public Procurement Act 2007, Fiscal and Financial Responsibility Act, 2007, Finance (Control and Management) Act, 2007 and the Freedom of Information Act, 2011 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Auditing refers to …………………………………………………….
   A. preparation and checking of account.
   B. examination of accounts of business units only.
   C. examination of accounts of professional accountants.
   D. checking of vouchers.

2. Propriety audit refers to the ………………………………….
   A. verification of accounts.
   B. examination accounts of propriety concerns.
   C. enquiry against justification and necessity of expresses.
   D. audit of government companies.

3. Detection of errors and fraud in audit is the ………………………….. object.
   A. primary
   B. secondary
   C. specific
   D. general

4. An auditor of Government company has to submit his report to the ………………….
   A. Shareholders.
   B. Central Government.
   C. National Assembly
   D. Ministry concerned

5. Audit of government offices and departments is known as ……………… audit.
   A. Agency
   B. Periodical
   C. Government
   D. Ministry

6. Government audit is conducted by the ……………………………… in Nigeria.
   A. office of the Auditor Secretary
   B. department of the Auditor General
   C. office of the Auditor General
   D. department of the Auditor Secretary

7. Management audit is also known as …………………………………… audit.
   A. Efficiency
   B. Performance
   C. Propriety
   D. Standard

8. Audit conducted to check whether the various activities of an organization are carried out efficiently is known as …………………………….. audit.

A. Internal
B. Interim
C. Balance sheet
D. Performance

9. The main object of auditing is ……………………………………………
   A. detection of errors and fraud.
   B. finding out if accounts shows a fair view.
   C. establishing the genuineness of accounts.
   D. Prevention and detection of errors and fraud.

10. Final audit implies that ………………………………………………………
   A. audit of accounts at the end of the year.
   B. final checking of accounts to reveal frauds.
   C. auditing for submitting report immediately at the end of the year.
   D. auditing of banking institutions.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Differentiate between primary and secondary objective of carrying out an audit in the public sector.

2. Define value-for-money audit (VFM) and explain three major components of value-for-money audit.

3. Explain five steps towards a successful value-for-money audit.

4. Identify five factors which contribute to an effective value-for-money audit

5. Explain the precise roles of internal audit unit in relation to value-for- money audit of a government business entity (GBE).

6. Discuss comprehensively the concept of Electronic Audit

7. Explain the provisions of the Public Procurement Act 2007

8. Highlight the basic components of the Fiscal and Financial Responsibility Act, 2007

9. Explain the scope of the Finance (Control and Management) Act, 2007

10. Analyze the effects of the Freedom of Information Act, 2011 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria

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LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN HRM

9.1   LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of this chapter, readers should be able to understand:

- communication in public administration,
- the concept of change management,
- emotional intelligence,
- concept of conflict resolution,
- the Global Best Practices in Leadership engagement,
- concept of Talent management, and
- Engagement process in leadership Development.

9.2   INTRODUCTION

According to Dr. John Maxwell, Leadership is influence. Leadership entails influencing subordinates to cooperate enthusiastically to achieve organizational and group goals and objectives. Leadership entails ability to engender desirable group actions and cooperation voluntarily without force.

The conceptualization of leadership in public administration has been controversial because of the problem of identification of who is a true leader. For some scholars, leadership is synonymous with authority, position, or the exhibition of a particular behaviour. McKinney and Howard have rightly defined a leader as someone who creates and recognizes opportunities, who can harness divergent and conflicting positions, influence subordinates and employ scarce resources to achieve publicly desired ends.

9.3   CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

The concept of power in leadership and its usage and application is key to leadership effectiveness. Power refers to the ability to lead and influence other people. In the context of the organization and groups power refers to the ability to get things done or accomplished even in the existence of resistance and opposition. In an organizational context, leadership derive their power from the basic sources:

- ➢ **Legitimate Power:** This is a type of power normally residing in an office, the occupant of that office inherits and exercises the power emanating from that office, and this becomes a basis to demand that others to comply. The higher an employee or staff moves up the organization hierarchy, the more power him or her exercises.

- ➢ **Reward Power:** This refers to the capacity of the leader to reward. Subordinates who comply or exhibit effort in achieving organizational goals. The presence of this power is usually enough to induce support from those employees who desire the reward.

- ➢ **Coercive Power:** This is the use of punishment or cohesion to accomplish organizational goals. Employees usually comply with regulations or rules just to avoid being sanctioned by the leader.

- ➢ **Referent Power:** Referent Power is acquired from the personal qualities and characteristics that leaders bring to organizational setting. These characteristics of the leader endear the leader to others in the work setting. These characteristics of the leader in the work setting usually elicit the compliance of subordinates.

- ➢ **Expert Power:** This refers to the expertise, competence or business knowledge possessed by the leader that makes subordinates to comply, because they believe that, they can learn from the leader.

9.4   COMMUNICATION IN HRM

Management entails communication either verbal or written. Every management activity, function or decision involves some form of direct or indirect communication. Management decisions and organizational policies usually are ineffective except they are clearly understood by those responsible for implementing them. No aspect of human resource management is as pervasive and pivotal as communication. Communication provides the ways and means of gathering and dissemination of information in all areas of human resource management.

Communication is a medium by which all types of information verbal or written are transferred from one person to the other. Scott defines communication as a process and means involving the transmission of accurate ideas reinforced by feedback, purported to stimulate actions to accomplish organizational goals. Communication is important in the organization for three reasons:

- All managerial functions such as planning, organizing, leading, coordinating and controlling entails communication, without which they cannot be performed at all.
- Secondly, leaders and managers devote a large portion of their time to the activity of the communication.
- Group relations and other informal relations are maintained and developed only through the system of communication. Communication is key to co-ordinating and integrating the activities of the workers in the organization. Without effective and regular communication, no organizational goals objectives can be realized.

9.4.1 Models of Communication

i. **Sender:** This is the targeted individual group or organization that attempts to transmit information to another individual or group or organization

ii. **The Receiver:** This is the recipient that the sender attempts to transmit information to or wishes to communicate with.

iii. **Encoding:** This is the conveyance of mental thoughts or wish into a language that can be understood by intended receiver. In the encoding process, words and gestures including non-verbal elements such as facial expressions are used.

iv. **The Message:** This is the output of encoded messages that may as well trigger aggressive or emotional reaction.

v. **Medium:** The medium is the means of carrying. Messages are meant to be received in a variety of ways. These include face-to-face communication, telephone communication, group meetings, fax, and memos. Choosing an appropriate medium of communication depends on many factors. These include its intended purpose, the type of audience, time horizon for passing the message and personal preferences.

vi. **Decoding:** For the means of communication to be effective, the message must be understood so that it becomes relevant to the receiver. It consists of translating verbal, oral or visual aspects of a message into a form that can be interpreted.

vii. **Creating Meaning:** Communication is effective when the meaning is transferred directly from the sender to the receiver. A receiver's interpretation of a message sometimes differs from that intended by the sender.

viii. **Feed-Back:** The receiver's response to a message is the crux of the feedback loop. A feedback loop provides a channel for receiver's response that enables the communicator or sender to determine whether the message has been received and has produced the intended response.

ix. **Noise:** This refers to interferences with transmission and understanding of a message or all factors that distract the full transmission of intended message and these factors may occur in any of the elements of communication. These factors include speech impairment poor telephone connection, illegible handwriting, physical distance etc. Managers can improve communication by reducing noise.

9.4.2 Organizational Communication Patterns

The four factors that influence the effectiveness of organizational communication are:-

i. The formal and informal channels of communication
ii. The organizations or group authority structure
iii. Specialization of jobs
iv. Ownership of information

The communication effectiveness is influenced by formal channels in two ways:

i. Formal channels usually occur when the organizations develop and grow.
ii. The formal channels affect the free flow of information at the organizational levels, particularly in upward communication.

The authority structure in an organization also largely influences the effectiveness of communication. The content and exactness of information are also affected because of the differences in authority and status.

Job specialization also to a large affects the effectiveness of communication. Members who belong to the same group use the same jargon and understand each other better, while communication between highly differentiated groups is likely to be a problem for both.

Downward Communication

This type of communication method begins at the top management level and goes down through all management levels to the least worker. This is mainly used to advise, inform, direct, instruct and evaluate subordinates.

Upward Communication

Here what is happening at the lower levels is made known to the upper levels through the upward communication. This is usually in the form of progress reports, suggestions, explanation and particularly useful for the top management to make their policies consistent with the attitudes of the people below.

Horizontal or Diagonal Communication

Communication is said to be horizontal when it takes place between two employees working at the same level in the organizational hierarchy e.g., communication between production and marketing manager. Horizontal communication is essential because of the fact that the department in an organization are interdependent, and the co-ordination of their activities are necessary.

Informal Communication Or Grapevine

This type of communication results from social relationship. The management has no absolute control over this type of communication. This informal channel satisfies the communication needs of various groups in the organization. Although most of the times the information passed on this channel is false or at least inaccurate as each person may add to or subtract from the message as he desires.

Barriers to Effective Communication

The major barriers to effective communication are:

  i.   External
 ii.   Emotional or Psychological
iii.   Organizational
 iv.   Personal

External Barriers

These manifest in the following ways:

a. **Semantic Barriers:** This arises when there are linguistic barriers between the sender and the receiver. These barriers arise at the stage of encoding or decoding.

b. **Badly Expressed Message:** When messages are not expressed clearly and precisely and wrong words are used.

c. **Faulty Translation:** Managers sometimes translate official messages incorrectly due to bad communication skills.

d. **Specialist Language:** Technical people and other experts normally use jargon.

Emotional or Psychological Barriers

a. **Premature evaluation:** Managers make conclusions even before the message is completely communicated.

b. Existence of pre-conceived notions.

c. Inattention due to lack of interest.

d. Distrust in the communicator.

e. Fears of misinterpretation, distortion, exposure to criticism, deliberate information hold back, poor retention by the receiver or defensive behaviour.

Organizational Barriers

Here organizational policies, rules and regulations, status relationships also affect the effectiveness of communication.

Personal Barriers: This can again be classified into two types:

a. Barriers in superiors

b. Barriers in subordinate

Major barriers in supervisions could be attitude of supervisors matters a lot. If the superior has an unfavourable attitude to the subordinate's act of giving message, adequate information cannot flow from the subordinate to the superior, lack of confidence in subordinates, lack of awareness of importance of communication, insistence on proper channel. Barriers in subordinates could be uunwillingness to communicate or lack of proper incentives.

9.5 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Change underlies a qualitatively different way of perceiving, thinking, behaving and to improve over the past and present. In this way, change is the process of moving from current state to future state and in between come the transition state which creates stress and anxiety. Change is the order of the day, and, in fact, it is inevitable and bound to occur. As change is imperative, it has to be managed.

Change management is defined as the process of achieving the smooth implementation of change by planning and introducing it systematically, considering the likelihood of it being resisted. Change management plays an important role in any organization since the task of managing change is not an easy one. Change management can ensure standardized methods, processes and procedures that are useful for all changes. It is also useful for efficient and prompt handling of all changes and to maintain a proper balance between the need for change and the potential detrimental impact of changes. The main objective of change management is to reduce the probability of change implementation failure; reduce resistance to change and to get maximum benefit from the implementation.

At the heart of change management lays the change problem, that is, some future state that is to be realized, and some current state that is to be left behind. It requires some structures or organized process to facilitate
the transformation from one to another.

The Process of Change Management

The change management process consists of a sequence of steps or activities that a change management team or project leader would follow to manage the change. The three important phases of change management are

   i.   Phase I : Preparing for Change

  ii.   Phase 11: Managing Change

 iii.   Phase 111: Reinforcing Change

i. **Preparing for Change**

The change manager, or the change agent, has to prepare change management strategies on how to deal with the change. The preparation for change means that one has to define the change, access its dimensions and intensity, and develop strategy to deal with the change. Second, it requires the preparation of change management, and last a model to deal with the change. Thus, preparation for change management is the stepping stone of the change management process.

ii. **Managing Change**

The management stage includes detailed planning and implementation of the change management plan. In a real-life situation, a lot depend on the skills of the change manager.

iii. **Reinforcing Change**

In the reinforcing stage, detailed data are collected, analyzed, and gaps are identified. Here, the resistance is also identified. After that, corrective measures are implemented.

9.5.1 Three Levels of Change Management

Individual Change Management

➢ While it is the natural psychological and physiological reaction of humans to resist change, we are actually quite resilient creatures. When supported through times of change, we can be wonderfully adaptive and successful.

➢ Individual change management requires understanding how people experience change and what they need to change successfully. It also requires knowing what will help people make a successful transition: what messages do people need to hear when and from whom, when the optimal time to teach someone a new skill is, how to coach people to demonstrate new behaviors, and what makes changes "stick" in someone's work. Individual change management draws on disciplines like psychology and neuroscience to apply actionable frameworks to individual change.

➢ After years of studying how individuals experience and are influenced in times of change, Prosci developed the *Adkar model* for individual change. Today, it is one of the most widely used change models in the world.

Organizational/Initiative Change Management

➢ While change happens at the individual level, it is often impossible for a project team to manage change on a person-by-person basis. Organizational or initiative change management provides us with the steps and actions to take at the project level to support the hundreds or thousands of individuals who are impacted by a project.

➢ Organizational change management involves first identifying the groups and people who will need to change as the result of the project, and in what ways they will need to change. Organizational change management then involves creating a customized plan for ensuring impacted employees receive the awareness, leadership, coaching, and training they need in order to change successfully. Driving successful individual transitions should be the central focus of the activities in organizational change management.

➢ Organizational change management is complementary to your project management. Project management ensures your project's solution is designed, developed and delivered, while change management ensures your project's solution is effectively embraced, adopted and used.

Enterprise Change Management Capability

➢ Enterprise change management is an organizational core competency that provides competitive differentiation and the ability to effectively adapt to the ever-changing world. An enterprise change management capability means effective change management is embedded into your organization's roles, structures, processes, projects and leadership competencies. Change management processes are consistently and effectively applied to initiatives, leaders have the skills to guide their teams through change, and employees know what to ask for in order to be successful.

➢ The end result of an enterprise change management capability is that individuals embrace change more quickly and effectively, and organizations are able to respond quickly to market changes, embrace strategic initiatives, and adopt new technology more quickly and with less productivity impact. This capability does not happen by

chance, however, and requires a strategic approach to embed change management across an organization.

9.6   COMMUNICATION IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT

You cannot over-communicate when you are asking your organization to change. Every successful executive who has led a successful change management effort expresses the need for over communicating during a change experience and makes this statement in retrospect. No organization exists in which employees are completely happy with communication. Communication is one of the toughest issues in organizations. It is an area that is most frequently complained about by employees during organizational change and during daily operations. The reason? Effective communication requires four components that are interworking perfectly to create shared meaning, a favorite definition of communication. These include:

- The individual sending the message must present the message clearly and in detail, and radiate integrity and authenticity.
- The person receiving the message must decide to listen, ask questions for clarity, and trust the sender of the message.
- The delivery method chosen must suit the circumstances and the needs of both the sender and the receiver.
- The content of the message has to resonate and connect, on some level, with the already-held beliefs of the receiver. It must contain the information that the employee wants to hear. It must answer the employee's most cherished and cared about questions.
- With all of this going on in a communication, it's a wonder that organizations ever do it well.

Change management practitioners have provided a broad range of suggestions about how to communicate well during any organizational changes.

Recommendations about Communication for Effective Change Management
- ➢ Develop a written communication plan to ensure that all of the following occur within your change management process.

- Communicate consistently, frequently, and through multiple channels, including speaking, writing, video, training, focus groups, bulletin boards, Intranets, and more about the change.

- Communicate all that is known about the changes, as quickly as the information is available. (Make clear that your bias is toward instant communication, so some of the details may change at a later date.) Tell people that your other choice is to hold all communication until you are positive about the decisions, goals, and progress. This is disastrous in effective change management.

- Provide significant amounts of time for people to ask questions, request clarification, and provide input. If you have been part of a scenario in which a leader presented changes, on overhead transparencies, to a large group, and then fled, you know what bad news this is for change integration. People must feel involved in the change. Involvement creates commitment - nothing else is as significant during a change process.

- Clearly communicate the vision, the mission, and the objectives of the change management effort. Help people to understand how these changes will affect them personally. (If you don't help with this process, people will make up their own stories, usually more negative than the truth.)

- Recognize that true communication is a conversation. It is two-way and real discussion must result. It cannot be just a presentation.

- The change leaders or sponsors need to spend time conversing one-on-one or in small groups with the people who are expected to make the changes.

- Communicate the reasons for the changes in such a way that people understand the context, the purpose, and the need. Practitioners have called this: "building a memorable, conceptual framework," and "creating a theoretical framework to underpin the change."

- Provide answers to questions only if you know the answer. Leaders destroy their credibility when they provide incorrect information or appear to stumble or back-peddle when providing an answer. It is much better to say you don't know, and that you will try to find out.

- Leaders need to listen. Avoid defensiveness, excuse-making, and answers that are given too quickly. Act with thoughtfulness.

➢ Make leaders and change sponsors available, daily when possible, to mingle with others in the workplace.

➢ Hold interactive workshops and forums in which all employees can explore the changes together, while learning more. Use training as a form of interactive communication and as an opportunity for people to safely explore new behaviors and ideas about change and change management. All levels of the organization must participate in the same sessions.

➢ Communication should be proactive. If the rumor mill is already in action, the organization has waited too long to communicate.

➢ Provide opportunities for people to network with each other, both formally and informally, to share ideas about change and change management.

➢ Publicly review the measurements that are in place to chart progress in the change management and change efforts.

➢ Publicize rewards and recognition for positive approaches and accomplishments in the changes and change management. Celebrate each small win publicly.

9.7   MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE - THE HUMAN RESOURCES ANGLE

Management depends upon the successful management of people. No matter the sophistication of management technique in use, for as long as it does not take cognizance of human behaviour and attitudes, an otherwise efficient technique will be rendered ineffective.

Those responsible for the establishment of relationships conducive to management efficiency are:

i.   **Top Management:** It determines the morale of staff through the formulation of policy. The attitudes of top management will directly affect those below them, either positively or negatively. In like manner, the attitudes of the deputies also affect their subordinates. A tight control at the top will reproduce the same pattern at all levels.

ii.   **Managers and Supervisors:** They work in close relationship with the workforce. As a result of their nearness to the workforce they are expected to have intimate understanding of the people and should therefore adopt attitudes suited to the characteristic of the individuals or group of individuals that work under them.

iii. **Personnel Officers:** They carry out specialist functions in human relations. They do not have day-to-day contacts with the employees as do other managers. They implement the human relations policy and hence they relate to the workforce in a general sense.

They may be required to handle specific personnel matters such as setting a dispute. While attempting to create a favorable climate for human relations, management must take cognizance of the following:

- **Human Understanding:** The uniqueness of the individual must be considered when designing an effective human relations system. This requires that different approaches be used for different persons. For instance, some people can be effectively checked by simply having a firm talk with them. This may not work with another.

- **Recognition of Motive:** People have different motives and attitudes to work. While some will gladly accept responsibility, others may shy away from it referring routine work. A man who prefers routine work is certainly not suitable for challenging work and is incapable of initiatives and leaderships.

- **Approach Attitude:** Human relationship should not be approached with preconceived inflexible attitude. A manager must be prepared to listen and to understand other's attitude.

- **Recognition of Talent:** A manager must be able to identify talent in his staff and to exploit them for the best interest of management.

- **Recognition of Individual Differences:** Individuals in an organization differ in their attributes and deposition in erm of mental abilities, emotional demands, personality characteristics, physical and sensory capacities.

9.8   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognize, understand, and regulate one's own emotions, as well as those of others. In the workplace, EI is increasingly seen as a critical component of successful conflict resolution and interpersonal relationships.

The concept of emotional intelligence was first introduced by psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990. EI later gained public interest in 1995 when Daniel Goleman published "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ." Goleman presented the argument that EI is critical when determining success in one's life and that it plays a significant role in the workplace.

EI and its role in the workplace soon attracted the attention of leaders, human resources workers, and business owners. Early research suggested that EI can influence an employee's productivity

and how well they interact with their colleagues and leadership teams. It also played an important role in how employees managed stress, navigated conflict, and how they felt about their role within the organization.

Over the years, emotional intelligence, which is measured by Emotional Quotient (EQ) has evolved into a must-have skill. Research by EQ provider ''Talent Smart'' shows that emotional intelligence is the strongest predictor of performance. Employees with high emotional intelligence are more likely to stay calm under pressure, resolve conflict effectively, and respond to co-workers with empathy. The five components of emotional intelligence are Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Motivation, Empathy, and Social skills.

The Five components of Emotional Intelligence at Work

	Definition	**Features**
Self-awareness	Ability to recognize and understand one's own moods, emotions, and drives, and their effect on others.	Self-confidence, realistic self-assessment, self-deprecating sense of humor.
Self-regulation	Ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods. Propensity to hold the judgment and thinking before acting.	Trustworthiness and integrity. Comfort when ambiguous. Open to change.
Motivation	Passion to work, not just for money or status. Energetic and persistent in pursuing goals.	Achievement-driven. Optimism even when facing failure. Organizational commitment.
Empathy	Ability to understand the emotional profile of others. Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions.	Expertise in building and retaining talent. Cross-cultural sensitivity. Service to clients and customers.

Social skill	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks. Ability to find common ground and build rapport.	Effectiveness in leading change. Persuasiveness. Expertise in building and leading teams.

Source: Daniel Goleman's Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ cited in Rani (2015).

9.9   LEADERSHIP INNOVATION

The term "innovation" is a broad-based concept that embraces all such activities that contribute to the efficient introduction and exploitation of new improved processes and products which are critical to the competitive performance and long-term growth of any industrial economy. The leadership structure of organizations helps produce results that can encourage creativity and innovation. However, not every kind of leadership model is effective in creating this opportunity. Investments in certain kinds of leadership styles and models can produce results that generate creativity. Successful organizations have discovered that shared and collaborative leadership, rather than heroic and authoritarian management, is what unlocks the potential of organizations.

Organizations that operate from the authoritarian, hierarchical, command and control model, where the top leaders control the work, information, decisions, and allocation of resources, produce employees that are less empowered, less creative, and less productive. This kind of model focuses on leadership as an extension of the top leader's actions and will. This heroic model of leadership was popular in the 19th century but continues even today in many organizations. Organizations express the modern version of this leadership approach in followers' perceptions of leaders as those with all of the great ideas and who achieve great successes in the organization single-handedly. In such organizations, the leaders occupy central places and the followers believe these leaders are ultimately responsible for every outcome, as well as ensuring that the organizational processes work smoothly.

This heroic approach to leadership has little chance of bringing innovation and renewal because leaders do not single-handedly lead organizations to greatness. Rather, leadership involves many

individuals with various tools and skills who together transform the organization. The alternative form of leadership is that it is not the ability of one person to take charge, but the ability to inspire, empower, and exert broad influence in the organization. Contemporary leaders know that no individual has all the ideas, the skills, and time to carry out the complex tasks of contemporary leadership. They know that organizations will not survive if their leadership is limited to the top leaders because leadership opportunities exist at every level of the organization. Therefore, for an organization to become innovative and successful, it must benefit from the creativity of all its members. Organizations can achieve this by harnessing all its leadership abilities. Everyone in the organization in some way needs to be involved in its leadership.

Research has shown that 21st-century organizations are knowledge-based and require that everyone share the experience of serving as a leader; this means sharing power, responsibility, values and aspirations, and working together to bring success to the organization. When this happens, the organization gets rid of a suffocating dependence of the followers on the top leader, which releases them to contribute their natural abilities to the organization. It has been maintained that many creative and successful organizations today depend on multiple sources of effective leadership at all levels rather than maintaining a command-and-control leadership structure that often stifles creativity. Therefore, the best way to build an innovative, vibrant, and effective organization is to diffuse leadership and empower everyone through training and coaching so that they become creative and effective leaders themselves.

How Leaders Encourage Creativity and Innovation

Creativity is the ability to develop novel and unique notions or ideas. It entails implementing conventional modes of thought and tackling issues from novel perspectives. Creativity is important in business domains where innovation is crucial. On the other hand, innovation entails translating original ideas into workable solutions that benefit a firm. It entails using new concepts, procedures, or goods to boost an organization's productivity or competitiveness.

In today's fast-paced and competitive business environment, creativity and innovation in leadership has become a critical factor for success. Companies that prioritize creativity and innovation are more likely to outperform their peers, stay ahead of the curve and continue to grow. A leader's responsibility is to foster an environment that encourages and supports innovation.

Hence, Creativity and innovation are essential for businesses to remain competitive and adjust to changing market circumstances. Organizations that cannot innovate risk are falling behind and becoming obsolete in today's fast-paced and quickly changing business climate.

However, it is easy to slip into old habits and do things "the way they've always been done." With that in mind, the underlisted are some of the ways; leaders adopt in encouraging and boosting their creativity and innovation in leadership towards propelling their team members to new heights:

i.   **Establishing a Culture of Psychological Safety**

Staff members need to feel confident in taking chances and speaking out for their ideas without worrying about the repercussions. By fostering open communication, paying attention to the opinions of their employees, and valuing constructive criticism, leaders may create an environment where people feel comfortable. As well as responding to employee concerns in a non-defensive and non-judgmental way, leaders should be receptive to constructive criticism.

ii.   **Promoting Diversity and Inclusion**

Diverse origins, experiences, and viewpoints may lead to the generation of fresh, original ideas. Leaders may promote diversity and inclusion by actively seeking and appreciating many viewpoints, backgrounds, and experiences. This might include seeking out diverse talent, implementing inclusive workplace policies, and fostering an atmosphere where everyone's opinions are valued.

iii. **Giving Resources and Support**

Innovation needs resources like time, money, and access to technology to experiment and generate ideas. Leaders may encourage innovation and creativity by providing these essential resources. This might include forming specialized innovation teams, setting up innovation laboratories, or giving staff members time to work on their initiatives. Leaders may also provide mentoring and training to enhance staff's innovative abilities.

iv.   **Acknowledging and Rewarding Innovative Contributions**

Rewarding creativity and innovation may inspire people to work harder. Leaders may reward and acknowledge creative contributions by highlighting achievements, giving

growth opportunities, and providing incentives for novel ideas. Leaders need to ensure that awards and recognition reflect the values and objectives of the company.

v. **Leading by Example**

Leaders may encourage creativity and innovation by setting an example for the conduct they want in their team members. Examples are risk-taking, seeing failure as a teaching opportunity, and promoting experimentation and inquiry. Also, leaders must be receptive to fresh perspectives and methods as well as prepared to question the status quo when appropriate.

9.10 CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict is a condition that arises when two or more individuals or groups perceive their own interests as being challenged by others and when strong feelings can be aroused. According to Etzioni, conflicts though not a definition states that, supervisors, organizational units, or staff division often come into conflict with one another either because of the principles that divide labour among them and prescribe their relations as not clear or because the prescribed rules are being adhered to by some but not by others or because differences or interest, viewpoint, or personalities need to be reconciled.

Conflicts can further be defined as any discontent or dissatisfaction that affects organizational performance. As such, it can be stated or unvoiced, written, or oral, legitimate, or ridiculous. The only major restriction in this definition is that the discontent must affect worker performance. Despite the best of management practices in acting and communicating conflicts, between employees and the organization will occur. A total absence of conflict would be unbelievable, boring and a strong indication that such conflicts are being suppressed.

Discovery of Conflicts of Interest

For many reasons, there is now more communication in organization than before the human relation movement as well as the activities of labour unions have led to this development.

These are some of the ways that conflict is discovered:

i. **Direct Observation:** Here a good supervisor knows the customary behaviour of subordinates and when significant changes in that behaviour occur, he or she is concerned

with possible motives, observations which may show a decline. Also, such statistics as grievance rates, accident rates, request for transfer, resignations and disciplinary cases may reveal that an unspoken conflict exists.

ii. **Suggestion Box:** Here the staff is free to submit their complaints anonymously.

iii. **Open Door Policy:** This is where the executives allow all calibre of staff to interact with them freely. Most of times this does is not actually happen as the executives are "too busy" to give the junior staff such audience. But where it actually works, they are capable of detecting and removing grievances even before they mature.

iv. **Exit Interview:** This is an interview granted by a departing employee. If the truth can be told, it is a good source of discovering the causes of dissatisfaction in organizations.

v. **The Ombudsman:** This is an additional ear for the Chief Executive. Although he is meant to receive and resolve grievance, the use it serves in this section for discovering of conflicts. Complaints taken to him which an employee is not able to take to his direct boss serves as a source of data for types and prevalence of conflicts in the organization.

vi. **Group Meeting:** Here some Chief Executives or supervisors do solicit or complaints publicly at group meetings. At such meetings individuals who cannot complain on their own pick courage and reveal hidden conflicts. Some Executives use this soliciting method in individual interviews with present employees to discover sources of difficulty.

9.10.1 Types of Conflicts

There are five types of conflict.

i. **Structural:** It occurs because of cross functional departmental differences over goals, time horizons, rewards, authority, line and staff activities, status, and resources. Conflict can occur between staff and line position over status and authority differences.

ii. **Intrapersonal:** This occurs within an individual. This type of conflict is divided into three:

iii. Intra-role Conflict: This refers to a situation where a person receives conflicting information from others concerning a particular role.

iv. **Inter role Conflict:** This occur when an individual experiences pressure over several roles in the job or life, e.g., a single mother that is also working.

v. **Person role Conflict:** The third type, the person-role conflict occurs when a person, may experience conflict over being pressured to follow standards other than his own.

vi.   **Inter-Personal Conflict:** This type of conflicts occurs between two or more individual. One of the causes of this type of conflict is when a person is difficult. Some people are hostile - and aggressive in nature. The second type is the "know it all" which is subdivided into the "Bulldozers and "Balloons". Bulldozers are people who do know a subject competently but use their competency to bully others.

Balloons on the other hand are people who do not know a subject well and bluff instead.

vii. **Inter-Group Conflict:** This occurs as a result of disagreement over any number of substantive issues. Also, basic differences in group structures can often be sources of pressure between groups.

viii. **Inter-Organization Conflict:** This occurs between enterprise and External Stakeholders Large Scale Strikes e.g. The one between ASSU – Academic Staff Union of Universities and the Federal Government of Nigeria.

9.11   CONFLICT RESOLUTION MANAGEMENT

There are five types of conflict management.

i.   **Competing:** This is used when quick decision action is vital e.g. emergencies. On important issues where, unpopular action need implementing. On issues vital to company welfare when an individual knows he or she is right. And against people who take advantage of non-competitive behaviour.

ii. **Collaborating:** To find an integrative solution when both sets of concern are too important to be compromised when the objective is to learn, to merge insights from people with different perspectives. To gain commitment by incorporating concerns into consensus. To work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship.

iii. **Compromising:** When the goals are important, but not worth the effort or potential description of more assertive modes when opponents with equal power are committed to mutually exclusive goals. To achieve temporary settlement to complex issues. To arrive at expedient solutions under time pressure. And as a backup when collaboration or competition is unsuccessful.

iv. **Avoiding**: this is used when an issue is stalled, or there are more important issues at hand. When there is a perception of no chance of satisfying the aggrieved parties when potential description inter-weights the benefits of resolution. To let people, cool down and regain

perspective and when gathering information supersedes immediate desires and when others can resolve the conflict more effectively.

v. **Accommodating:** When you find you are wrong to allow a better position to be heard, learnt and to show your reasonableness. When issues are more important to others than yourself. To build social credits for later issues. To minimize loss when you are outmatched and losing when harmony and stability are especially important to allow employees to develop by learning from mistakes.

9.12   GLOBAL PRACTICES IN LEADERSHIP ENGAGEMENT

From better performance and productivity to lower turnover and absenteeism, employee engagement is an outcome measure that benefits both companies and employees. And while everyone across an organization plays a role, leaders are uniquely positioned to inspire employees to do their best work or push them to disconnect and disengage. The discussion below is on how leadership influences employee engagement and share best practices that lead to the signs of engaged employees.

Leadership Best Practices to Improve Employee Engagement

For an improved to improved leadership engagement, the underlisted are the various by which this can be achieved.

i. **Building trust**

First on your leadership and employee engagement to-do list, Build trust. Engagement is about nurturing relationships, motivating employees, and celebrating progress together. Employees are more likely to trust leaders who ask, listen, and act on feedback. Showing intentionality and transparency helps everyone feel more comfortable and confident, building trust.

ii. **Prioritizing organizational health and well-being**

Employee well-being and organizational health have become a priority for many companies. Employees are more likely to stay engaged in day-to-day activities if they are healthy and feel well. And when leaders improve employee well-being, they also prevent

burnout and improve productivity. Organizational health and well-being attract new business and talent to your organization.

iii. **Showing enthusiasm for your work**

Passion is contagious, so genuine enthusiasm for your work and the company's mission is essential. At Top Workplaces, this is called role modelling. Promoting enthusiasm and positivity at the leadership level creates an organizational opportunity mindset, which can help minimize manager burnout and teach employees how to turn challenging situations into growth opportunities.

iv. **Setting clear expectations**

Setting clear expectations is part of the basic employee value proposition. It begins early in the hiring process and continues throughout the employee experience. Top Workplaces excel at expectation setting:

v. **Sharing goals and strategies**

Empowering employees to execute is one of the culture themes that drive engagement. Employees feel well-informed when leaders share important decisions, goals, and strategies. This transparency helps teams prioritize and shows employees how they fit into your broader business strategy.

vi. **Encouraging training and development**

Leaders can encourage training and development by incentivizing managers to grow their employees, even if it results in team transitions. They can also equip managers with resources to support employee development. Research shows that Top Workplaces winners realize the benefits of training and development:

vii. **Recognizing employees and show appreciation**

Top Workplaces research shows that appreciation and recognition are among the strongest drivers of employee engagement. Recognition makes employees feel appreciated, which encourages higher commitment and productivity. Showing appreciation regularly ensures employees think about their value within the organization regularly. If you haven't already,

learn more about the importance of employee recognition in your organization and explore these employee recognition ideas for more ways to celebrate.

viii. **Encouraging workplace friendships and socialization**

Encouraging friendships and socialization among employees help engagement in a few ways. Socializing makes day-to-day work more enjoyable, exciting employees to return to work. It also helps people feel more open to sharing how they feel, which helps organizations improve company culture and efficiency.

ix. **Keeping distractions to a minimum**

Inefficiency is a significant cause of poor performance for individuals, teams — and the organization. Inefficient processes and procedures are a big source of frustration for employees, especially when they have no way to address them.

An efficient organization makes good use of its investments, increasing profit with less expense. And when people feel like part of a winning team, they feel empowered to do what needs to be done to support the company's mission.

x. **Listening to employees and follow up**

Keeping an open line of communication helps employees and managers feel like they can approach leaders with comments and questions. Great leadership teams know they need employee feedback to improve efficiency and performance. They also know that lack of follow-through is one of the main reasons why employees leave. Listen to your people and follow up on discussions. It's the perfect way to get insights from those closest to the customer or product.

xi. **Advocating for employees**

Employee engagement is all about creating a people-first culture and supporting employee needs. To do so, you need to know employee interests, values, strengths, and weaknesses. Make it clear that you understand all concerns and want to do anything necessary to make them feel their best. Adjusting roles, switching teams, and introducing new technology are great ways to advocate for your employees.

xii.   **Asking for feedback**

Nurturing the relationship between leadership and employee engagement starts and ends with communication. Ask employees how they feel about important issues and try to collect feedback whenever possible. Combining initiatives like employee engagement surveys and regular check-ins helps leaders collect information on a continuous, measured basis. Employee feedback should be a roadmap for leadership growth and development.

9.13   TALENT MANAGEMENT AND ENGAGEMENT PROCESS IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Talent management is an essential aspect of any organization's success. It involves identifying, attracting, developing, and retaining talent to achieve business goals. Studies have shown that companies with effective talent management strategies outperform their competitors in revenue growth and profitability. In this section, we will discuss the importance of talent management, its process and life cycle of, and how you can become better at managing talent. We will explore strategies and best practices to help you build a robust talent management program to attract, develop and retain the right people for your organization's success.

Talent management is the comprehensive process of attracting, developing, and retaining skilled individuals. It encompasses a range of strategies and practices aimed at identifying, nurturing, and leveraging talent to achieve organizational objectives. It involves HR activities such as recruitment, selection, onboarding, training and development, performance management, succession planning, and employee engagement. These processes collectively ensure that the right people are in the right roles and equipped with the necessary skills and support to contribute effectively to the organization's success.

Importance of Talent Management

Talent Management plays a pivotal role in the success and sustainability of organizations. In a rapidly evolving business landscape, where talent is a valuable asset, effective strategies for managing talent become essential to attract, develop, and retain top performers. It allows organizations to attract and hire skilled individuals with the necessary expertise and capabilities to drive business growth. By implementing robust recruitment and selection processes, organizations can identify talent that aligns with their values and objectives. This ensures a pool of qualified

candidates who can contribute to the organization's success. Additionally, talent management helps create a positive employer brand, attracting high-potential candidates and differentiating the organization from its competitors.

Also, talent management focuses on the development and a culture of continuous learning for employees. By investing in training programs, mentorship, and career development opportunities, organizations enhance the skills and knowledge of their workforce. This improves employee performance and cultivates a culture of innovation and adaptability. Furthermore, it involves succession planning, which identifies and prepares future leaders within the organization. This proactive approach ensures a seamless transition of leadership, minimizes talent gaps and sustains organizational effectiveness in the long term.

Talent Management Process & Life Cycle

The talent management process refers to the systematic approach used by organizations to attract, develop, motivate, and retain talented individuals. It involves interconnected steps designed to optimize the organization's talent pool. At the same time, the talent management life cycle refers to the various stages involved in managing talent within an organization, from attracting candidates to their development and eventual departure. However, the steps of the talent management process and life cycle can be depicted as follows. While their specific stages may vary across organizations, here is a general outline of the same.

i. **Planning and Strategy:** The talent management process begins with aligning strategies with the organization's goals and objectives. This involves identifying the skills, competencies, and positions needed to achieve those objectives and creating a plan for managing talent.

ii. **Attraction and Recruitment:** In this stage, organizations focus on attracting qualified candidates through various channels such as job postings, career fairs, online platforms, and networking. Recruitment efforts aim to reach potential talent and generate a pool of candidates who meet the organization's requirements.

iii. **Selection and Hiring:** The selection phase involves assessing candidates through interviews, assessments, reference checks, and other evaluation methods to identify the

most suitable individuals for the positions. The hiring decision is based on the evaluation results and alignment with organizational needs.

iv. **Onboarding and Integration:** Once candidates are hired, the onboarding process begins. This includes providing necessary information, orientation, and training to help new employees become familiar with the organization's culture, policies, procedures, and roles. Effective onboarding facilitates a smooth integration into the organization and sets the foundation for employee success.

v. **Development and Training:** This stage focuses on employees' ongoing learning and development opportunities. Organizations provide training programs, workshops, mentoring, coaching, and other developmental initiatives to enhance employees' skills, knowledge, and capabilities. Development plans are tailored to individual needs, career aspirations, and organizational requirements.

vi. **Performance Management:** Performance management involves setting clear goals, providing regular feedback, and evaluating employee performance. Managers and employees engage in performance discussions to review achievements, identify areas for improvement, and align performance with organizational objectives. This stage helps identify high-potential employees and provides opportunities for recognition and rewards.

vii. **Succession Planning:** Succession planning aims to identify and develop future leaders within the organization. It involves assessing employees' potential and readiness for leadership roles and creating plans to groom them for critical positions. Succession planning ensures a smooth transition of leadership and minimizes talent gaps.

viii. **Employee Engagement and Retention:** Engaging and retaining talent is crucial to the talent management life cycle. Organizations implement strategies to enhance employee engagement, such as providing a positive work environment, offering competitive compensation and benefits, recognizing achievements, and promoting work-life balance. These efforts contribute to employee satisfaction, loyalty, and long-term retention.

ix. **Separation and Transition:** At some point, employees may leave the organization due to retirement, career changes, or other reasons. The talent management process also involves managing employee separations and transitions respectfully and professionally. This can include exit interviews, knowledge transfer, and maintaining positive relationships with former employees.

Talent Management Strategies

Organizations often employ the following five strategies to attract, develop, and retain top talent. Remember, these strategies are not exhaustive, and organizations should tailor their approaches to suit their specific needs and objectives.

i. **Recruitment and Selection:** This strategy focuses on attracting highly skilled individuals who align with the organization's values and goals. It involves using various recruitment channels, such as online job portals, social media platforms, and professional networks, to identify and engage potential candidates. Effective selection processes, including interviews, assessments, and reference checks, help ensure the right fit for the organization.

ii. **Employee Development and Training:** This strategy emphasizes employees' continuous learning and development. Organizations invest in training programs, workshops, seminars, and online courses to enhance employees' skills, knowledge, and capabilities. Development opportunities can include leadership development, technical skills training, mentoring programs, and cross-functional assignments, fostering employee growth and career progression.

iii. **Performance Management:** Performance management involves setting clear goals, providing regular feedback, and evaluating employee performance. Organizations establish performance metrics and conduct periodic reviews to assess individual and team achievements. Effective performance management systems enable the identification of high-potential employees, provide opportunities for recognition and rewards, and address performance gaps through coaching and support.

iv. **Succession Planning:** Succession planning focuses on identifying and developing future leaders within the organization. It involves assessing employees' potential and readiness for leadership roles and developing plans to groom them for future positions. Succession planning ensures a pipeline of talented individuals who can step into key roles when needed, reducing talent gaps and enhancing organizational stability.

v. **Employee Engagement and Retention:** This strategy aims to create a positive work environment and foster a sense of commitment and loyalty among employees. Organizations employ various initiatives, such as competitive compensation packages, work-life balance programs, recognition and rewards systems, and employee wellness

programs, to enhance job satisfaction and engagement. Regular communication, opportunities for career advancement, and a supportive culture also contribute to retaining top talent.

Talent Management Best Practices

i. **Strategic Alignment:** Align talent management practices with organizational goals and objectives to drive success.

ii. **Clear Job Descriptions:** Provide clear and comprehensive job descriptions to attract suitable candidates and set performance expectations.

iii. **Effective Onboarding:** Implement a well-structured onboarding process to help new hires integrate quickly and contribute to the organization.

iv. **Continuous Learning:** Encourage ongoing learning and development opportunities to enhance employee skills and keep up with industry trends.

v. **Performance Feedback:** Provide regular and constructive feedback to employees to improve performance and drive improvement.

vi. **Career Pathing:** Develop clear career paths and growth opportunities to engage and retain talented individuals within the organization.

vii. **Succession Planning:** Identify and groom high-potential employees for future leadership positions to ensure continuity and minimize talent gaps.

viii. **Diversity and Inclusion:** Foster a diverse, inclusive work environment that values different perspectives and experiences.

ix. **Employee Engagement:** Implement initiatives to enhance employee engagement, such as recognition programs, work-life balance, and open communication.

x. **Data-Driven Decision Making:** Leverage talent analytics and data to inform talent management decisions and drive strategic outcomes.

Talent management attracts, develops, and retains talented employees to achieve your business objectives. It's no secret that top talent is essential to the success of any organization. Talent management is crucial in ensuring you have the right people in the right positions at the right time. To optimize your process of managing talent, you must develop effective strategies and implement best practices aligning with your organizational goals. Implement the strategy given in our blog

on talent management best practices and strategies to learn how to become better at attracting, developing, and retaining top talent in today's hyper-competitive business environment.

SUMMARY

Leadership is multi-dimensional. It involves the use of influence and interpersonal relations. It is an agent of change and goal accomplishment. This chapter discussed among other things leadership and communications as it relates to HRM, Change Management and its communication, Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Innovations, Conflict Resolution and its management, Global Practices in Leadership engagement and Talent management and Engagement process in leadership Development

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Communication is a crucial element in administration and perceived as the ……………
   A. heart of management.
   B. smoothing administrative procedure
   C. nerve centre of administration.
   D. blood stream of an organization.

2. "Leaders are born and not made" is perception based on ……………………. of leadership.
   A. Contingency Theory
   B. Trait Theory
   C. Fiedler's Model
   D. Situational

3. Which of the following term is used in leadership research to describe a leader who shows a great degree of Emphasis on the welfare of his/her subordinates?
   A. Employee centered.
   B. Production centered.
   C. Compassion centered
   D. Work oriented

4. Charisma is related to which type of leadership?
   A. Managerial.
   B. Transformational.
   C. Relationship motivated.
   D. Employee centered.

5. What are the two-basic type of leadership?
   A. Ethical and programmed
   B. Programmed and crafted
   C. Programmed and certain
   D. Crafted and uncertain

6. Interpersonal communication is the:
   A. Process of translating and idea or thought into meaningful symbols.
   B. Interpretation of symbols sent from sender to the receiver.
   C. Process of telling someone else how can feels about something the person did or said about the situation in general.
   D. Process of sending and receiving symbols with attached meanings-from one person-to another.

7. Effective communication occurs when:
   A. The receiver does as the sender says.
   B. Job satisfaction is improved.

C. The intended meaning of the source is the same as the perceived meaning of the receiver.
D. The sender is clear and articulate.

8. The proper continuity of communication system in public administration is a serious problem. Identify the hindrance blow which must be removed first?
    A. Language difficulty.
    B. Frame of mind.
    C. Status distance.
    D. Geographical distance.

9. The oral and written communication of individual is mentioned in the following. identify the most effective communication.
    A. Discretion of the individual.
    B. Individual skills.
    C. Individual intelligence.
    D. Personal contacts.

10. Which of the following statement regarding communication is false? Communication is ………………
    A. perception.
    B. expectation.
    C. feedback mechanism.
    D. synonymous with information.

11. Open door policy is an aid to ……………………………………. Communication.
    A. downward
    B. upward
    C. vertical
    D. horizontal

12. A geographical information system is a location-related computer programme data and maps for a variety of uses.
    A. True
    B. False
    C. Either A or B
    D. Neither A nor B

13. The key elements of the communication process include all but which of the following?
    A. An interpreter.
    B. A receiver.
    C. A source.
    D. Feedback.

14. Non-verbal communication is:
    A. The acknowledgment of a message and a response to its reception.

B. Communication through physical gesture.
C. The same as noise.
D. Anything that interferes with the effectiveness of the communication attempt.

15. According to Weber, the three types of leadership are:
    A. Charismatic, traditional, legal/rational.
    B. Titular, controllers, organizers.
    C. Institutionalists, specialists, hybrids.
    D. Charismatic, institutionalists, specialists.

16. Communication runs faster in a …………………………………………………… structure.
    A. Centralized
    B. Decentralized
    C. Matrix
    D. Line

17. Which of the following leadership styles was identified by the Michigan University Leadership Studies as the most effective leadership style?
    A. Democratic style
    B. Employee-centred
    C. Participative group
    D. Team

18. Which of the following is the foundation of modern Human Resource?
    A. Specialization
    B. Compensation
    C. Job Analysis
    D. Job Evaluation

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Examine the concept of Leadership in HRM
2. Explain the Models of Communication
3. Demonstrate your understanding of Change management
4. What recommendations can you make about Communication for Effective Change Management
5. Describe the term ''Emotional intelligence''
6. Examine the process of Conflict Resolution Management
7. What are the Global Best Practices in Leadership engagement
8. Talent management and Engagement process in leadership Development is important. Discuss
9. Demonstrate the Talent Management Process & Life Cycle
10. Explain the various Talent Management Strategies you are familiar with.

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SOLUTIONS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

CHAPTER ONE

1. B
2. A
3. A
4. C
5. C
6. C
7. A
8. C
9. A
10. C

CHAPTER TWO

1. B
2. A
3. C
4. B
5. D
6. D
7. A
8. C
9. A
10. B

CHAPTER THREE

1. C
2. A
3. B
4. B

5. A
6. C
7. A
8. C
9. D
10. C
11. C

CHAPTER FOUR

1. C
2. A
3. B
4. A
5. C
6. A
7. B
8. A
9. D
10. C
11. C
12. B
13. B

CHAPTER FIVE

1. C
2. C
3. B
4. C
5. A
6. C
7. A

8. C

9. B

10. C

11. B

12. C

13. B

14. D

15. C

CHAPTER SIX

1. C

2. D

3. D

4. A

5. C

6. A

7. B

8. A

9. B

10. D

11. B

12. C

13. D

14. A

15. D

16. D

17. C

18. C

CHAPTER SEVEN

1. D

2. D
3. C
4. B
5. C
6. D
7. D
8. C
9. D
10. B
11. C
12. A
13. D
14. A
15. C
16. C

CHAPTER EIGHT

1. C
2. C
3. B
4. B
5. C
6. C
7. A
8. D
9. B
10. A

CHAPTER NINE

1. A
2. B

3. A
4. B
5. B
6. D
7. C
8. C
9. D
10. D
11. B
12. A
13. A
14. B
15. A
16. A
17. B
18. A