

PRINCE ABUBAKAR AUDU
UNIVERSITY



READINGS

IN

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Editors

D.O. Adeyemo
J.O. Achegbulu
J.S. Ujah



SENATE BUILDING

**Prince Abubakar Audu University,
Anyigba, Kogi State**

MOTTO

Knowledge for Self-Reliance

Anthem

**Prince Abubakar Audu University,
You stand in strength and pride
showing the why for who yearn
Standing firm in wisdom and truth
In unity we grow.**

**Commitment in impacting
Knowledge, skills and learning
To all who long for excellence
Prince Abubakar Audu University,
The pride of the world
We honour your virtue**

KNOWLEDGE FOR SELF RELIANCE

National Anthem



**Nigeria we hail thee,
Our own dear native land,
Though tribe and tongue may differ,
In brotherhood, we stand,
Nigerians all, and proud to serve
Our sovereign Motherland.
Our flag shall be a symbol
That truth and justice reign,
In peace or battle honour'd,
And this we count as gain,
To hand on to our children
A banner without stain.
O God of all creation,
Grant this our one request,
Help us to build a nation
Where no man is oppressed,
And so with peace and plenty
Nigeria may be blessed.**



Edited By:

Hassan Achimugu, Joseph Odoaba Achegbulu & John Sule Ujah

PRINCE ABUBAKAR AUDU UNIVERSITY, ANYIGBA

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Theme:

READINGS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

SECOND EDITION

Copyright @ 2024

Readings in Public Administration

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

Faculty of Management Sciences,

Department of Public Administration.

All right reserved

No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means (except for scholarly or academic purposes), without prior permission from the publisher/Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba, Kogi State.

PROFILE OF EDITORS

Hassan Achimugu is Senior Lecturer in Public Administration and Policy at the Department of Public Administration. Hassan has over a decade of university teaching/research experience, spanning the Kogi State University, Anyigba Nigeria, as well as adjunct/visiting positions in East and Southern Africa, with research interest/bias that spans Public policy, Public Sector Reforms/Political Institution Building, Decentralised/inclusive governance in transitional states, International/NGO interventions in the public sector, Public Health Human Resource Capacity Building, Local government administration as well as Peace, Conflict and Development studies. He is a member of the prestigious European Consortium for Political Research (ECPR) UK, International Society for Development and Sustainability, Japan. Development Studies Association (DSA) UK, Association of Nigerian University Administrators (ANUPA), and Health Development Guild Nigeria (HDg-N), among others. He has at various times served as Management and Institution Building consultant to projects supported by International Development Organisations like, USAID, DFID (UK) etc, and equally served as Technical Assistant/National Coordinator (Ethics and Values), to the Special Adviser to the President of the Federal Republic Of Nigeria, on Ethics and Values, at the Presidency, Abuja. Dr. Achimugu obtained a PhD (Public Administration and Policy) from the Kogi State University, Anyigba Nigeria, in 2014, after an Msc Public Administration degree from the Benue State University, Makurdi Nigeria, and Bsc Public Administration (Second Class Upper Division).

Joseph O. Achegbulu graduated with B.A (Hons) Public Administration, Master of Public Administration and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Public Administration from the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria in 1988, 1999 and 2010 respectively. He became a Reader in Public Administration in October, 2018. He has served in several capacities and was Head, Department of Public Administration (2014-2020). He has special interest in Human Capital Development, Development Studies and Conflict Resolution. He has published widely in many reputable national and International Journals, books and chapters in Books.

J.S. Ujah, holds a doctorate degree in Public Administration. He studied at the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria; the University of Nigeria Nsukka, Usmanu Danfodio University, Sokoto and Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba. He has served in several committees both at the Departmental and Faculty level. He had been one-time HOD Public Administration. He had published in reputable Journals both local and foreign. His main areas of interest are Human Resources Management, Development and environment Studies, Political Economy, Inter-Governmental Relations etc. He is a member of some professional bodies. He is currently a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.

MEMBERS OF THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

| | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Assoc. Prof. Hassan Achimugu | Head/Chairman/ Editor-in-Chief |
| Prof. J.O. Achegbulu | Member |
| Assoc. Prof. J.S. Ujah | Member |
| Assoc. Prof. J.U. Agboni | Member |
| Dr. P.U. Okeme | Member |
| Dr. O.O. Ifatimehin | Member |

ISBN:

Printed in Nigeria By:.....

Phone Number:.....

NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

1. Joseph Odoaba Achegbulu, Ph.D is a Professor in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
2. John Sule Ujah, Ph.D is a Associate Professor in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
3. Joy Uyo Agboni, Ph.D is a Associate Professor in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
4. Hassan Achimugu, Ph.D is a Associate Professor in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
5. Patrick Ukwumonu Okeme, Ph.D. is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
6. Olayemi Olufemi Ifatimehin Ph.D is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
7. Abdullahi Aliyu is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
8. Gabriel Nelson is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
9. Barnabas, Rosemary Nneoma Ph. D. is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
10. Paul Ocholi Oyibo is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
11. Felicia Uloko is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
12. Isyak Ogirima Ibrahim is a Lecturer in Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
13. Olumorin Monica .O. is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
14. Aminu Audu is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
15. Abdullahi Bala Musa is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
16. Alih Musa is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
17. Yunusa Amodu is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.
18. Omale Danjuma is a Lecturer in the Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba.

PREFACE

A lot of efforts have been put in place to increase the volume of literature in the field of Public Administration. What is perhaps a challenge has been the avalanche of literatures that exactly fits in the contemporary Public Administration especially within the Nigerian context. This is particularly so as a result of the fluid and dynamic nature of the theories and practices of Public Administration. To satisfy the need, authors in these seventeen chaptered Book of Readings have examined the influence of Public Administration from historic perspective through contemporary realities.

Issues discussed within the orbit of the of the book starts with chapter one that examines the importance of organization and administrative theory. It particularly x-rayed the historical ascendancy of organizational and administrative theories and its application in developing societies with reference to the Nigerian settings. Ecology is an exposure factor to the dynamism that usually greets public administration. Chapter two examines the Environment as it affects Sustainable National Development which is a driver to the growth and development of Nigeria. The growth of Nigerian Economy has been influenced greatly by the Nigerian Government. The rolling back of government as informed by the Keynesian theory has well inform the growth of Public Enterprise in Nigeria. Chapter Three examines the Management of Public Enterprise in Nigeria.

The successful management of Public Enterprises is one of the keys to the management of conflict. This is because conflict is a part of human existence. Chapter four consequently offers a discourse on Peace and Conflict Management. The accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives requires effective manpower planning. Chapter five dwells on a discussion on the Human Resource Planning while Chapter Seven is the Concept of Human Resource Management.

In order to track and inform the direction of changes in Public Administration, the need for research cannot be over-emphasized. Therefore, those within the domain of public Administration must be grounded on the subject matter. One sure way is the knowledge of Research Methodology. Chapter Seven therefore offers the Reader a run through Research in Public Administration. Researches have enhanced the workability of Public Administration the world over, with innovations on how to get results effectively and efficiency. Chapter Eight examines the realities of E-Governance in Emerging societies with emphasis on Nigeria. Chapter Nine is a robust discussion of Public Administration in Nigeria and Global Practices.

Public Administration champion changes in public space therefore Public Policies are the vehicle that usher changes in the Public Domain. Chapter ten X-rays Public Policy Making Space in Nigeria. One important role of government in the Public/Social space is the catering for the welfare of the citizens. Invariably, this is the responsibility of the government. Chapter Eleven offers a discussion on Social Welfare Administration. The place of politics in the Public/Social Space cannot be over emphasized. Chapter Twelve introduces the reader to Politics.

There is a strong linkage between Public Administration and the Society. The chapter that follows examines the Society as it relates to Public Administration. The chapter is tagged “Rural and Community Development Administration in Nigeria”. While the chapter that precedes this examined the welfare of the personnel in the public domain. This chapter is equally tagged “Wages and Salaries Administration in Nigeria”. A practical dimension to Public Administration is unravel in Chapter Fifteen tagged “Workshop in Public Administration. Chapter Sixteen is an international dimension to Public Administration tagged “Introduction to International Relations”. The concluding chapter in the book is a robust discussion on the Nigerian Public Administration. It offers the readers a deep understanding of Public Administration in Nigeria.

The well-structured Seventeen chaptered Book of Reading contributes in filling knowledge gaps as well as adding to eliminate the dearth of literature of contemporary Nigerian Realities. I therefore, recommend this book for Scholars, Students, Researchers, Administrators, Economic Planners, Management Consultants, Writers and Leaders.

Prof. Dorcas Oluwade

Department of Business Administration

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

FOREWORD

Today, Public Administration is regarded as including also some responsibility for determining the policies and programs of governments. Specifically, it is the planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling of government operations. The crucial role of public administration in development, particularly in developing countries and economies cannot be over emphasized. This book addresses such areas as sustained economic growth, the promotion of social development, facilitating infrastructure development and protecting the environment, promoting public- private partnerships, managing development programmes and maintaining a legal framework for development.

There have been consistent changes in public administration especially as it relates to development in societies that are transiting towards modernization. These associated changes have brought about different dimensions to the administration of the Public. Public Administration must deal with many issues as the political, social and economic faces of the country changes. The Nigerian Government has in different times pursued policies that tends to create citizen-centered society that will ideally give answers to their problems. Since, public programs are funded by taxpayers and because administration of public programs requires attention to the ethics and culture of society, Public Administration must change as the government policies changes. However, achieving a citizen-centered society seems illusive in Nigeria. There are critical imperatives that could impact or provide answers to these dimensions of the administration of public programs today in Nigeria.

Since the return to Democracy in Nigeria in 1999, the political space was dominated by the Political elites. This continued domination meant that policies of the Government were seen from the perspective of the character of the occupiers of the political space. However, the change that greeted the political space with the ascension to power by an opposition party was meant to provide deep seated dimension to Public Administration. Therefore, Public program administrators must change policies to react to the positions of the party in power. The recent economic downturn plays a part in the shift between philosophies because the political elites' skittish about funding certain kinds of programs. Majorly, since the return to democracy the trend has been toward downsizing and administrators have to figure out how to do the same work with fewer employees. No matter what, the system must work; therefore the administrator must work in response to the political environment. Has the change in party politics brought with it changing dimension in policies that affect Public Administration in Nigeria?

Responding to a demand for more frugality in programs, Public Administrators have turned to private contractors. That change has had the opposite effect in many cases. Services that are part of the governance tend to be more responsible toward its policies and limitations. Private contractors have tended to "play by other rules." This has therefore, resulted in a number of scandals like the Privatization of the Generation, Transmission and the Distribution of Power to Nigerian that has been meddled with corruption and, more recently, abuses in the administration of Pension Fund. In the latter, privatization has resulted in budget over-runs and in outrageous charges for things like toilet. Still, the theory that competition may spur some more efficient use of resources may prove true in some instances. The challenge seems to be in deciding which things to privatize. Should the NNPC be privatized?

The massive deployment of technology in the public sphere is a major game changer for Public Administration. Even if public services did not want to implement technology, they would have no choice. Every other sector has turned to data-oriented operations and public service and non-profits must as well in order to interface with them. The issue is with organizational and personal security. In order to maintain a secure database someone must have the expertise to administer the computer programs and that demands additional and more specialized personnel. Therefore, the trend is

tailored e-governance. How well placed is Public Administration in Nigeria to fully implement e-administration?

Nigeria is a highly heterogeneous with deep rooted animosity between the various socio-cultural groupings. The challenge presented by this issue is to make public organizations representative of the social and cultural environment in which they exist. In simpler terms, all Nigerians must be represented in any federal agency or parastatal and resources must be equitably allocated. That not only applies to tribal issues, but to gender and to sexual orientation. However, organizations founded in this manner may encounter conflicts between members and cultural groups. In each case, while recognizing the rights of the majority, organizations must protect minorities. This has opened new frontiers of issues that public Program administrators are left to grapple with. This explain the call for the amend of the Revenue Sharing Formula, the Valued Added Tax (VAT) crisis between the Federal Government and some of the States and the need for local government uthoronomy. Can Public Administration in Nigeria stand above these societal challenges?

Leadership in recent years is a mixture of competence and integrity. Public administrators must perform their duties with high level efficiency, transparency and effectiveness. This translates in times when administrators of public programs act contrary to their own ethics and convictions for the good of the organization. There are also times when organizations are not forthcoming about some actions because programs deemed necessary would not be well received or understood by the public that is funding the organization. The trend toward transparency means that administrators must walk a thin line between full public disclosure and having some clandestine policies. This transparency also affects other issues like the contracting problems and the inclusion of minorities in appropriate numbers. The foreclosure of integrity in the public space has not given credence to Public Administration in Nigeria. Have the administration of Public Programmes enjoyed full disclosure in Nigeria?

Reading through this book will afford Scholars, Students, Researchers, Administrators, Economic Planners, Management Consultants, Writers and Leaders in all spheres, the opportunity of knowing the changing dimensions of public administration especially as it relates the Nigerian Public space. The book is excellently arranged in sixteen chapters that cater for the critical imperatives so discussed. Reading through the articulated chapters by scholars of Public Administration, will expose the vast and robust intellectual discourse into the contemporary policies on the theories and practices in the field of Public Administration. All the chapters outlined provide perfect illustration on the importance of Public Administration to National Development and to its studies. There has been deliberate effort by these scholars at providing answers to the imperative questions raised herein. The language of presentation eases its understanding for all categories of readers.

Hassan Achimugu, PhD

Head, Department of Public Administration

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No success story is ever a narrative of a lone actor, for in one way or the other, remotely or proximately, visibly or behind the scene, many hands had helped in the honing of this second Departmental Book of Readings success story.

When we conceived the concept of a first Departmental Book of Readings we encountered an avalanche of challenges but however, with undaunted spirits of courage, collaboration, and cooperation, we dreamed, we dared and we delivered. To God who is the source of all wisdom and knowledge be thanked for the inspiration and enablement. The reality is that this is the second edition of the book.

Our unreserved gratitude goes to the University management and staff for your candid encouragement was a big boost to the success of this debut Departmental Book of Readings.

Finally, it is practically impossible to mention the names of every person who in one capacity or the other contributed to the success of this publication; we say a sincere thank you.

Prof. D.O. Adeyemo

Department of Public Administration

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

CONTENTS

Members of the Editorial Committee

Note of Committee

Preface

Foreword

Acknowledgment

Table of Contents

CHAPTER ONE

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF PLANNING

Dr. J.S. UJAH & Ahmed, Nuhu Ahmed.....1

CHAPTER TWO

DEMOCRATIC STUDIES

Abah, E. O. (PhD) & Uloko Felicia.....20

CHAPTER THREE

ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

DR. ACHEGBULU J. O & OLUMORIN M.O.....43

CHAPTER FOUR

CITIZEN AND THE STATE

PATRICK UKWUMONU OKEME (Ph.D), ALIH MUSA, OGRIMA ISYAK and OGUCHE GABRIEL JOSIAH.....57

CHAPTER FIVE

RUDIMENTS OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

IFATIMEHIN, OLAYEMI OLUFEMI & OYIBO PAUL.....75

CHAPTER SIX

GENDER STUDIES

DR. JOY ATTAH AGBONI & MR. ABDULLAHI BALA MUSA.....99

CHAPTER SEVEN

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN PUBLIC SECTOR

ALIYU ABDULLAHI, AUDU AMINU & OMALE DANJUMA.....110

CHAPTER EIGHT

ELEMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

Thomas Yusuf Adejo, Ph.D & Samuel Ochijenu.....153

CHAPTER ONE

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF PLANNING

Dr. J.S. UJAH

Department of Public Administration, Kogi State University, Anyigba Corresponding Author:
09166491295

&

Ahmed, Nuhu Ahmed

Department of Public Administration, Kogi State University, Anyigba
Corresponding Author: ahmed.na@ksu.edu.ng
08036374128

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Anyone who has thought much about planning recognizes it as a complex and many-sided phenomenon. But it has been defined in widely divergent ways, often tendentiously. For instance, one writer who agrees that planning is "big and complicated" nevertheless consider it "not much more than applied common sense", while another contends that it is "a complex clustering of problems to be 'explored', not 'defined'".

Most writers, however, see planning as an organized, intelligent attempt to select the best available alternatives to achieve specific goals. It represents the rational application of human knowledge to the process of reaching decisions which are to serve as the basis of human action.

1.1 Meaning of Planning?

The word "planning" is given a bewildering variety of meanings. Planning is regarded by Dimock and Dimock as a key word in the vocabulary of Public Administration. The word planning is derived from the French word "prevoyance" which means 'looking ahead'. Planning is merely the thinking process that precedes any administrative activity. It is deciding what to do, how to do it, and who is to do it. It is thus, preparation for action.

Milletnt cited in Polinaidu (2004:254) defines planning as the "process of determining the objectives of administrative effort and of devising the means calculated to achieve them".

According to Dimock and Dimock, cited in Polinaidu (op.cit:254) "Planning is clarifying one's objectives and then determining what action shall be taken by whom, when, by what methods, and at what costs in order to achieve the desired goals". The two broad aspects of planning are: (i) the determination of objectives, and (ii) work method for carrying them out.

A former Prime Minister Nehru Jawaharlal of India (1961) defined planning, more simply and pragmatically, as the exercise of intelligence to deal with facts and situations as they are and find a way to solve problems.

Kenessey, 1978 in Ujo (2004:53), defined. Planning as thinking before acting. He is of the view that "mankind and planning are old mates". Koontz, 1980, defined planning as: Deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who is to do it. Planning bridges the gap from where we are to where we want to go. It makes it possible for things to occur which would not otherwise happen. Ujo (2009:53)

According to Hudson cited in Eghe (2002:136), planning means to produce a scheme for future action; to bring about specified cost, in a specified period of time. It is a deliberate attempt to influence, exploit, bring about and control the nature, direction, extent, speed, and effects of change.

Drucker cited in Chandan (2005:58) defined planning as the continuous process of making present entrepreneurial decisions systematically and with best possible knowledge of their futurity, organizing systematically the efforts needed to carry out these decisions and measuring the results of these decisions against the expectation through organized, systematic feedback.

According to Egonmwan &Ibodje (2014:74), Planning can therefore be defined as a consciously directed activity with pre-determined goals and predetermined means to achieve the set goals. In other words, it provides the rallying point for social and political mobilization whereby the society is able to set development objectives and goals, map out strategies and programmes for attainment of such goals and mobilize resources for their attainment.

In the words of President Nyerere of Tanzania 'to plan is to choose' Planning implies a choice between various possibilities; it is, therefore a choice of priorities (Nnoli 2003:264)

Planning is an important managerial activity. It cannot be separated from a management because plans must be put into effect or they remain in the realm of intent, not action. While formulation of plans is a staff activity, their implementation is a line activity. Planning is wholly practical matter, a step by step analysis, of how objectives are to be made realities. Planning is the opposite of improvising; it is the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken; instead of improvising after the action has been started.

Planning is closely related "to both policy-making and decision making. Planning follows policy making. Policies set the terms of reference within which plans are to be formulated. Although, planning is closely related to decision-making, there is a difference between them. Every aspect of governmental administration must be planned; objectives, policies, organization, work methods, etc. This makes planning a more comprehensive term than decision-making. Further a plan is oriented toward the future, and has an action implication. A decision fundamentally involves selection of one among several alternatives.

1.2 Significance of Planning

According to Polinaidu (2004), Planning of some sort is inherent in all individual and institutional activities in society. In the words of Pffifner and Presthus, planning is "a rational process characteristics of all human behaviour". He put forward the following as significance of Planning:

1. Planning has enormous importance in the field of Public Administration and has 'many benefits to offer. As an agent of change, planning encourages constructive change. It forestalls that is too rapid or too little considered. It permits an organization not only to anticipate and prepare for change, but, to some extent select and shape such change.
2. Planning therefore not only avoids discontinuities that result in blind and haphazard action but also gives direction and improves continuity of actions.
3. Planning is an attempt to control the future rather than leave it to multiple pressure of politics, decisions of the market place, or uncertainties of fate. It is an attempt to improve present performance by relating it to future problems and desired results. It, therefore, permits the future to shape the past rather than the opposite.

4. Planning provides for increased participation of the employees and citizens in the affairs of administration. It stimulates the minds of the employees of an organization and leads them to innovations.
5. Planning reduces costs by avoiding overlapping and wasteful activities of an organization. It would facilitate the best utilization of the available scarce resources to the maximum advantage of an organization. It encourages new methods and procedures of administration for efficient implementation of policies and programmes.
6. Planning have been adopted by developing nations of the third world countries, as a method for ensuring economic development. Also as a method to meet the challenges of their economic and social problems, such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, disease, etc.

1.3 Characteristics of Planning

1. There must be systematic knowledge of available resources. This involves a comprehensive survey of the existing and potential resources of the country.
2. There must be a central planning authority (planning commission in Nigeria) to prepare a definite plan.
3. Development planning must have some definite objectives.
4. On the basis of the objectives of a plan, the planning authority will set targets for the different sectors of the economy.
5. Planning authority will allocate resources among the various sectors of the economy to fulfill the targets.
6. A definite time will be fixed to fulfill the targets. Thus, planning may be for a long period or short period.
7. Effective planning requires the existence of proper balances in the economy to avoid lopsided development and bottlenecks. (Eghe 2002:137)

1.4 Types of Planning

There are various styles and types of planning. Some of the important ones are briefly described below; according to Polinaidu (op. cit. 256 -259)

- a. Transformational Planning: This type of planning embraces all spheres of economy. It is centralized planning equipped with harsh powers of command. In this type resources are allocated by a centralized administration not by the mechanism of price. The use of capital, land and labour is entirely brought within the supervision of such administration. Decisions on outputs are also taken by administration. It is compulsive and directive and hence regimentation is the consequence. In this type of planning, state acts as a collective capitalist. It is contrary to democracy and totalitarian in nature.
- b. Indicative or Medicative Planning: Under this type of planning the economic and socially determined in a perspective period of 10 to 20 years; guide to help execute specific programme. It involves such techniques as
 - (i) Consensual targeting by government and economic sectors,
 - (ii) The use of credit and tax incentives by industrialists, and
 - (iii) Prior review by government in anticipating future economic and social problems.
- c. Development Planning: In 'development planning' an effort is made towards the development of the country by using properly all available physical, financial and human. It is also known as social because its aim is to reshape the country's economy and society. It is always geared to the realization of some society such as raising standard of living, promoting social being, providing and maintaining full employment in self-sufficiency.

- d. **Administrative Planning:** According to Sharma in Polinaidu, "Administrative Planning is a phase of management and involves drawing up a programme of operations in advance and the provision of the requisite organization, personnel, material and procedures for carrying it out". In its comprehensive sense, administrative planning embraces problems of organization, budgeting, personnel, procedures.

1.5 Objectives of Development Planning

1. **To achieve full and stable employment:** the objective of development planning is to attain the state of full and stable employment.
2. **To achieve rapid Economic Development:** the economy of poor countries are caught up in vicious circles of poverty and the people live a very miserable life. The lots can be improved with rapid economic development.
3. **Better utilization of productive resources:** in order to have better utilization of existing resources, planning is resorted to.
4. **Reduce inequalities of income:** Another aim of development planning is to reduce the inequalities in wealth and income of the people. In poor economies, vast disparities of in the distribution of income exist.
5. **To achieve price stability:** Fluctuations in prices disturb business and paralyze the whole productive system. Depression throws cold water on the desire to produce. Unemployment will increase, inflation will increase, and inequalities in income will increase and upset the productive machinery. (Eghe 2002: 139 -140)

1.6 Nature of Planning:

a. Formal Planning:

Planning is formal when it is reduced to writing. When the numbers of actions are large it is good to have a formal plan since it will help in adequate control. The term formal means official and recognised. Any planning can be done officially to be followed or implemented. Formal planning is aimed to determine and objectives of planning. It is the action that determine in advance what should be done.

b. Informal Planning:

An informal plan is one, which is not in writing, but it is conceived in the mind of the manager. Informal planning will be effective when the number of actions is less and actions have to be taken in short period.

(ii) Duration of Planning:

a. Short term Planning:

Short term planning is the planning which covers less than two years. It must be formulated in a manner consistent with long-term plans. It is considered as tactical planning. Short-term plans are concerned with immediate future; it takes into account the available resources only and is concerned with the current operations of the business or organization. These may include plans concerning inventory planning and control, employee training, work methods etc.

b. Long-Term Planning:

Long-term planning usually covers a period of more than five years, mostly between five and fifteen years. It deals with broader technological and competitive aspects of the organisation as well as allocation of resources over a relatively long time period. Long-term planning is considered as strategic planning. Short-term planning covers the period of one year while long term planning covers 5-15 years. In between there may be medium-term plans. Usually, medium term plans are focusing on between two and five years. These may include plan for purchase of materials, production, labour, overhead expenses and so on.

1.7 Components of Planning/Planning Techniques:

Planning consists of several individual plans or components of planning, which are usually bound together as follows

(i) Forecasting. (ii) Objectives. (iii) Policies. (iv) Programmes. (v) Strategies. (vi) Schedules. (vii) Procedures. (viii) Rules, and (ix) Budgets.

i. Forecasting:

Forecasting becomes an integral part of the planning process. It is a prediction of future events and conditions. It, therefore, includes both the assessment of the future and the provision for it. It helps to reduce the uncertainties that surround management, decision making.

ii. Objectives:

Objectives are the ends toward which activity is aimed— they are the results to be achieved. They represent not only the end point of planning but also the end toward which organising, staffing, leading and controlling are aimed. Organisation can grow without any difficulty if it has well-defined objectives. These objectives should be clearly defined and communicated throughout the organisation. Such objectives must be realistic.

iii. Policies:

Koontz and O'Donnell defines “**policies as general statements or undertakings which guide or channel thinking in decision-making of subordinates.**” So, policies act as guides to thinking and action of subordinates in the organisations. It should be clearly prescribed and understandable by all.

iv. Programmes:

It refers to the course of action of work to be carried out in proper sequence for the purpose of achieving specific objectives.

v. Strategies:

Konnoz and Heinz Wehrich defined strategies as “**a general programme of action and deployment of resources to attain comprehensive objectives**” or” the determination of the basic long-term objectives of an enterprise “and the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources necessary to achieve these goals. It is specific type of plan for achieving organisational goals.

vi. Schedules:

Fixing a time sequence for every operation is known as schedules. Normally it forms part of programming a part of action plan.

vii. Procedures:

Procedures are plans that establish a required method of handling future activities. They are guides to action, rather than to thinking and they detail the exact manner in which certain activities must be accomplished. They are chronological sequences of required actions.

viii. Rules:

Rules spell out specific required actions or non-actions, following no direction. They are usually the simplest type of plan.

ix. Budgets:

A budget is a statement of expected results expressed in numerical term. It may be referred to as a numbered programme. A budget may be expressed either in financial terms or in terms of labour-hours, units of product, machine hours, or any other numerically measurable term. It helps the organisation to control the action by comparing budgetary and actual results.

1.8 Planning Process

Planning Process

According to Bedeian & Gulick cited in Ogunna (2007:224 -226), Planning Process is the step to step activities that are involved in the plan making and implementation. He said that the planning process involves five interactive steps namely, formulation of objectives, establishment of premises, and identification of alternative courses of action, implementation and evaluation. This model fails to include one important step namely, selection of the best alternative from a set of alternative courses of action.

- I. Formulation of Objective: The first step in the planning process according to Bedein and Guelick cited in Ogunna (2007), is the establishment of planning objective. This involves the setting of the overall goals of the plan. The objectives are formulated based on the perceived ecological opportunities.
- II. Establishment of Premises: After the establishment of the objective, the premises or assumptions about the future objective situation or environment are also established. This involves forecasting the future variables and situations in which the objectives would be attained, the various factors of the future economy would be identified and examined through forecasting. They consist of assumptions made up of factual data and basic policies expected to be applicable for the future organizational situation.
- III. Identification of Alternative Courses of Action: This step involves an objective analysis of all the issues involves in making an objective searching and interpretation of data and then finding out all possible alternatives and the consequences of each alternative. The identification of the alternative courses of action depends on the intellectual ability of the planner, his experience and the amount of relevant information available.
- IV. Selection of Course of action from the set of all alternatives already identified: when the alternative have been identified and determined, the planner then makes his objective choice of the best course of action. An objective or rational decision could be made through the application of the technique of cost-benefit analysis. This involves detailed identification of the courses of action, objective evaluation of all the costs involved and benefits to be derived from each alternative, and based on the evaluation choosing the alternative least costs and maximum benefits or the alternative which has the greatest chance of success and achieving the set goal
- V. Implementation: Plan Implementation follows the choice of an alternative course of action. Plan implementation means the mobilization and utilization of available resources to achieve the plan objective. This requires able leadership, technical competence of the personnel, adequacy of funds and prudence in the use of funds and personnel. An efficient implementation is an essential requirement of a good plan.
- VI. Evaluation: The final stage in the planning process is evaluation. This is to ensure that the plan objective is achieved within the time frame. The process of evaluation will identify inadequate inputs of funds, personnel, deviations from set targets and goals, and others. These are dictated through the feedback mechanism. Through evaluation and feedback, necessary

adjustments are made to re-direct and energize the plan towards effective achievement of set goals. There is a system of controls and coordination to ensure that actors in the plan process keep to their assignments faithfully thereby reducing inefficient performance and role conflicts.

1.9 Strategies of Planning

According to Guelick (1983), Strategy is an action plan which sets the direction that a company will be taking, that there are four strategies; stability, growth, retrenchment or a combination approach.

Stability strategy: This implies, "to leave the well enough alone ". If the environment is stable and the organization is doing well, then it is better to make no changes. This strategy is exercised most often and is less risky as a course of action

Growth Strategy: Growth means expansions of the operations of the organization and addition of new areas of operations. Growth strategy can be very risky and involves forecasting and analysis of many factors that affect expansion.

2.0 Administrative Obstacles to planning

According to Guelick (1983), prior to independence, Nigeria has had plans planned by the colonial Authority and after independence, Series of plans have been undertaken by various Governments in the country and yet, performances of the plans have not been very satisfactory, due to problem which the planning agencies have had to contend with.

The problems range from shortage of executive capacity to conflict in planning objectives, plan indiscipline and the advisory of planning Capacity

1. SHORTAGE OF EXECUTIVE CAPACITY:

The shortage of Executive capacity in the area of project formulation and preparation in some federal ministry and corporation and even more at the state level can affect the integration of national plans. Ministries and agencies at both federal levels have only few of them had institution to under-take planning function on permanent basis. Planning duties were undertake by administrative officers who were given ad-hoc training prior to the commencement of plan preparation.

Consequently, most of the projects that are submitted to the planning office by state ministry for inclusion in the plan reached their most of the time as mere ideas lacking the necessary ingredient required, hence a good number of ideas admitted into the plan as were not properly studies. The inadequacy of plan integration can also be traced to the limitations in the technology of data collection and processing. The abortive attempts at population census since the country's independence, the establishment of several branches of economic data collection and even more so of the organization of the federal office of statistics all point in the direction of a weak of the data base of Nigeria planning

2 CONFLICTS IN PLANNING OBJECTIVES

Conflicts between federal and state governments particularly in planning objectives are supposed to be minimal once the guidelines are jointly prepared and passed through all the planning stages, but in practice, there seems to be conflicts in plan objectives due to;

- a) The existence of separate state plan documents apart from the national document which is conducive to distortion of objectives and indeed the distortion of the national plan itself.
- b) The deliberate deviation from the plan process and implement non-plan projects.
- c) The existence of communication and credibility gaps coupled with the attendant misunderstanding of objectives and such situations generate either conflicts or disruptions of activities planned,

3. PLAN INDISCIPLINE

Plan indiscipline constitute as a major bane (problem) of Nigerian's planning efforts. A development plan is not supposed to be a rigid blue print rather as a flexible instrument. However, a situation where many executing agencies always introduce new projects, which compete for resources with the approved projects, the plan, is likely to be thrown out of focus and this has the effect of distorting the plan and indeed the national priorities.

4. ADVISORY ROLE OF PLANNING MACHINERY

The question to be asked is that, why is it that planning machineries in other countries have been able to achieve some measure of effective coordination while their Nigeria counterpart, the national economic council has failed in spite of the fact that both bodies have been consultative in nature. In India, for instance its national development council is a consultative body. Its conclusions on any planning matter are as good government decisions because it has the prime minister as chairman and all the chief ministers as members, hence the council derives its authority from its membership rather than from the formal power assigned it to it. Also the India constitutions assign the power of planning to the central government and establishes institutions enabling cooperative participation of the states in the planning process while in Nigeria, the constitution places the states in a much stronger positioning matters relating to development planning by having assigned to the both concurrent and residual functions and there are quiet a number of inter-governmental institutions at both ministerial and official levels with specific responsibilities for coordination of policies e.g. of such institutions are: the National planning commission, The joint planning Board Conference of Ministers/Commissioners for economic planning and federal and state executing ministries. Most of these agencies are not really equipped to handle planning matters adequately.

5. FINANCIAL CONSTRAINTS

The most serious constraint to plan implementation is that of finance resulting from the following factors:

- a) The unexpected financial shortfall due to the decline in projected revenue, Nigeria has over the years depended for the bulk of its revenue on oil more than ninety percent of its export earning on crude Oil and earning would throw even a well-articulated plan completely
- b) Cost escalation due to such factors as inflation, under-estimation of project increases in scope and delays in designing and completion of projects.

6. INSUFFICIENT AND POOR QUALITY OF DATA

The importance of data to the formulation of a national development plan cannot be underestimated. It is true that the quality of the plan depends to a great extent on the quality of information used in projecting the macro-economic variable on which policy measures are based.

The federal office of statistics which is a department of the federal ministry of national planning is suffering from serious manpower, accommodation and equipment problems which have greatly

undermined its effectiveness and these problems have tended to limit the number of surveys which the department can carry out. It should be taken note that data problems faced by the planners but the poor state of record keeping in the economy as a whole, the unwillingness to respond to inquiries and even the failure of the successive population censuses are all part of the problem.

7. LACK OF MASS COMMITMENT

This is another area of planning problem in Nigeria. One way of ensuring mass commitment for the objectives and programmes in the plan is through mass education. The objectives underlying the plan should be explained to the people through the existing media in order to obtain mass support for their realization.

8. LACK OF ADEQUATE PUBLIC/PRIVATE SECTOR CONSULTATION

Under normal circumstances, the private sector is supposed to be properly consulted whenever a plan is being formulated so that various interests in the planning process could be accommodated.

Today, a visible gap in the institutional machinery for planning in Nigeria is the lack of forum for regular consultation with the private sector. A well-structured forum for discussing with the private sector on issues of planning and general management of the economy on a regular basis will certainly be a useful complement to the existing machinery of planning in the country.

www.businessmanagementideas.com/planning/comparison/17/08/22

2.1 Theories of Planning

There are eight procedural theories of planning that remain the principal theories of planning procedure today:

- a. the rational-comprehensive approach,
- b. the incremental approach,
- c. the trans active approach,
- d. the communicative approach,
- e. the advocacy approach,
- f. the equity approach,
- g. the radical approach, and
- h. the humanist or phenomenological approach.

By grounding these theories in the contemporary experiences of planners, students and practitioners can better grasp planning theory and understand its continued relevance.

2.2 Philosophy and ideology of national development planning

Successive administrations in Nigeria have differed over the strategy most likely to promote the development of the nation, but have agreed substantially over methods.

It is important to recall that Nigeria had since the past three decades embarked on development plans in order to accelerate the rate of growth of the economy and improve the standard of living of her people (Onah, 2002:33)

Centralized national planning was widely believed to offer the essential and perhaps the only institutional and organizational mechanism for overcoming all obstacles to development, the questions that faced Nigerian leader have not been whether to plan or not, but what kind of development plan to adopt in dealing decisively with the problems of widespread poverty, large-scale unemployment, technological backwardness, low-capacity utilization, inadequate and decayed social and physical infrastructure, illiteracy, urban congestion, short-life expectancy, excessive debt burden, high incidence of diseases and environmental degradation.

Nigeria's planning experience began with the Ten-year plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria which was introduced in 1946 by the colonial government (1945 - 1956)

The methodology and underlying philosophy of this plan were fully articulated in a document published in 1945 entitled Preliminary Statement on Development Planning in Nigeria.

2.3 Meaning of National Planning

According Buchacet, I.O. (1970), describes National Planning as a system of community action over a period of time. A National Plan constitutes the decision of national persons and corporations to the achievement of coordinated aims within a fixed period.

A definition presented at the minnow brook conference of the Comparative administration Group in 1964, puts national planning as;

An effort to promote or coordinate through central planning institutions the activities of, (a) Intermediate bodies, such as national, state or local government, business federations and large nationwide enterprises, (b) operating units, such as enterprises associations local governments, agencies, communities, families and individual (Abdulsalami, 1997)

This definition focuses on financial relations among the various levels of government and the institutions engaged in development efforts.

Waterston, (1974) says, a country is considered to be engaged in development planning if its government makes deliberate and continuing attempts to accelerate the rate of economic and social progress and to alter institutional arrangement which are considered to block the attainment of this goal.

2.4 Philosophy and Ideology of National Development Planning

When a nation plans its economy, it is more or less a similar exercise, though on a larger scale. The nation has to assess its resources and allocates these resources among different competing uses, depending on the specific priority of each use. The planning authority has to assess how much of

these resources are available and how they are to be exploited and further developed for meeting the goals set for the economy.

- The philosophy behind creating the Nigerian development plans include.
 - i. A just and egalitarian society
 - ii. Great and dynamic economy
 - iii. Rise in per capita income
 - iv. A land of bright and opportunity etc.

2.5 Rational for Planning in 3rd World Countries

Planning in a developing economy goes further to attempt to fulfil the objective of transforming the economy from a low level of production and productivity to a higher level of self –sustained growth. This is done by planning for a more effective use of existing resources, developing resources for future use and dismantling institutional and other constraints, which hamper the growth of the resources base of the economy (Anyebe, 2001)

According to Eghe (2002) a preliminary question arises. Is it really necessary or desirable for the government to formulate a plan for development, conservation and proper use of natural resources of the country? Why plan at all?

The following points are rationale for planning:

1. Development planning is essential to accelerate the rate of economic development. An accelerated rate of development can be effected by the government through deficit financing.
2. There is scarcity of resources in underdeveloped countries. It is essential to allocate resources rationally and utilize them in such a manner as to get a maximum benefit. Development planning can bring about rational allocation of resources and their optimum utilization.
3. In an undeveloped country, it is very difficult to break the vicious circle of poverty. As the size of market is small, individual entrepreneurs are unwilling to undertake investment activities. Planned large scale investments are needed to break the circle and initiate economic development.
4. Accelerated growth requires primarily large amounts of capital investment and this investment must be made in a sizable lump, and not through marginal increments that take place as a result of a set of unrelated individual decisions. In other words, planning requires capital investment on a scale, and a type that will possibly involve a considerable degree of central planning and control.
5. In an unplanned economy, there is absence of any machinery to coordinate the decisions of a large number of producers. Each producers makes his own estimates of the probable demand for his goods and services. Sometimes, producers commit serious errors which result in serious loss and waste of resources. Decisions taken by entrepreneurs in an unplanned economy are short-sighted and irrational and lead to economic fluctuations. Planning can

minimize the adverse effects of the above limitations and ensure stable growth of the economy.

2.6 Development Planning in Nigeria

According to Onah (2012) Nigeria's Planning experience dates back to the 1940s when the British colonial office requested the colonies to prepare development plans which would assist it in disbursing the colonial development and welfare funds. In response to this request the administration in Nigeria prepared the Ten-year plan of development and welfare covering the period, 1946 – 1956.

The basic objective of the Ten-year plan was 'to guide allocation of Colonial Development Welfare Funds.' The need for planning was defined by the uneven progress of the country up to the time; a situation Okigbo (1989:20) said was made worse by the retrenchment policies of the 1950s following the worldwide recession.

Subsequent development plans include the 1955 – 60 plans, the 1962 – 68 plans, the 1970 – 74 plans, the 1975 – 80 plans, the 1981 -85 plans and the three year rolling plans (1990 - 93) Anyebe, 2001. With the introduction of a federal system of government in 1954 and the attainment of independence in 1960,

The First National Development Plan, 1962 - 1968, was launched. It aimed at target Gross Domestic Product growth rate of 4 percent in real terms, with the highest priority accorded to Agriculture, industry and the training of high and intermediate manpower.

The second National Development Plan was launched soon after the civil war, in October 1970, largely as a means of rehabilitating and reconstructing the facilities damaged by the war. Although the plan was originally meant for to cover a four year period, 1970 - 1974, this period was later extended to include the fiscal year 1974 - 1975. One issue which received a lot of stress by the Second National Development Plan is that of indigenization. As Okowa (1991; 32) cited in Onah F.O stated, 'indigenization was seen by this plan as an instrument towards the long term objective of economic independence.'

The Third National Development Plan, 1975 -1980, was launched in March 1975, the strategy of the plan was to utilize resources from oil to develop the productive capacity of the economy and thereby permanently improve the standard of living of the people.

The Fourth National Development Plan, 1981 - 1985, was launched in March 1981. According to Adedeji (1989:119) described the plan ' as 'the highest and most ambitious programme of investment ever launched in Nigeria'. Almost 86 percent of the plan's projected expenditure of 70.5 billion naira was to be accounted for by public sector projects. The priority areas under the plan included Agricultural production, Housing, Education, Industries and Economic infrastructure. For the first time, development of local technology was listed as a specific objective of the plan.

The idea of a Fifth National Development Plan, mooted in the late 1980s never materialized. Okigbo (1989:193) said the plan was to have been launched first in 1987 and again in 1988 but was postponed twice in a row because of the need to consolidate the gains of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which was introduced in 1986.

In place of the plan, some of the development strategies or initiatives noted by Okoli & Okay cited in Onah, are among others, Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Agricultural Development Scheme, National Accelerated Food Production Programme. Other development initiatives are liberalization policies encapsulated in SAP and the National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS), Rolling Plans, Perspective Plans (Vision 2010) etc.

Nigeria's National Development Plan 2021 - 2025

The present Administration of President Muhammadu Buhari introduced, a medium-term economic plan, the NDP, has been launched. The Plan succeeds the Vision 20:2020 introduced in 2009 and the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) introduced in 2017 both of which expired in 2020. The NDP is also a bridge for the country's long-term plan currently being developed, that is, Nigeria Agenda 2050.

The vision as stated in the NDP is “to make Nigeria a country that has unlocked its potential in all sectors of the economy for a sustainable, holistic, and inclusive national development”.

The 6 broad objectives of the Plan are:

1. Economic diversification
2. Investment in infrastructure
3. Security and good governance
4. Educated and healthy population
5. Poverty alleviation, and
6. Economic and social development across states

www.businessmanagementideas.com/planning/comparison/17/08/22

The Plan is structured around 7 cluster areas:

1. Economic Growth and Development
2. Infrastructure
3. Public Administration
4. Human Capital Development
5. Social Development
6. Regional Development
7. Plan Implementation

<https://byjus.com/commerce/planning-process>

2.7 Institutions of Planning in Nigeria

The Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning is one of the Federal Ministries of Nigeria. It was originally set up by Decree No 12 of 1992 as the National Planning Commission and later amended by Act 71 of 1993. The core responsibility of the commission is the formulation of medium term and long term economic and development plans for the nation.

The National Planning Commission is headed by the Minister of National Planning, who is also the Deputy Chairman of the National Planning Commission. The Chairman of the Commission is the Vice President (currently, Prof. Yemi Osinbajo).

REFERENCES

- Abdulsalami, I. (1997): The Structure and Organization of the National Planning Machinery, Journal of Public Administration, A.B.U. Zaria
- Anyebe, A.A (2001), "Readings in Development Administration" Shareef Salam Press, Zaria, Kaduna state.
- Bedeian, A.G. &William, G. (1983), Management, Chicago, Dry dean press.
- Buchacet, I.O. (1970), Comparative Federalism: Territorial Dimension of Politics (New York) Holt Rienhart and Winston.
- Chandan, J.S., (2005): Management Theory &Practice, Vikas Publishing House PVT Ltd; New Delhi
- Dimock M. E & Dimock G.O (1970), Public Administration New York: Rinchart and co.
- Egonmwan, J.A & Ibodje S.W.E (2014); Development Administration: Theory and Practice: Resyin (Nig) Co. Ltd, Benin city
- Ekhaton V. E. (2002), Rudiments of Public Administration, Vetex Publishers, Benin City.
- Nehru, J. (1961) "Annual Address by the Prime Minister". Indian Journal of Public Administration (New Delhi). Vol. VII, No. 4 October
- Nnoli, O. (2003): Introduction to Politics, Snaap press Ltd, Enugu
- Ogunna, A.E.C. (1999) Public Administration in Nigeria: Theory and Practice. Great versatile Publishers Ltd, Umuahia - Owerri,
- Onah, F.O. (2012) Managing Public Programmes and Projects. UNN Press Ltd Nsukka
- Polinaidu, S. (2004) Public Administration; Galgotia Publications PVT Ltd; New Delhi
- Ujo, A.A. (2009); Theory and Practice of Development Administration, Joyce Graphic Printers & Publisers. Kaduna
- Waterston, A. (1974); Development: Lessons of experience (Baltimore, M.D. John Hopkins University Press.

CHAPTER TWO

DEMOCRATIC STUDIES

¹Abah, E. O. (PhD)
(PhD, MPA, B.Sc., FIIHRD, MIRA)
E-mail: emmaabah12@yahoo.com

&

²Uloko Felicia

^{1&2}Department of Public Administration,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
Prince Abubakar Audu University,
Anyigba, Kogi State

INTRODUCTION

i. The Concept of Democracy

Disagreements abound among social scientists on the concept of democracy. To some, it is government by the people in which the supreme power is vested in the people, exercised and directed by them or electoral system. To others, it is the institutionalization of human freedom.

The concept of democracy originated from ancient Greece. To the Greeks, ‘Demos’ mean the people, ‘Kratos’ means government or rule. Since the period of ancient Greek City States, scholars and practitioners have defined democracy variously. The former president of the United States of America, Abraham Lincoln, as quoted in Schumpeter (1967), defined democracy as the: government of the people for the people and by the people”. Schumpeter (1967) sees democracy as:

Institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of competitive struggle for the people’s votes. In Schumpeter’s view, democracy means formation of electoral body, formation and registration of political parties, registration of voters, vying for political positions, voting on election etc.

For Sartori (1965) democracy is the power of people and rule of the people. To Sartori, democracy is people oriented. That is to say, a situation where power belongs to the masses that ultimately elect people that represents them. Apadornia, (1975) contends that democracy is a system of government in which the people exercise the governing power either directly or through representatives periodically elected by them.

Marx and Engels (1981) define democracy as the dictatorship of the proletariat. To the authors, democracy is a system, which the ruling class uses to exploit the masses. In other words, they disagree democracy is government of the people, for the people, and by the people. The pillars of democracy, Eze (1999:152) include: sovereignty of the people, government based upon consent of the governed, majority rule; equality before the law; due process of the law; constitutional limits on government., social; economic and political pluralism, values of tolerance, pragmatism, cooperation and compromise.

Electoral Participation and Procedures in Nigeria: trends, problems and implications for democratic process.

This section looks at electoral participation in Nigeria which has been characterized by violence. Attempts will be made to present an overview of electoral violence in Nigeria and its implications for democratic process.

The history of political violence including electoral violence in Nigeria could be traced to the colonial period. This means that thorough understanding of the problem of electoral violence in Nigeria requires situating it within its political history. Scholars have argued that colonial settings laid the foundation of future political conflict in Nigeria. This argument was hinged on a number of British political experiments in West Africa in general and Nigeria in particular among which were, the introduction of the elective principle in 1922 and on the emergence of the 1946 Richards Constitution.

For instance, the elective principle, though to a very large extent was nonviolent, was too limited with income and residential qualifications, and could be a potential basis for violence (Omotola, 2007). This argument could be corroborated with what happened when elections were held into the regional Houses of Assembly in 1931 across the country. The elections which were held based on the then electoral system introduced by the 1951 constitution led to widespread dissatisfaction among majority of Nigerians in 1952. Thus, in 1953, there was increase in the intensity of political agitation (Falola, Mahadi, Uhomoibhi and Anyanwu, 1991).

The 1946 Constitution paved the way for the division of the country into three regions in which each region was dominated by a major ethnic group. For example, the Hausa-Fulani dominated the Northern region, while the Yoruba and the Igbo dominated the Western and Eastern regions respectively. Thus, within each region, there were numerous other so-called minorities which were at a considerable disadvantage as far as political power was concerned.

The emergence of political development in 1950s marked the genesis of electoral violence in Nigeria. In 1951, elections were held into the regional Houses of Assembly based on the introduced electoral system of the 1951 Constitution. This electoral system created a widespread dissatisfaction among Nigerians (Falola et al, 1991). The first and immediate post independence electoral violence in Nigeria occurred during the 1964 general elections which was the first election to be conducted after independence. The Northern People's Congress (NPC) needed the elections to consolidate its power at the centre. The Action Group (AG) also needed it in order to dislodge Chief S.L Akinlola's power in the West. The National Council of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC) on its own also wanted to improve its bargaining strength in the East. It became obvious that all the major political parties were adequately anxious to participate in the elections (Falola et al, 1991). By the middle of 1964, two major political alliances had emerged from all the maneuvers. The NPC and the NNPP founded the Nigerian National Alliance (NNA). The AG and the NCNC constituted themselves into the United Progressive Grand Alliance (UPGA). The 1964 federal election was contested between these major alliances (Ige, 1995). Two main coalitions contested these elections: the Nigerian National Alliance (NNA) made up of the NPC and some other minor Parties; the United Progressive Grand Alliance (UPGA) comprising the NCNC, AG, NEPU and UMBC (Falola, et al, 1991). The campaigns by these coalitions generated much bitterness, acrimony and violence, (especially in the west. The elections which were said to have been impassively rigged through different means lead to widespread violence/conflicts in the west following the announcement of results by the Chairman of Federal Electoral Commission in person of Mr. Esua. This argument could be corroborated with the address of President Azikiwe and the then Inspector General Police, Mr. Louis Edet.

Azikiwe in his dawn broadcast to the nation expressed the head of state's condemnation of the way and manner the electioneering was conducted and is disappointment. According to him, the politicians in power have no right employ instruments of power in order to perpetuate their stay in office. The president cited instances where Nigerian citizens had been deprived of their constitutional right to freedom of association. He warned the politicians that: [f they have decided to destroy our national unity, they should summon a round table conference to decide how our national assets should be divided or it is better that we should disintegrate in peace and not in pieces" Anifowose,

1972). In a similar view, the Inspector General of Police, Louis Edet made a nation-wide broadcast reporting that incidents involving violence had reached alarming proportions. He appealed to the politicians to protect Nigeria's enviable reputation as a bastion of democracy in Africa (Anifowose, 1972).

The attendant violence, including arson, looting, killing, wanton destruction of properties and the total collapse of public order especially in the western region, was unprecedented. For example, at Ishokun, Ilesha, twenty school children were murdered on the ground that they were in town to combat an impending riot. Also, at Isho, a village few miles from Owo, sixteen people were killed. As it was in the west, so also it went on in the Middle Belt. A good example was the second Tiv riot of 1964 (Anifowose, 1972),

The last straw that broke the camel's back was the elections into regional assembly in the west in October 1965. The announcement of the election results by the Federal Electoral Commission, which led to the victory of Chief S.L Akintola of the Nigeria National Democratic Party (NNDP) as against the wishes of many people who expected that Chief Adegbenro of the UPGA led to large-scale widespread violence in the whole of western region on the ground that there were irregularities in the election results. The decision of the federal government to recognize the election thus gave Chief Akintola the lower to form a new government. This however made UPGA to embark on a spontaneous and violent demonstration known as "operation wet e" - an operation which required the spraying of houses, cars and persons with petrol and then setting fire on them (Ige, 1995). There were series of protests and demonstrations carried out by angry students, market women, farmers and other groups in most towns and villages throughout the western region, and these were accompanied by looting, arson, killing on an unprecedented scale and burning of houses, vehicles and shops. Anti-governmental placards were displayed, party slogan- Awo! Awo! UPGA! UPGA! -as well as war songs were advanced. In some cases, the demonstration ended in clashes with anti-riot police squad, who did not hesitate to shoot. A typical song by the angry demonstrators was "E jeki a mura ogun, eleyi lon. je iya (let us prepare for war, this is an insulting behaviour) (Anifowose, 1972). The high rate of electoral violence (pre and post) following the 1964 and 1965 elections were said to have contributed in no small measure to the collapse of the first Republic (Osaghae 1998; Akinwumi 2004). The electoral process of the Second Republic (1979-1983) equally led to various cases of

electoral violence across the whole of Nigeria. The most important one was the second election that was conducted after the first administration in 1983. The structure of politics, despite the alteration in the structure of the federation from three (and later four) regions of the first republic, to nineteen states, was still largely driven by ethno-religious forces, where each party maintained its stronghold in a given regional/ethnic domain (Omotola, 2007). For example, the National Party of Nigeria (NPN) dominated the Northern region, the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN) dominated the Western region while the National Council of Nigeria Citizen (NCNC) dominated the Eastern region (Abimbola & Adesote, 2012). The National Party of Nigeria (NPN), obviously NPC's successor, controlled the federal government between 1979 and 1983. In the 1983 elections, it wanted to extend its reach to other regions, either by hook or by crook. The attempt to achieve this underscored the massive rigging of the 1983 elections, which resulted in an unprecedented outbreak of violence in the Western region, where the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN), AG'S successor, held sway (Omotola, 2007). In the then Oyo and Ondo States, the two UPN states were declared for the NPN. This announcement led to unprecedented violence, in which a writer simply described it as 'the house of war' (Barbarinsa 2002). Although Ondo state was later returned to UPN at the Election Tribunal, series of violence that accompanied the disputed election results following various cases of alleged irregularities in the conduct of the election led to the collapse of the second republic; thus giving the military the opportunity to seize power on 31 December 1983. .

This discourse would be incomplete without having a look at the aborted

Third Republic. Prior to the Presidential election in 1993, the local government and gubernatorial elections had already been conducted in preparation for the birth of the Third Republic. It is a known fact that Nigeria, since independence has never had any peaceful election devoid of violence and other electoral vices. Thus, the 1992/1993 elections were 'no exception. Meanwhile, the circumstances that led to the aborted Third Republic revealed that Gen. Ibrahim Babangida, a dictator, in spite of his long transition programme, had no intention Of handing over power to the civilian. This became known when he annulled the June 12,1-1993 presidential election which was internationally acclaimed as free and fair, and as well described by local observers as the fairest election in the postcolonial Nigeria. The annulment of the election caused series of crises especially in the Western part of Nigeria championed by some groups such as NADECO among others. The

post electoral violence which followed the annulment of the June 12, 1993 election was what forced Gen. Ibrahim Babangida to form an Interim National Government (ING) headed by Ernest Shonekan, who was later overthrown, in what was regarded as peaceful coup of November 17 1993 General Sani Abacha (the maximum dictator). This development made the Third Republic an aborted republic (Abimbola & Adesote, 2012)

The military from then remained in power until May 29, 1999 after several attempts to democratize. Suffice it to say that between independence in 1960 and 1999 when civilian rule was restored, Nigeria produced only two elected governments and both were overthrown in military coup d'états before completing a second term in office. Since the restoration of civil rule, attempts have not been made by politicians to deepen and strengthen democracy. Instead, Nigeria has only added to its history of fraudulent and violent elections. The 1999, 2003 and 2007 general elections that brought President Olusegun Obasanjo and later President Umaru Yar'Adua to power were marred by such widespread violence and fraud. For example, this was how the US-based Jimmy Carter Centre for democracy which monitored the 1999 election as an international observer concluded its report on the outcome of the presidential election like the other before it "it is not possible for us to make an accurate judgment about the outcome of the presidential election" (HRW, 2007). In the same vein, the 2003 elections were more pervasively and openly rigged than the flawed 1999 polls, and far more bloody.

These events set the stage for the 2007 elections, which both domestic and foreign observers succinctly described as the worst in Nigeria's history ranking among the worst conducted anywhere, in the world in recent times

(HRW's interviews with voters and observers on the April 2007 elections). For instance, the US-based National Democratic Institute (NDI) stated in its post-election statement that the electoral process "failed the Nigerian people" (NDI, 2007). The Human Rights Watch (2007) which monitored the election in its report said the Nigeria's failed April 2007 polls cast a harsh and very overt light on patterns of violence, corruption and outright criminality that have come to characterize Nigeria's political system, and on the extent to which officials and institutions at all levels of government accept, encourage and participate in those abuses (HRW, 2007). The 2007 general elections had come and gone with all its attributes, and the 2011 general elections did not fundamentally depart

from the previous elections, except that the degree of rigging was not as monumental as the previous elections. Nigerians are now afraid of future elections especially the elections that are just few days away.

A look at the global trends and challenges to democratic transition and consolidation shows dearth of knowledge on the principles of democracy. This manifests in the wrong practices of democracy especially in the developing countries. There are three major ways in which democracy has been and is being wrongly practiced. Firstly, is the issue of non-elected public officials making critical decisions that are largely outside the purview of elected officials. For example, much of economic policy, particularly the decisions of relatively independent central banks, fall into this category (Samarasinghe, 1994). The second one is the issue of electoral malpractices. One of the cardinal tenets of participatory democracy is orderly change of government through credible, free, fair and periodic elections. In most developing countries, institutions of the state such as the police, the military and even the electoral body collude to manipulate the electoral processes in favour of certain candidates. There are instances where individuals have won elections from the prison custody as in case of senator Omisore of Osun state and Governor Ahmefuna Orji of Abia state, contrary to the provision of the Electoral Act (Ogbonnaya, Omoju and Udefuna, 2012). The situation where elections are marred with monumental irregularities and malpractices does not depict democracy. The third one is the arbitrary use of power by the political leaders without recourse to constitutional dictates and provisions. The first in these series was the manner in which Odi Community in Bayelsa State was massacred under the huge loss of property and death of hundreds of people, mainly women and children (Yagboyaju, 2010).

Besides, the most recent political developments throughout the world have provoked interests in the theory of democracy. This makes it necessary to explore some of the major theoretical issues about democracy. Thus, the aim of this paper is to examine theories of democracy with special emphasis on the principles of democracy that countries and political actors could adopt to ensure good governance so that the people can enjoy the dividends of democracy.

ii. Political Theories of Democracy

WHAT IS A THEORY?

It is important to answer this question on a more basic line. Thus, it is very important here that we know the etymology of theory. The word theory is a Greek word *theorein*, which means to look upon, to observe, to consider, to contemplate; and the noun *theoria* meant looking at, looking more closely, observation, consideration, insight and scientific contemplation. The goal of these activities was to ascertain truth. The basic meaning of the word is still valid and underpins most of our modern definition of theory, including the definition of theory conveyed by this study. Theory is a higher form of generalization which has a wider application and enables prediction about a given phenomenon (Akpotor, 2000). The goal of theory is to explain something which has occurred with a

view to dealing with problems which arose or may arise as a result (Cohen, 1968). The possible functions of theory can be indicated by stating that they can be basically descriptive, analytical or explanatory, and to a certain degree predictive as well, and inherently Prescriptive. A scientific theory must be consistent with the facts, otherwise it is mere fiction. Theories can be verified by experiments or by methodological observation. Theory can serve two purposes; one is simple, direct response; to be a guide to help solve the problem within the terms of the particular perspective which was the point of departure. The other is more reflective which gives rise to theorizing and its relation to the other is more reflective which gives rise to theorizing and its relation to the other prospectiveand to open up the possibility of choosing a different valid perspective from which the problematic becomes one of creating an alternative world (Cox, 1991).

Theory is as necessary as it is unavoidable. Without it, it would be impossible to learn or to act in consistent fashion; without generalizations and abstractions, the world exist for us only as a chaotic patch word of discrete, disconnected experiences and sensory impressions.

Democratic Theories

Theories of democracy attempt to make democratic concepts operational by prescribing how democracy might be realized, in what institutional form, and the content of democracy. Thus it focuses on the procedural (input) aspect of the political process. Democratic theories provide answers to the perennial questions that plague the field of democratization studies. Such questions include:

- a. Why is democracy so prominent in the world today?
- b. What is the meaning of democracy?
- c. Will democracy continue to expand?
- d. Why is democracy succeeding in some countries and failing in other countries?
- e. Are current forms of democracy sufficient to give voice to the people in an increasingly fragmented and divided world?
- f. Who leads in democracy?
- g. What types of non-western democratic theories are there?
- h. Should democrats always defend democracy?
- i. Should democrats be fearful of de-democratization, post democracies and the rise of hybridized regimes?

In view of the above, we can confidently say that democratic theories provide the means for essential debates on democratic issues to germinate and develop. Democratic theories also share the view that each member of the political community carries elementary rational capacities that are sufficient to judge the conduct of government. According to Fung (2007), democratic theories describe the values and principles that should guide collective decisions about social problems. The importance of theoretical framework in a study also lies in the fact that social science research is theory based and

its operations are guided by relevant principles of human behavior (Goode and Hat, 1952). In modern political thought, traditionally the theories of democracy are categorized on how they conceptualize the people, citizenship, majority, and minority.

Elite Theory

The elite theory is a philosophical explanation of the role of the leadership in governance as it affects public policy including all socio-economic and political matters. The theory maintains that public policy reflects the values and preferences of the elite rather than demands of the masses. Elite theory directs attention to the source of policy flow and whose interest public policies serve. The major proponents of this theory are Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1023), and Robert Michels (1976-1936). The theory posits that a small minority, consisting of members of the economic elite and policy-planning networks, holds power and that this power is independent of a state's democratic elections process. According to Dowse and Hughes, (1983), elite theory is premised on a number of assumptions:

1. The society consist of two categories: the selected few, who are capable and, therefore, have the right to supreme leadership; and the vast masses of people who are desired to be ruled;
2. That the majority of human beings are apathetic, indolent and slavishly uninformed about what goes on in the administrative system and permanently incapable of self-government. That is, the elite decides on the structure, the personnel, the process of public policies of the administrative system; and
3. Hence, the structure, substance and output of the administrative system may be viewed as the preferences and values of the governing elite.

According to the elite theorist, important government decisions are made by identifiable and stable minority that shares certain, usually vast wealth and business connections (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). Although the voters appear to control the government through elections, elite theorists argue that powerful few in society manage to define the issues and to constrain the outcomes of government decisions to suite their own interests. Thus, elite theorists believe that some nation states like United States are not democracy, but an oligarchy where government power is in the hands of elite (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). While some believe that elites are bulwarks of democracy; protecting it from the dangers of totalitarianism, the sole source of value and element of democratic consolidation and political stability and constituting integrating force in the society without which it may fall part; other believe that elites are chief threat to the survival of democracy (Dowse and Hughes, 1983). This prompted Janda, Berry and Goldman (1998) to state that elite theory describes a government that operates in an undemocratic fashion.

The point of departure here is that elite theory attempts a realistic explanation of the source of policy by predicating it in the elite rather than the masses. Hence in democratic states public policies are seen emanating from the elite i.e., political, administrative economic leaders.

This theory is flawed because it is contradictory to democratic tents that lend credence to participation, openness, accountability and freedom in all spheres of societal life. The theory is also distasteful to may because it rules out the more ideal aims and outcomes that are regularly voiced by intellectuals, mass movement leaders, and even loosely predicted by social scientist. Elite theory has no place for the spread of new values that dispose human beings toward a consistent and thorough altruism.

Liberal Theory of Democracy

The central idea of liberal theory of democracy is how to design a political system which encourages individual participation and enhances moral development of citizens. Some of the proponents of this theory include John Locke, J.J. Rousseau, John Stuart Mill, Montesquieu and other Liberal writers whose theories advocate private liberty, natural rights, social justice, majority rule and private property (Oddih, 2007, cited in Kwasau, 2013). The major argument of the theory is that democracy is based on majority rule. The basic features of liberal democratic theory are: (a) acceptance of capitalism, (b) free, fair and periodic elections based on universal franchise, (c) emphasis on civil liberties or individual rights such as freedom of speech, assembly, press and religion, (d) competitive party system as opposed to one party system, (e) pressure groups (f) rule of law, (g) separation of powers and checks and balances, (h) abhorrence of revolutionary approach to change of government etc (Kwasau, 2013). In addition, there must be recognition of minority rights, respect for the constitution, more than one party competition for political power and periodic elections through which the people exercise their wills (Yunusa, 2013).

Critiques have argued that, liberal democracy is an integral part of the capitalist system; therefore, it is class-based and not democratic or participatory.

Pluralist theory of Democracy

This is a theory put forward to explain interest group influence on public policy. Pluralist theory connects democracy to power held by special interests the leading proponents of this theory include; J. N. Figgis (1866-1919), G. D. H. Cole (1889-1959) and H. J. Laski (1893-1950) (Hirst, 1993). Pluralist theory holds that people with common interests form organized groups to promote their causes and influence the political agenda. The theorists argue that in a diverse society such too many interest exist to allow any one coherent group of elites to rule. In other words, governments decisions are made in an arena of competing interests exist to allow any one coherent group of elites to rule. In other words, government decisions are made in an arena of competing interests, all vying for influence and struggling to speak for the people that they represent. This theory maintains that no single group, industry, or government agency dominates politics. It also asserts that a healthy competition exists in the development of the policy agenda and in the selection of the policy makers. According to his theory, because of the competition between the varied and diverse interest, no single interest is likely to have its view win consistently over others.

There tends to be little overlap between those leaders who participate most influentially in one policy area and those who are influential in other policy areas, and what linkage there is tends to come from popularly elected political officials (especially political executives and party leaders) who, by the nature of their jobs, must exercise leadership (or act as brokers) in a number of different policy areas. There is no single, unified “power elite”, but rather there are many competing power elites with different backgrounds, values and bases of support in the broader society.

Procedural Democratic Theory

Procedural democratic theory set forth principles that describe how government should make decisions. The theory came up with four principles; Universal participation, political equality, majority rule and government responsiveness to public opinion to guarantee that election are democratic and that elected representative should respond to public opinion. These principles address three distinctive questions:

1. Who should participate in decision making?
2. How much should each participant’s vote count?
3. How many votes are needed to reach a decision? (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998).

Procedural democratic theory that all adults within the boundaries of the political community should participate in government decision making. According to the theory, all votes should be counted equally. The theory also holds that a group should decide to do what the majority of its participants want to do. Believing that the principle of responsiveness is absolute, the theory argues that government should do what the majority of people wants, regardless of what that is (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). This theory has been accused of possessing criteria that can produce undesirable social policies that prey on minorities. However, the minority’s right can be protected by limiting the majority rule; either by requiring a two-third majority when decisions must be made on very important matters or by putting the issues in the constitution, far beyond the reach of the majority rule.

Substantive Democratic Theory

Substantive democratic theory emphasizes on the substance of government policies rather than the procedure followed in making such government policies. The theory argues that in a democratic government, certain principles must be embodied in government policies. There is a general consensus by most substantive theorists that:

1. Government policies should guarantee civil liberties (freedom of behavior such as freedom of religion and freedom of expression); and
2. Civil right (power or privilege that government may not arbitrarily deny individuals, such as protection against discrimination in employment and housing).

Substantive theories agree that these basic criteria underlie democratic government and its policies.

Substantive democratic theory has been criticized because it does not provide clear, precise criteria that allow us to determine whether a government is democratic.

Public Choice Theory

Public Choice theorists attempt to examine the system of government in which the people governed define their government by means of a constitution; it is concerned with the decision-making behaviors of voters, politicians and government officials. Public choice theory is a branch of economics that developed from the study of politics based on economic principles. James Buchanan, (winner of the Nobel Prize in Economic Science, 1986, for work in Public Choice) and Gordon Tullock are credited with being the primary developers of Public Choice Theory. Their book, *Calculus of Consent*, published in 1962, is still the classic piece on this subject (Shaw, 2012).

Public Choice theorists argue that rational people would mutually agree upon limited government also known as ‘social contract’ and that politicians are primarily motivated by self-interest. The theorists believe that politicians have a vested interest in growing government well beyond social contract. Public Choice scholars looked at the ways politicians interact with each other, the voters, and their supporters to achieve their own goals. Vote-trading, “log-rolling”, wealth transfers, etc. are a few of the methods they use to obtain their own selfish ends – and, occasionally, the wants of the citizens.

In addition to voters and politicians, public choice also analyses the role of bureaucrats in government. Their incentives explain why many regulatory agencies appear to be “captured” by special interests. Capture occurs because bureaucrats do not have a profit goal to guide their behavior. Instead, they usually are in government because they have a goal or mission. They rely on the legislature for their budgets, and often the people who will benefit from their mission can influence legislature to provide more funds. This is why Niskanen (1973) posited that the behavior of public sector bureaucrats is at the heart of public choice theory, “while they are supposed to work in the public interests, putting into practice the policies of government as efficiently and effectively as possible, public choice theorists see bureaucrats as self-interest, putting into practice the policies of government as efficiently and effectively as possible, public choice theorists see bureaucrats as self-interest utility-maximizers, motivated by such factors as: “salary, prerequisites of the office, public reputation power patronage and the ease of managing the bureau”. Thus, for Niskanen, self-interest is the sole motivator. To buttress this point further, Downs Anthony also added that the heart of all public choice theories is the notion that an official at any level, be they in the public or private sector, acts at least partly in his own self-interest, and some officials are motivated solely by their own self-interest. For him, broader motivations such as pride in performance, loyalty to a programme, department or government, and a wish to best serve their fellow citizens may also affect a bureaucrat’s behavior, and the level to which self-interest plays a role in decisions is different for each of five bureaucratic personality types that he identifies (Downs, 1967).

The most important contribution of Public Choice Theory is that it recognizes that politicians are motivated by self-interest, just like every other person in the society. It is important to mention here that a politician's self-interest is more serious than that of other people in the society. This accounts for why politicians change dramatically and fall short of the peoples' expectations, especially in developing countries where the self-interest action of the politicians have sent many youths into armed robbery, militancy, kidnapping, political assassins and terrorism, just to improve the political situation of the politicians. As a matter of fact, most developing countries in Africa are having so much trouble with their democratic government today because they are losing sight of the reality that politicians are self-interested and the public is not challenging them with the instrumentalities of the law.

Majoritarian Theory of Democracy

Majoritarian theory of democracy focuses on the will of the majority. The theory interprets government by the people as government by the majority of the people. The popular election of government officials is the primary mechanism for democratic government in the Majoritarian theory of democracy. Dahl (1989) views majoritarianism as the foundation of a democratic system, and therefore enumerates four major arguments in favour of majoritarian governance: it maximizes self-determination, it is the necessary consequence of practical requirements, it is more likely to produce correct decisions, and it maximizes utility (Dahl 1989).

The theory argued that the citizens are expected to control their representative's behavior by choosing wisely in the first place and by electing or voting out public officials according to their performance. Majoritarian theorists contend that citizens can control their government if they have adequate mechanism for popular participation. The theory assumes that citizens are knowledgeable about government and politics, that they want to participate in the political process and that they make rational decisions in voting for their elected representatives (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998). Thus, majoritarian theorists see election as a means for deciding government policies (Janda, Berry and Goldman, 1998).

Critics however contend that if permanent minority groups are present in the society, they can have a chance to get their preferred policy outcomes enacted.

Deliberative Democratic Theory

Deliberative democratic theory is a normative theory that suggests ways in which we can enhance democracy and criticize institutions that do not live up to the normative standard. For the fact that the theory is anchored on the conceptions of accountability and discussion, it is regarded as an expansion of conceptions of accountability and discussion; it is regarded as expansions of representative democracy. Deliberative democratic theory looks at the social, economic, political and historic conditions necessary for healthy deliberation as well as the attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs required of participants. The main argument of deliberative democratic theory is that deliberation can change

minds and transform opinions. The theory also maintains that individual autonomy is very important as it afford citizens the equal opportunities to offer and accept the reasons that justify collective rules and actions.

According to Cohen (1996), certain individuals liberties are necessary for citizens to form and judge views autonomously, prior to and in the course of political deliberation. Sunstein (2002) stressed that deliberation sharpens our disagreements, intensifies social competition and polarizes opinion. Thus many believe that deliberation under the right conditions will have a tendency to broaden perspectives, promote toleration and understanding between groups, and generally encourage a public-spirited attitude (Gutmann and Thompson 1996). Freeman (2002) also added that when the process of deliberation applies not just to the formation of policy, but to its specification and implementation, talk can make government more competent. Deliberative democratic theorists argued that deliberative democracy favours institutions that subjects political decisions making to reason. Cohen (1996), Gutmann and Thompson (1996) and Richardson (2002) believe that the conventional institutions of civil society, political parties, representative legislatures, courts, and administrative agencies can be reformed to create a complex political division of labour that advances the values of self-government through the reasoned rule of equal citizens.

Traditional Theory of Democracy

Traditional theory of democracy promotes majority rule without violating minority rights, maintaining the willingness to compromise, and recognizing the worth and dignity of all people. Traditional theory of democracy holds that governments for all types, including democracies, derive their power from the consent of the governed.

Traditional democratic theorists argue that everyone has the right to participate in government. This participation can occur either by direct or representative vote. In a direct vote, the people approve public policy themselves. This situation works well on a small scale, as in a town meeting. In a representative vote, a group of elected officials acts on behalf of their constituents. This type of vote is used at the state and national levels determine public policy. For voting to be effective at any level, people need access to information, so they can make informed decisions. The U.N. General Assembly's 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights put it succinctly by sating, "The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of the government" (<https://www.brainscape.com>).

Democratic Governance in Nigeria

A critical look at the practice of democracy in Nigeria vis a vis the above theories of democracy, shows a negation of democracy. According to John Ikubaje quoted in Obukohwo (2007) democratic governance in Nigeria seems to be exactly opposite of what democracy by Nigerian leaders. Democratic governance in Nigeria is characterized with exclusion or non-participation of citizens in governance, lack of accountability, transparency and responsiveness on the part of government officials, absence of checks against abuse of power disrespect for the rule of law, inequality before

the law, absence of promotion and defense of human rights etc. election into political offices in Nigeria are usually not the peoples' choice. Gbadebo (2001) described all previous elections into different elective offices in the country since the time of independence in 1960 as grave manipulation against the will of the electorate. To buttress this point further, the Transition Monitoring Group TMG described the 2003 election thus:

While the voters waited and persevered in the polling stations to cast their votes, the political class and the political parties had different ideas. The voters wanted their votes to determine the winner of the election, while the political class wanted to corrupt the process and rig their way into elective office on the whole, the result can be said to marginally reflect the choice and will of the Nigeria people (TMG, 2003, cited in Adejumobi and Agbaje, 2006:39).

Nigeria's democracy also lack respect for fundamental human right. It is noted for its extra-judicial killing, unlawful detention and other series of human right abuses. Any acct of torture or extra-judicial killing is a violation of human right not compatible with tenet of democracy. In Nigeria, gunshots and horse whips are still instrument of compliance or obedience used by the security forces, while torture is on regular basis employed by the police force to extract confessional statements from suspects. It is for this reason that United States of America refused to sell combatant air craft named 'Cobra' to Nigeria, on the basis of the allegation that Nigeria's defense defence forces have been violating human rights of Boko Haram suspects when captured or arrested (Soriwei and Adepegba, 2014). It is important to mention here that the killing of the former Boko Haram leader Muhammed Yusuf cannot be instances fromn being a primary cause of the rampage by the sect. maybe if the leader was alive things would not have gobe worse (Ajah, 2011). According to Alonge and Anegbode (2011), apart from the fact that useful information would have been gathered from Muhammed Yusuf, his hasty killing infringes on his fundamental human rights as enshrined in the chapter 4 of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Another area where democratic practices run contrary to the tenets of democracy in the above theories is in the area of disrespect for the rule of law. John (2011) described Obasanjo's administration as "the worst" when it comes to executive lawlessness. A good example is the refusal of Obasanjo to pay all the statutory allocation due to Local Government Council in Lagos State on the order of the Supreme Court. However, it was Yar' Adua's regime that later enforced the Supreme Court order, paying Lagos State money worth 108 billion naira (Adenyi, 2011).

The judiciary has not escaped the vagaries of the abuse of the rule of law. It has been under attack by the general public for its breach of public trust by judicial pronouncement that tend to appear externally influenced. A reference point is the case of AbdulrashidMaina who was asked to pay 750,000 naira by the judiciary for embezzling 30 billion naira police pension fund.

The imposition of electoral candidate on the people is also common with Nigeria's democracy. This usually happens where Incumbent President or Governors have vested interest in some persons, and

they go to any extent; including breaching of constitutional provision and disenfranchisement of some persons to ensure that their choice candidate emerge victorious. This act is in contrary to the tenet of democracy and does not help democratic development in any way. As a matter of fact, for a nation desirous of progress and economic transformation, Nigerians, especially the leaders must at all-time imbibe deeply the principle of democracy as postulated by theories of democracy.

CONCLUSION

From the above theories of democracy, it is obvious that democracy means governments established by and with the consent of the people. It also shows that democracy connotes the acceptance of the people's will as supreme in governance of public affairs. It is also obvious that the constitution is very essential in a democratic government as both the leaders and the led are expected to obey the constitution. In a democratic government, leaders are chosen by the people through election; hence elections should be free and fair. Since the development of any nation is tied to the extent to which its government and/or governance is democratic, leaders are expected to master the theories of democracy. Mastering the theories of democracy involves considering every aspect of democratic principles; free and fair elections, obedience to the constitution, acceptance of the people's will during elections and paying constant attention to the will of the majority who elected them to make laws. As a matter of fact, leaders must carefully study the theories of democracy so as to uncover their true meaning and significance, not just taking them at face value.

References

- Adejumobi, S. and Agbaje, A. (2006). Do votes count: The travails of electoral politics in Nigeria. Dakar: Council for the development of Social Science Research in Africa, CODESRIA, 39.
- Adeniyi, O. (2011). *Power, politics and death: A front-row account of Nigeria under the late President Yar' Adua*. Lagos: Prestige, 5.
- Ajah, M. (2011). How to end Boko Haram fire-back. Retrieved 12th July 2011, from <http://thewillnigeria.com/opinion/8971-HOW-TO-END-BOKO-HARAM-FIRE-BACK.html>.

- Anegbode, J.E and Alonge, S. (2010). Rethinking Boko Haram activities: The role of bad governance in its occurrence. *International Journal of History and Strategic Studies*, 2(1), 45-56.
- Apadoria, (1975) Akpotor, A.S. (2000). *Theoretical foundation of international relations. A monograph Series. Benin City: E.C. Godson Int'l Press.*
- Cohen, P.S. (1968) *Modern social theory*. London: Heinemann.
- Cohen, J. (1996). Procedure and substance in deliberative democracy. In Benhabib, S. (ed). *Democracy and difference*. Princeton: Princeton University Press: 95-119.
- Cox, R. W. (1991). Social forces, states and world orders: Beyond international relations theory. In Williams, H., Wright, M. and Evans, T. (eds.) *A reader in international relations theory*. Vancouver: UBC Press, 277.
- Dahl, R. (1989). *Democracy and its critics*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Di Palma, G. (1990). *To craft democracies.. an essay on democratic transitions*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 16.
- Downs, A. (1967). *Inside bureaucracy*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 164 *international Journal of Governance and Development Vol. 4 No. 1, January 2015*
- Dowse, R. and Hughes, J. (1983). *Political sociology*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Freeman, S. (2002). Deliberative democracy: A sympathetic comments. *Philosophy and public affairs* 29, October, 371-418.
- Fung, A. (2007). Democratic theory and political science: A pragmatic method of constructive engagement. *American Political Science Review*, 101(3), August, 443-358
- Gbadebo, E. O. (2001). National integration: A panacea for sustainable governance in Nigeria. In Ismaila, B.R., Ojebode, P.A. and Afolabi S.O. (eds). *Challenges of democratic governance*. Oyo: Odumatt Press and Publishers.
- Goode, W. and Hatt, P. (1952). *Methods in Social Research*. Singapore: McGraw Hill Book Company Inc.
- Gutmann, A. and Dennis, D. (1996). *Democracy and Disagreement*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hirst, P.Q. (1993). *The pluralist theory of the state: Selected writings of G.D. H. Cole, J.N. Figgis, and H.J. Laski*. London: Routledge, 10-14. <https://www.brainscape.com/flashcards/27925358/-What-is-the-traditional-theory-regarding-how-democracy-derives-its-authority%3f-> retrieved 23rd November, 2010.

- John, E. O. (2011). The rule of law in Nigeria. Myth of reality. *Journal of Politics and law*, 4(1), March, 212.
- Janda, K., Berry, J.M. and Goldman, J. (1998). The challenge of democracy. Third edition. New York: Houghton and Mifflin Company, 17-26.
- Kwasau, M. A. (2013). The challenges of democratic consolidation in Nigeria's fourth republic. *European Scientific Journal* March, 9(8), 181-192.
- Niskanen, W. A. (1973). *Bureaucracy: servant or master?* London: Institute of Economic Affairs.
- Obukohwo, E. A. (2007): Corruption cost of governance and sustainable democracy in Nigeria. In Akpotor, A. S., Afolabi, A. O., Odiagbe, O. S., Aigbokhaevbolo, M. O. and Iganiga, B. O. (Eds) *Cost of governance in Nigeria: An evaluative analysis*. Ambrose Alli University Press, Ekpoma, 373-399.
- Ogbonnaya, U. M., Omoju, O. E. and Udefuna, N. P. (2012). Challenges of democratic governance in Nigeria's forth republic. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Science*, 3(11), November, 685-693.
- Richardson, H. (2002). *Democratic autonomy: Public reasoning about the ends of policy*. New York: Oxford University Press. An Exposition of Some Theories of Democracy.
- Samarasinghe, S.W.R. (1994). *Democracy and democratization in developing countries*. Boston: Department of Population and International Health Harvard School of Public Health, 7-8.
- Sarton (1965) Shaw, J. S. (2012). Public choice theory. *Concise Encyclopedia of Economics*. Schumpeter (1967),
- Soriwei, F. and Adepegba, A. (2014, November 14). We won't sell fighter helicopters to Nigeria, US insists. *Punch Newspaper*, 2.
- Sustein, C. (2000). Deliberative trouble? Why Groups Go to Extremes. *Yale Law Journal* 110, October, 71-119.
- Yagbaoyaju, D. A. (2010). *The state and governance crisis in Nigeria: A comparative approach*. Ibadan: College Press and Publishers Limited.
- Yunusa, M. A. (2013). The tenets of liberal democracy and its practice under goodluck Jonathan's administration. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(4), 64-71.

CHAPTER THREE
ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

BY

DR. ACHEGBULU J. O & OLUMORIN M.O

olumorinkemi@gmail.com

ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

DEFINITION

Administrative Behaviour could be likened to Organizational Behaviour depending on the field. In other words, scholars in the field of economic, business administration would rather prefer the use of the term organisational behaviour than administrative behaviour. The two terminology however is one and same, both in conceptualization and practicalization.

Organisational Behaviour (OB) is the study of human behaviour in organisational contexts, with focus on individual and group process and actions. Hence, it involves an exploration of organisational and managerial processes in the dynamic context of the organisation and it's primarily concerned with the human implications of such activity. Knowledge of (OB) should enable you explain and predict human behaviour in organisations, even control it if appropriate and diagnose organisational problems with some insight and expertise.

Organisation can be defined as two or more individuals who are interacting with each other within a deliberately structured set up and working in an interdependent way to achieve some common objectives. So, organisational behaviour can be referred to as the study of what people think, feel, and do in and around organisations. the organisational behaviour facilitates the process of explaining, understanding, predicting, maintaining and changing employee behaviour in an organisational setting.

Administrative/organisational behaviour is the study of human behaviour in an organisational setting of the interface between human behaviour and organisation within the organisation itself.

A focus on Organisation, Human Being and interaction is ultimately necessary for a comprehensive understanding of administrative behaviour. for instance individual behaviour can be studied under

the behaviour of the staff of Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba without explicitly studying the Organisation itself.

However, it is important to note that the organisation influences and is influenced by the individuals, we cannot fully understand the individual's behaviour without learning about the organisation (administration). We can equally study organisation without focussing directing on the employee within them. Individuals do not work in isolation, they come in contact with other people and with the organisation in a variety of ways. Point of contact include managers, co-workers, the formal policies and procedures of the organisation and various changes implemented by the organisation overtime. Here, managers or administrators must consider how the individuals and organisation interact.

Administrative/organisational behaviour is exciting and complex because it has several varieties or factors, e.g Decision-Making and communication patterns, performance evaluation and record systems and the design of the organisation itself can provide added insight into why some people choose to leave an organisation while others decide to stay. These factors provide unique and important opportunities to enhance personal and organisational effectiveness.

Emergence

In the early 19th century, Robert Owen, Hugo Munterberg and Mary Parker Follet were among the first early writers and managers to recognise the importance of individual behaviour to organisations. Robert Owen, a British Industrialist, attempted in the early 19th century to better the condition of individual workers through improved working conditions, raised the minimum age for hiring children, introduced meals for employees and shortened working hours. Hugo Munsterberg (a German Psychologist) in the early 20th century argued that the field of psychology could provide insights into areas such as motivation and staff recruitment. Mary Follett (an expert in vocational guidance) believed that management should be more democratic in its dealing with employers and strive harder to accommodate their employees human needs. Like Mary Follett, the views of Owen and Munsterberg were not shared widely by managers. It was only in the 1930s that management perception of the relationship between the individual and the workplace changed significantly.

The most significant starting point of organisational behaviour was in the 1930s occasioned by the Hawthorne studies led by Elton Mayo, Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson (1927 and 1932) which led to some of the first discoveries of the importance of Human behaviour in organisations. following the Hawthorne studies, the human relations movement emerged. Human relationists believed that employees satisfaction is a key determinant of performance.

A prominent human relations writer, Douglas McGregor developed the concepts of Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X takes a negative and pessimistic view of workers. Theory Y is more positive and optimistic and McGregor advocated the adoption of Theory Y, which generally represent the human relation perspective. The Hawthorne studies and the Human Relations Movement played major roles in developing the foundations for the field of Administrative or Organisational Behaviour.

Importance of Administrative Behaviour.

People are born and educated within the context of administrative behaviour, the acquire most of their possession from an organisation and die as a member of an organisation. So also, most of the activities are regulated by the various organisation that make up our government and most adults spends the better part of their lives working in organisation. It is important to note that organisations influence our lives sternly and we have reasons to be concerned about how and why those organisations work. Therefore, the understanding of administrative behaviour can play a vital role in managerial or administrative work. In order to understand this concept, administrators must thoroughly understand all its concepts as well as its assumptions and premises.

Characteristics of Administrative Behaviour.

Contemporary administrative behaviour has an interdisciplinary focus, therefore it emanated from the field such as psychology, anthropology, sociology, political science, economic, as well as medicine.

1. **ECONOMICS:** the study of production, distribution and consumption of goods and services, students of administrative behaviour share the economists interest in areas such as productivity, human resource planning, labour market dynamics, cost-benefit analysis etc.
2. **POLITICAL SCIENCE:** it is the study of political system, such as government, they include how and why people acquire power and such topics as decision-making, conflict, political parties and pressure groups, i.e., the behaviour of interest groups and coalition formation.
3. **PSYCHOLOGY:** its most important contribution is from psychology. Psychologist study human behaviour while organisational psychologist deals particularly with the behaviour of people in the organisational settings. The concept that interest psychologist are individual differences and motivation, which serves as central areas to students of administrative behaviour.
4. **SOCIOLOGY:** the study of social systems such as family, occupational classes and organisations has a major impact on administrative behaviour, the field overlap with the areas of sociology that focus on the organisation as a social system.
5. **ANTHROPOLOGY:** the study of the interaction between people and their environments, most especially their cultural environment. The most important influence on organisational structure is its culture on the behaviour of people in such organisation.
6. **MEDICINE:** quite recently medicine has come to play in connection with the study of human behaviour at work, especially while managing stress at workplace, research however shows that controlling the causes and consequences of stress in and out of organisational settings, which is important for the well-being of both the individual and the organisation.

Organisational Culture.

Organisational culture according to Prince-Abbi (2002) is the value and belief system of an organisation and the general pattern of behaviour among employees, in addition, he said such a behaviour determines the prevailing character of the organisation. This is the collection of values, expectations and practices that guide and informed the actions of all team members. A great culture exemplifies positive traits that lead to improved performance, while dysfunctional organisational culture brings out qualities that can hinder the most successful organisation.

As it affect all aspect of businesses, from the punctuality aspect to that of employees benefits, it is important to note that when workplace culture aligns with employees, they are more likely to feel very comfortable and valued at the long run. Culture is an important factor while dealing with talent acquisition and effective performance in any organisation, as it serves as an important indicator of employee satisfaction and a major reason for employee retention.

As individuals, we adopt culture, it means we have identified with a particular society, now how does an organisation acquire organisational culture? According to Prince-Abbi, culture in general and the most effective form organisational culture are in essence built upon assumptions and relationships with a set of values and ideas among members.

In the 19th century, a German sociologist Ferdinard Torries, categorises associational relationship of culture into two

1. The culture built on the natural will to associate, for instance, family members, blood ties and friends, this type of culture is ordinarily deprived from being a member of a certain society.
2. The second one is built upon the rational will to associate, for instance, a member of an organisation, which brings to bear the concept of bureaucracy by German sociologist, Max Weber, who says orders given in bureaucracies are obeyed because they are legal-rational. The organisation is premised on the rational willingness of its members to subject themselves to a given set of behavioural pattern. Now every member in it, on the premise of natural willingness accept to subject themselves to the culture of such organisation.

Sources of Organisational Culture

1. CULTURAL MILIEU: According to Stoner etal (1995) the creation of stories, heroes, rites and ceremonies are sources of organisational culture. Quite a number of these may not be relevant sources of culture in a public sector organisation, rites and ceremonies such as taking oath of secrecy and of office at the commencement of an office, an instance is that of the university's matriculation and convocation ceremonies. According to Prince-Abbi (2002) organisational culture is a product of the environment (macro-culture) in which it exists. Usually, organisational culture do not necessarily occur in vacuum, the society where that particular organisation/company is located is

automatically integrated into the organisational culture, for instance, their value system, beliefs, and material traits that characterised the people of such society. Here organisational culture becomes a sub-culture existing within a larger cultural milieu (macro-culture). Prince-Abbi (2002) has stated that organisational culture must have a positive and productive interface with the larger culture milieu in which it exists.

2. **THROUGH LEADERSHIP:** Robert (1961) noted that leadership always involves attempts on a part of a leader to affect or influence the behaviour of a follower. Charismatic leadership most especially brings new ideas, which automatically transform into new way of life or behavioural pattern. Prince-Abbi (2002) further describe effective leaders as the culture carriers who ordinarily instil morals and values that are needed in the hearts and minds of employee for the appropriate culture to prevail, while driving organisation in achieving its set goals. Draft Richard (1995) describe the early leaders who articulates and implements a particular ideas and values as vision, philosophy or business strategy, instance are those of past presidents and leaders of various organisation who informed their new ideas by creating a platform for execution.
3. **THROUGH ARTIFACTS:** this could be a form of written and unwritten rules. They are good source of organisational culture. The table of every senior public servant contained four indispensable artifacts or sources of culture, for instance public service rules, financial regulations, civil service handbook and establishment circulars, stores regulations condition of service, scheme of service for local governments etc.

Evolution of Administrative Organisational theory from classical through the neo-classical to the modern.

Thomas (2017) defined theory as a description of phenomenon and the interaction of its variables that are used to attempt to explain or predict it. Similarly, a theory can be described as a set of statements that is understandable to others and can be used to make predictions about empirical events. It involves the formation of general ideas and approaches that can be applied by all

organisations, no matter their activities, societal and geographical surroundings (Irefin and Bwala, 2012)

The root of organisations theory can be traced to generalisations on the concept which began as far back as the 1850s, but its origin as a theory can be traced to Gulick's (1937) first study, however, there isn't much study on it until the 1950s when Herbert Simon actively promoted the concept with his work on 'Modern Organisation Theories' (1950), 'Comment on the Organisation Theory' (1952) and 'A Comparison of Organisation Theory' (1953). Describing Simon's earlier idea of the concept, Starbuck (2003) asserted that organisation theory is a broad field of study comprising scientific management, industrial engineering, psychology of small groups, human resources management and strategy among others.

Organisation theories are offshoots of organisational practices and at the same time aids those practices (Yang, Liu and Wang, 2013). However, the concept has evolved over time because organisations operate in a fluid environment that causes it to continually change its shape and operations to survive, making organisation theory to evolve along with it to fit its current need.

1. CLASSICAL ORGANISATION THEORY:

This is the pioneer theory of organisations and was the traditional theory of organisations in the 1930s and still stand relevant today. In the advent of industrial revolution and power driven machines resulted in production, workers and factories system led to capital intensive and highly coordinated work processes. As a result, the old order of the organisation process was no longer enough and classical theory emerged as an answer to this challenge.

Classical theorists viewed the organisation as a machine and the human working in these organisations as the components of this machine. They believe that an organisation can only increase its efficiency if its human components are made to be efficient (Onday, 2016). Contributors of this theory include Adam Smith, Frederick Taylor, Max Weber, Henry Fayol and more. Smith division of labour highlighted the positive effects of specialisation with regards to overall productivity of organisation. Taylor focused on increasing productivity by using scientific methods to discover the

one best way of driving up task and least fatiguing production method in the design of the organisation.

2. NEO-CLASSICAL ORGANISATION THEORY:

Elton Mayo pioneered the Hawthorne studies which formed the basis for this study. It starts as far back as 1924, in the Western Electric Company in Chicago. He did several experimentations using diverse approaches to investigate the relationship between the style of leadership, working conditions and other organisational issues with employee output. The study reveals that economic incentives alone is not enough to keep human beings motivated, hence social and psychological motivating factors which include appreciation, association, sense of belongingness and different societal facets connected to the workplace were discovered (Kashyap, 2015). It was also known that informal organisations within the organisation exist and that socio-psychological factors exert influence on human behaviour, this shows the possibility that co-workers may exert a greater influence on work behaviour than the economic incentives offered by management (Onday, 2016).

There are two sources of neoclassical theory: the sociologists and the social psychologists who are concerned with interaction and relations within groups, often referred to as the Human Relations School and the psychologist who focused on individual behaviour. It recognises the existence of an informal organisation within every formal organisation and that both of them affect each other. The theory assumed that the human being is interdependent, so the organisation can only predict its behaviour if it studies its social and psychological factors, it explains the fact that human beings do not always act rationally, and that organisational goals conflict with those of individual workers, so it is crucial to reconcile these goals to benefit both parties.

3. MODERN ORGANISATION THEORY:

Modern theorists view the organisation as a dynamic open system which has to adapt to changes in its environment. A theory with major influence on the contemporary society, its distinctive features are its reliance on empirical research data, conceptual analytical base, and its integrating nature (Ferdous, 2017).

The theory is not a unified body of thought, as each contributor has their own part, as they emphasis on system, it is an amalgamation of contingency, decision-making, systems and other theories. The part of organisational system comprises the individual and the personality structure he brings to the organisation, the physical setting in which the job is to be accomplished and status and role patterns and all these parts are interrelated and work together to achieve organisational goals. These sub-systems are interconnected through communication, decision-making and balance which is equilibrating mechanism which allows the different parts of the system to stay in a harmonious and structured relationship.

Relating Administration to Politics

Wilson (1887) argued in favour of separation between politics and administration, the underlying logic of Wilson's argument is that the "spoils system" in the government of United State of America at the time under Jackson's presidency was as a result of mixture of politics and administration. By separating the two through applying a merit system in the bureaucracy would prevent the spoils system to happen as well as promoting professionalism in administration. Rohr (1989) revisited the issues of this separation between politics and administration by exploring the arguments from those who are both for reform and against it. Rohr argues that the dichotomy of politics and administration is inadequate as politics and bureaucracy are mutual.

Gordon (1992) and Mulgan (1998) provides an analysis of the relationship between politics and public service in the United State and Australia, he shows that public administration in America is relatively more politicized and the bureaucracy has their own bureaucratic power and interest to engage into political arena.

While debating politics and administration, three main issue was discussed, the first debate that came up was whether it is possible to separate administration from politics. All participants tents to agree with Rohr's argument that politics and administration should be linked and it is unwise to dichotomise them. Administration should be kept neutral and professional as intended by Wilson. Although the discussion did not discuss in detail about how exactly the ideal relationship between minister and officials, all the participant however agree that professionalism on both sides would make the relation between the two becomes mutually exclusive and harmony.

The second issue that got much attention is about the accountability of bureaucratic organisation. Gordon (1992) stated that bureaucracy has inherent power mainly in the form of expertise and problematic responsibilities. As it is in democratic system, every exercise of power call for accountability, so does bureaucratic power.

Bureaucratic accountability led to the third issue about politicians' control over bureaucracies, since bureaucracy is both accountable to president and other political office holders, such situation sometimes leaves the bureaucracy in the middle of war, if there is a conflicting policy between the two. And this is because bureaucrats are often responsible to the government of the day. Ordinarily, they are not to be allowed to participate in party politics or show allegiance to any political party.

REFERENCES.

Abraham Maslow (1943). A Theory of Human Motivation, *Psychological Review* pp. 370-396

Daft, R. L., (2010). *Organisation theory and design* (10th ED.). South-Western:Cengage Learning.

Douglas McGregor (1960). *The Human Side of Enterprise* McGraw-Hill: New York

Elton Mayo (1933) *The Human Problem of Industrial Civilization* Macmillan: New York

Fayol, H. (1949). *General and Industrial management* (C. Storrs, Trans.). London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons.

Ferdous, J. (2016). Organisational theory from Classical perspective. *International Journal of Economics and Law*, 9(2), 1-6.

Frederick W. Taylor (1911). *Principle of Scientific Management* Harper: New York

Gordon, G 1992, *public Administration in America*, St. Martin's Press, New York.

Hugo Munsterberg (1992), *psychology and industrial Efficiency*

- Irefin, M. P., & Bwala, D. (2012). Organisational theories and analysis: A feminist perspective. *International Journal of Advancements in Research and Technology*, 1(1), 71-97
- Onday, O. (2016). Classical to modern organisation theory. *International Journal of Business and Management Review*, 4(2), 14-49.
- Max Weber (1921) *Theory of Social and Economic Organisation*, Oxford University Press, London.
- Mulgan, R 1998, 'Politicisation of Senior appointments in the Australian Public service', *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 57, no. 3, pp. 3-14.
- Rohr, JA 1989, *Ethics for Bureaucrats: An Essay on Law and Values*, Merce Dekker, New York.
- Wilson, W 1887, 'The study of public administration' in Shafritz, JM and Hyde, AC (ed.), *Classic of Public Administration*, Brooks/Cole, California.
- Yang, C. X., Liu, H. M., & Wang, X.X. (2013). Organisation theories: From classical to modern. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 13(21), 4470.

PATRICK UKWUMONU OKEME (Ph.D)

ALIH MUSA,

OGRIMA ISYAK and OGUCHE GABRIEL JOSIAH

Introduction

The concept of the state or government cannot be meaningfully discussed without mentioning and talking about the citizens who make up the integral part of the state. The state or its agents and the government cannot exist in isolation without the citizens just as the citizens cannot exist without the state or government. The citizens makes up the population of any state/country and it is worthy to note that population is one of the features of a modern state and the government is instituted for the good of the people/citizens (Adebayo, 2019).

Therefore citizen rights and obligations to government and government duties to her citizens cannot be separated from the other if the society is to exist and for peace and orderliness to reign. According to Adebayo (2016) the process of executing duties and obligations forms a strong basis in governance involving both the citizens and government. Leadership or governance by any elected and constituted government is therefore based on contractual agreement to carryout constitutional duties and obligations in the interest of the citizens (Asiegbu, Oguejiofor and Ewuim, 2000).

From the foregoing therefore, the social contract theory which was propounded by prominent 17th and 18th century theorists such as Hugu Grotius (1625), Thomas Hobbes (1651), Samuel Von Pufendorf (1673), John Locke (1689), Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762) and Immanuel Kant (1797) holds the view that government and societies exist based on social contract that the welfare and protection of the citizens will be ensured by the government and on the other hand that the citizens should as a society respect constituted authority and be guided by constitutional laws in any leadership.

Leadership entails followership and in this case the citizens are the followers and it is a kind of followership strictly guided by rules and regulations, that is, the rule of law and by the supremacy of the law alone. The social contract theory sees government to be responsible only to her bonafied citizens who must have fulfilled the country's citizenship requirements oras provided under the country's citizenship laws.

According to Chikendu (2002) the main crux of any responsible government is the wellbeing of her citizens and on the other hand the citizens are expected to be patriotic. This is very fundamental because if any government is to achieve its basic objectives the state and her citizens must respect and fulfill expected duties and obligations from both parties as spelt out by the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

It is from the foregoing that it is imperative to understand the people of Nigeria, the concept of citizenship, constitutional laws safeguarding citizenship in Nigeria, duties and obligations that should be obeyed and carried out by both the government and her citizens, the state and its basic concepts respectively.

History of Nigeria and People: An Overview

Nigeria gained her independence on 1st of October 1960 from the British colonial rule. Nigeria is an amalgam of various pre-colonial states and civilizations, which have been merged into what it is today through the political engineering of the British in 1860 at the annexation of the Lagos Colony.

There are three major tribes in Nigeria namely: the Hausa-Fulani, the Yoruba's and the Ibo's. There not less than 250 discernible ethnic groups in Nigeria (big and small) and has functional indigenous, social, economic and political institutions that served the purpose of governance, trading and community development needs under the afore mentioned three major tribes above. To the East are the acephalous or non-centralized societies of the Ibos. There are Hausa-Fulani in the North, the Yoruba in the West and the Edo in the Mid-West, the Niger Delta areas of South-South consisting of the Nembe, Kalabari, Bonny, Itsekiri, Obolo, Opobo, Calabar, Urhobo and the Ijaw, among others.

The Concept of Citizenship

According to Ofoegbu (1999) citizenship is the rights and privileges bestowed on an individual or group of individuals by the state, who in turn dedicate their loyalty, obedience and full allegiance to the state. In it, the state declares its protection for the citizens, whereas the citizens declare to obey the laws of the state. The state is usually composed of two groups of people namely the citizens and the aliens. Citizens are the indigenous people or nationals of the state, while aliens are the visitors or foreigners in the state. Nevertheless both are expected to obey the laws of the state while the state in turn protects their lives and property (Adeniran, 2018).

Citizenship ensures the enjoyment of some inalienable rights and privileges and also provides for the duties and obligations of those who enjoy such rights. In words of Asiodu (1979) citizenship is a reciprocal action, which involves the state and the citizens. The issuance of rights by the state begets the rendering of specific obligations to the state by the citizens/nationals.

Chukwuemeka (2013) defined citizenship as a concept which relates to the membership of the state as it expresses the status of individuals who possess full political and legal rights in a state. According to Appadorai (1975) citizenship as a concept provides all requirement to be fulfilled before one can be referred to as a citizen of any country.

In the same vein, Agbo and Ujam (2020) avers that the process of state law conferring the franchise or authorization on aliens who have requested or given a declaration of intention to become a citizen and haven been approved fulfilling all requirements is regarded to as conferring citizenship.

Who is a Citizen?

According to Adigwe (2019) and Adefolanin (2020) a citizen is a legal member of a state who has full constitutional or legal right in the country in which he or she resides. Such a citizen enjoys certain rights and privileges from the state while the citizen on the other hand owes certain responsibilities and obligations to the state. Anyone who has the right of a country's citizenship has full political and legal right in the country.

A citizen is a person who owes allegiance to a state and in turn receives protection from the state. All citizens must carry out their expected duties and obligations towards the state as the state on the other hand grants the citizen civil, political and social rights (Benemy, 1968).

In a general perspective, a citizen is an individual of a nation/country who owes allegiance to such a country and has his life and property under the protection of the same country. The word citizen has often been used as a resident or inhabitant of a country.

Global Historical Development of the Concept of Citizenship: An Overview

According to Ball (2017) the concept of citizenship dates back to the 19th century. It came into being with the emergence of the concept of nation state. This concept first became important in some of the cities of Ancient Greece. The French and American Revolution were the events through which national citizenship gained its modern significance.

Significance or Importance of Citizenship

The unquantifiable joy that one is a citizen or a legal member of a country is one of the most important benefits of citizenship where your life and properties are protected and kept safe. According to Chukwuemeka (2006) the following are major importance of citizenship:

- a. A citizen has the right to vote and be voted for.
- b. A citizen is safe from deportation of not been ask to leave to country at any time.
- c. A citizen's allegiance to his or her country gives him or her right to protect or defend his or her country.
- d. Furthermore, in principle, a citizen has rights and duties which are largely limitless while those of non-citizens are always quantified and the scope of their obligations are limited. For instance, non-citizen cannot vote and be voted for.
- e. Moreover, citizens may not have their rights revoked while non-citizens can have their rights revoked.

Basic Ways of Acquiring Citizenship in Nigeria

According to Huge Grotius (1625), Thomas Hobbes (1651), Samuel Von Pufendorf (1673), John Locke (1689), Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762) and Immanuel Kant (1797) in any social contract there are rules and regulations. Consequently, the state just like any other formal organization such as political parties through which leaders emerge to govern the country has the right to make rules governing their party membership.

Therefore citizenship which is membership of a given country must be guided by rules and regulation too. It is on this note that all countries have specific and varying rules and modes of acquiring their citizenship or ground by which an individual can be called their citizen.

In the Nigerian context, the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria makes a detailed provision of how the Nigerian citizenship could be acquired: (See: Nigeria 1999 Constitution as amended – Chapter III – Sub Sec 25-32).

Thus, an individual may acquire his citizenship by birth, nationality, marriage, registration, or conferment. Chukwuemeka (2014) aptly summarized the modes of acquiring citizenship as follows:

- a. **By Birth:** A person is a citizen if either of his parents, mother or father is a citizen of the said country.
- b. **Dual Citizenship:** It is possible for a person to hold citizenship of two countries. For example, a child born to Nigerian parents living in Ghana becomes a Ghanaian. The child is also a Nigerian since the parents are from Nigeria.
- c. **By Naturalization:** One can become a citizen of a country where he or she lives by naturalization. This is possible where the person can satisfy the constitutional requirements for citizenship by naturalization.
- d. **Honourary Citizenship:** An individual could be honoured with the citizenship of another country. This is made possible if the individual has distinguished his or herself in a particular field of human and academic endeavours. For instance in sports or by outstanding renounced research breakthrough which has solved national problems or world over.
- e. **By Marriage or Registration:** A woman married to a person of another country can acquire the citizenship of the husband's country through registration.

Requirements Specifying Conditions for Acquiring Citizenship in Nigeria

According to Ewuim (2014) acquiring citizenship has some qualifications attached to them. For instance, the constitution of Nigeria, 1999 provides in section 25, that a citizen of Nigeria is:

1. Every person born in Nigeria before the date of independence, either of whose parents or grandparents belong or belonged to a community indigenous to Nigeria.
2. Every person born in Nigeria after the date of independence either of whose parents or any of whose parents is a citizen of Nigeria; and
3. Every person born outside Nigeria either of whose parents is a citizen of Nigeria.

Conditions for Aliens Acquiring Nigerian Citizenship

Aliens can acquire the Nigerian citizenship in accordance with section 25(1) of the 1999 constitution. These conditions are:

1. The person must be of full age and capacity.
2. He must be of good character.
3. He must have shown a clear intention of his desire to be domiciled in Nigeria.
4. He is, in the opinion of the Governor of the State ' where he is or he proposes to be resident, Acceptable to the local community in, which he is to live permanently and has been assimilated into the way of life of Nigerians in that part of the federation.
5. He is a person who has made or is capable of making useful contributions to the advancement, progress and wellbeing of Nigeria.
6. He has taken an oath of allegiance prescribed In the 6th schedule of the constitution; and
7. He has, immediately preceding the date of his application; either resided in Nigeria for a continuous period of 15 years or resided in Nigeria continuously for 12 months and, during the period of 12 months has resided in Nigeria for a period amounting to the aggregate of not less than, 15 years.

Requirements for Citizenship by Marriage or Registration

On the issue of acquiring citizenship by marriage or registration, the person has to satisfy the president of Nigeria of the following conditions as provided by the 1999 constitution as stated below:

- a. He is a person of good character.
- b. He has shown a clear intention of his or her desire to be domiciled in Nigeria; and
- c. He or she has taken the Oath of Allegiance.

Requirements for Citizenship by Naturalization

The following conditions must be satisfied before a person can acquire citizenship by naturalization:

- a. The person is of full age that is, not less than 21 years of age.
 - b. The person is of good character.
 - c. He is a person who has made or is capable of making useful contributions to the advancement progress and well-being of Nigeria.
 - d. He is resident in Nigeria continuously for a period of 15 months; and
 - e. The person must have sufficient, knowledge of the country's Lingua-Franca etc.
- The 1999 constitution, section 28 also provides for the loss of citizenship as penalty for crime residence abroad. A person's citizenship may be lost he or she retains the citizenship of a country other than Nigeria.

Rights of Citizens in Nigeria

According to Ezeude (2018) rights are certain basic conditions of happiness which individuals must enjoy in order to live a satisfactory social life. The sum total of these rights is what Chukwuemeka (2013) refers to as civil liberty. Citizenship confers these rights on the individual and also implies that it imposes certain duties on him too. Some of these rights are justiceable, that is, it is enforceable in a court of law while others are not. The rights of citizens are divided into social rights, economic rights, political/civil and legal rights.

The basic constitutional provision which encompasses and protects these rights above is contained in Chapter IV of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. These rights accrue to every citizen irrespective of race, place of birth, religion creed or gender.

As has been, they are enforceable by the courts of law. These rights are called fundamental human rights and are listed below:

- a. Right to life.
- b. Right to dignity of human persons.
- c. Right to personal liberty.
- d. Right to fair hearing.
- e. Right to private family life.
- f. Right to freedom of thought.
- g. Right to choice of religion.
- h. Right to peaceful assembly and association.
- i. Right to freedom of movement.
- j. Right to freedom from discrimination.
- k. Right to acquire and own immovable property.
- l. Right to compulsory acquisition of property.
- m. Right from restriction on and derogation from fundamental human rights and special jurisdiction of High Court and Legal Aid.

Source: (1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria: Section 33–46).

Other designations or descriptions for these rights above according to Ewuim (2018) are summarized into three namely:

1. Political Rights: This right empowers the citizen to participate in the national political life. It includes the right to suffrage; which means the right to vote and be voted for during election. This right emphasizes equal political opportunity for all citizens Irrespective of their sex, religion, class or political affiliation.
2. Civil Rights: This includes those rights that ensure the protection of the citizens as well as ensuring him a meaningful and valued life; these rights are codified in the chapter IV of the 1999 Nigerian constitution, sections 12-20 as the fundamental human rights listed above. These rights are called the Fundamental Human Rights. They are contained "In the United Nations Charter and African Charter on Human Rights".
3. Social Rights: These rights promote a cordial Interaction among citizens in the society. It promotes their wellbeing, self-esteem and human dignity. These rights include:
 - a. Right to education.
 - b. Right to employment.
 - c. Right to private ownership.

The Non-Justiceable Rights of the Citizens

The non-justiceable rights of the citizens are set out in Chapter 11 of the Nigerian Constitution titled: “Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy”, particularly Section 13–22. Some of these non-justiceable rights of the citizens are:

- a. Equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels.
- b. Adequate medical and health facilities for all persons.
- c. Equal pay for equal work/discrimination on account of sex or on any other ground whatsoever.

Citizens Patriotism

In ordinary parlance, patriotism means love for one’s country. Citizen’s patriotism refers to the respect and total allegiance of individual persons to their country. Appadorai (1975) defines patriotism as involving the following qualities:

1. Special affection for one’s own country.
2. A sense of personal identification with the country.
3. Special concern for the well-being of the country.
4. Willingness to sacrifice to promote the country’s good.

We agree entirely with his definition.

Duties and Obligations of Citizens in a State

Duties of Citizens in a State

Duties entails constitutionally recognized functions of a state, without which the survival of the state could be affected. Also, failures to carry out these duties attract some punishments from the state (Adebayo, 2019). The Nigeria 1999 constitution says in section 24 that it shall be the duty of every citizen to:

- a. Abide by the constitution; respect its ideals and its institutions; the National Flag, the National Anthem, the National Pledge, the legitimate authorities.
- b. Help to enhance the power, prestige and good name of Nigeria, defend Nigeria and render such national services as may be required.
- c. Respect the dignity of other citizens and the rights and legitimate interests of others and live in unity and harmony in the spirit of common brotherhood.
- d. Make positive and useful contributions to the advancement, progress and well-being of the community where he resides.
- e. Render assistance to appropriate and lawful agencies in the maintenance of law and order and
- f. Declare assistance to appropriate and lawful agencies and pay his taxes promptly.

Other duties are highlighted as follows:

1. **Payment of Taxes:** A citizen should pay his tax to provide the state with revenue for social services. Example, pipe borne water, hospital, schools, etc.
2. **Obedience to Law:** A citizen should obey all the laws of the state for the common good of its citizens.
3. **Right of Individuals:** A good citizen should not interfere with the rights of another citizen. One’s rights stops where another’s begins.

4. Voting at Election: A citizen has to vote during elections. Failure to do so may lead to the election of the wrong people into public office.
5. Detection and Prevention of Crimes: A good citizen should always assist the law enforcement agencies in detecting and preventing crimes in the state.
6. Loyalty: A good citizen must show loyalty to his country and must not support another country against his own country.
7. Enlistment: A citizen should be ready to get enlisted into the armed forces when asked to do so, for the defense of the country.
8. National Symbols: A good citizen should show respect for national symbols such as flag and anthem.
9. National Services: A citizen should obey the call to serve his country through the national youth service corps.

Obligations of Citizens in a State

According to Adefolanin (2020) obligations include the civic responsibilities of the citizens to the State. These responsibilities include:

- a. Voting during election
- b. Respect for the national figures lag, anthem and symbols.
- c. Care of public property
- d. Absolute loyalty to the State

Various Ways a Citizen's Right May be Safeguarded

According to Ezeude (2018) the following are the various ways a citizen's right can be safeguarded by the government:

1. Free Press: Freedom of the press should be guaranteed. This will make the media report issues objectively. It is said to recall that in some societies, the press is muzzled, especially in countries where the military is in power like in Nigeria during the military rule.
2. Liberal Democracy: Democracy in modern political systems permits free discussion and association. Democracy was popularly defined by Aristotle as government of the people, by the people, for the people. And it connotes government by the majority. And so, in such a society the freedom of the individual is guaranteed. There should be a true liberal democracy.
3. Literacy Level: The literacy level of the citizens should be improved upon for instance through organizing adult education classes. This is because education liberates the mind and makes the people easily governable.
4. Independence of Judiciary: Judges must be fair and impartial in protecting individual's right against invasion by private individuals or government.
5. Existence of Human Rights Commission: Commissions which tend to protect civilians should be upheld to forestall against oppression where applicable. For instance, Ombudsman (Public Complaints Commission), Parliamentary Commissions, etc are some of such institutions.
6. Reduction of Poverty Level: There should be a drastic reduction of poverty level in the society.

7. Rule of Law: The rule of law should apply. Those in government should govern the people according to the constitution. Also, the citizens have to obey the laws of the land as well as respect the Constitution; the law rules and nothing else. By implication also the leaders are subject to the rule of law too and there should be no sacred cow where everyone is equal before the law.
8. Opposition: There should be in existence vibrant oppositions in the political system. For example the civil rights groups; they should be allowed to air their views. This if allowed freely the citizens can legally stand up against dictatorship and bad governance.
9. Checks and Balances: There should be the upholding of the doctrine of separation of powers with appropriate checks and balances. This will prevent abuse of power and one same duty will not be carried out by different agencies. This will also prevent clashes in the discharge of government job.
10. Public Opinion: This must be effectively used to protect any violation of the rights of the citizens. Through public opinion citizens can rise to voice out their grievances and this can bring about positive outcome resulting to policy demand to the government demanding for positive and urgent attention.

Conditions for Loss of Citizenship to Non-Citizens (Registered Aliens/Foreigners)

A citizen of a country can lose his/her citizenship through the following ways:

- a. Expatriation: This is when a citizen voluntarily renounces his citizenship of a particular country.
- b. Denaturalization: This is a situation where a citizen is stripped of his citizenship of the state by the government due to serious acts of disloyalty or criminality like treasonable felony.

The Concept of State

Definition

We have learnt that government is the organ, agency and institution of the state through which the objectives of the state are attained. The question is, “what then is the state?”

In the view of Harold Laski, “state is an organization to enable the mass of men to realize social good on the largest possible scale”

In another view, Ewuim (2014) defined state as, “a community of individuals politically organized into a definite territory where law and order are maintained by a supreme authority, e.g. Nigeria, Germany, Canada, and Togo”.

The implication of these postulations is that the state is a collection of people, under an organized sovereign government within a defined geographical confinement. The essence of the state is therefore to help the citizens realize their potentials and life ambitions. The state is established for the good of the people that is the public and not the few elite classes.

Characteristics of the State

For a geographical entity to be qualified to be called a state, it must possess the under listed features.

1. Population: The geographical area must be habited by a mass of people, which are called citizens.
2. Government: It must be under the control of a legitimate authority to ensure the maintenance of law and order.

3. Territory: The state must be situated in a definite and defined geographical territory, which is separated by international boundaries.
4. Sovereignty: The state must be legally and politically sovereign, having the power to make and enforce laws within its territory without external interference.
5. Force: The state must have full control on the use of force within her territory. In other words, the state through her leaders must be in total control of the state power to secure compliance and obedience from the citizens.
6. Performance: The state must have a continued existence. The citizens of the state should have no doubt about its permanent status. The government therefore must fight to keep the state alive and together.
7. Constitution: The state and the duties/functions of her government officials and the activities of the citizens and other people (aliens) resident and doing business in the state are controlled through the constitution. This is to ensure law and order, and to avoid lawlessness. The constitution may be written and rigid e.g. (Nigeria and USA) or unwritten and flexible e.g. Britain.

The Relationship Between the State and Government

There is a lot of interplay between the state and government. In fact, the state and government is interwoven and intertwined in their relationship. To such an extent, none could exist without the other. Their relationship can be seen in the following areas:

1. Government is the machinery of the state through which it pursues her goals and aspirations
2. Government is the legitimate authority that ensures peace, law and order within the state and thus, avoids chaos and anarchy. The state cannot exist in a state of confusion.
3. An Act of the state is the same thing as an Act of the government, because the functions of the state are carried out by the government.
4. The state is permanent in nature, but government is subject to periodic change through election and succession.
5. The supreme power of the state (sovereignty) rests on the people.
6. Government only exercises the power on behalf of the people, which make up the state. It can be said that government is an integral part of the state.

Theories of the State

The origin, emergence and evolution of the state is tied to theories. These theories are used by scholars of politics to describe how the state originated. The theories include the following:

1. The Divine Theory: This theory is based on the premise that the state was created out of a divine ordination and that the leaders are nothing but representatives of God on earth. It is the earliest theory about the origin of the state. The implication of this theory is that the rulers (Kings and Queens) are to be respected and adored at all times. Thus, to obey them is to obey God. This theory was highly regarded during the medieval era when the church was ruling the word. The Catholic Pope was regarded as the representative of God, and therefore must be feared, respected and obeyed. Though, this was disputed by some kings, who claimed to be the real representatives of God on earth. However, it should be pointed out that the state is not a divine creation, but a human creation to give good life to the citizens. Nevertheless, the theory is still relevant where the state is formed on the basis of religion e.g the Arab Nations.
2. The Force Theory: This theory states that the state originated through naked force, and its experience and sustainability is based on the use of force in securing obedience and

compliance from the people. The protagonist of this theory argues that the state emerged as a result of aggression and subjugation of the weak by the strong. Through the use of brute force, the strong annexes the weak, and forces them into obedience. Presently, the term, 'force'¹ can mean economic power, intellectual power, technological power and military power.

3. The Social Contract Theory: This theory is based on the belief that the state originated through the contract entered by the members of the state to be under a given made people to enter into a social contract with the government. Everybody is expected to be faithful to the terms of the contract to ensure the continued existence of the state. The implication of this theory today is that the people elect their leaders with the aim. That the people elected would provide them with the necessities of life, while they in turn support the government. Therefore, the state is a social contract between the citizens (electorate) and their leaders (government). Unfortunately, in Nigeria the leaders are usually not faithful to the social contract once they get elected into government. This theory was propounded by Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau.
4. The Matriarchal Theory: This theory was propounded by McLennan (1930) and Jenks (1900). They argued that the origin of the state is traceable through the mother (woman). They contended that in the earliest day's marriage was polyandry- a woman marrying several husbands. Thus, the children of the woman will be loosely connected and knitted to one another as one big family, through which state is formed.
5. The Patriarchal Theory: This theory was formulated by Henry Maine in 1861. He stated that the state originated through the family, and this is traceable through the father (man) who is the head of the family. As the father dies, authority falls on the first son and this continues endlessly. This theory submits that even as the family increases and children marry and establish their own names; yet, they are still united by bond of blood relationship and controlled by the eldest male descendant. The theory is still relevant in Igbo Land, where people trace their origin through their fathers and not their mothers.
6. The Development Theory: This theory was enunciated by J.W Burgess. He faulted the other theories on the state, and submitted that the state emerged through historical developments. He enumerated some factors that gave rise to the development as follows: religion, kinship, war, political consciousness and industrialization.
7. The Marxist Theory: The theory was propounded by Karl Marx. In his view, the state is nothing but an instrument of oppression and domination being used by the ruling elite to subdue the poor and helpless masses. He therefore argued that the state would wither away (statism) one day because it is a human creation. He concluded by saying that statism would lead to communism, which is a stateless system of government. Unfortunately, communism as an economic cum political system has not materialized. The USSR that tried socialism has disintegrated into 15 different countries, and China is systematically titling away from it.

Basic Concepts of Government

There are various terms that are used to espouse the concept of government which is very important that citizens know about for better citizen and state relationship these are:

Power

Power is central in government in order to avert anarchy and doom. Though, in the view of Thomas Hobbes, people acquire power in order to control and dominate others. The implication is that the man is both selfish and brutish in nature. This underscores the reason that the acquisition and use of power has become, "a do or die" action. Power therefore becomes vital in relationship between the

leaders and the led in the society. Power can be both an end itself and a mean to an end, depending on the person exercising the power.

Definition

According to Chikendu (2002) power is the ability to make others do what ordinarily they would not have done. It is the ability to galvanize the people to act in a certain way. It may be through the use of threat and force (stick) or incentives (carrots). The essence of power is to control the actions of others and more especially to dominate them.

Adigwe (2019) defines power as “the ability to get one’s wishes carried out despite opposition, the ability to influence the actions of others in accordance with one’s ends.” From this definition, it can be inferred that power to get his/her wishes achieved through other people legally or illegally.

Ofoegbu (1999) defines power as, “the ability of a person or group of persons to enforce his or their decisions on other people by the use of sanctions, punishment or penalties against disobedience”. In as much as this definition is valid, we would add that power or the exercise of it is not all about the threat and force. Power is very much exercised in other friendly ways such as the use of carrots (incentives) to secure obedience and compliance. Power is not only about selfishness achieved through negative sanctions. It also involves the use of reward – positive means of exercising power.

Sources of Power

Individuals, groups and organizations can acquire power from various ways depending on the forms/types of power they are exercising. These sources include,

- a. The use of brute/naked force: during the medieval period and up till now, power is acquired through the use of force and coercion. In the views of the apologists of the source, “power lies in the barrel of the gun”. Many governments, especially in Africa and Latin America have risen through military coups and interventions and through armed conflicts. Nigeria in 1999 regained its democratic state after decades of military rule. The military boys acquired power through force. Presently, in different parts of the world such as Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia, Yemen, Sudan etc, people are still in armed conflicts for the purpose of acquiring power.
- b. Election: power is also acquired and used through electoral process. People are empowered by the constitution to elect their leaders, who in turn exercise power on behalf of the people. Power, hence, belongs and comes from the people and not through the barrel of the gun.
- c. Constitution: constitution, as a legal document also stipulates how leaders can emerge in a state as well as how they can exercise power. The Nigerian 1999 constitution stipulates the functions and powers of the various tiers and arms of government as well as that of the political leaders like the President, Governors and Chairman of local governments.
- d. Wealth: the materials cum financial possessions of an individual and the ability to use it as a reward system is another source of power. This is mostly evident in third world nations like Nigeria, Chad, Gambia, Algeria etc where the people are in poverty. For instance, people like Femi Otedola, Dr. Mike Adenuga, and Chief Orji Uzor Kalu etc exercise a lot of influence over others due to wealth.
- e. Charisma: power is also acquired through the special ability, skills, knowledge and expertise on individual possesses. These salient qualities make the person to be recognized, respected and obeyed. In government circles, the political executives respect the civil servants (bureaucrats) due to their expertise in policy formulation and implementation. In Nigeria, where most of the political office holders are not well educated, the bureaucrats use their power (expertise) to influence most public policies.

- f. Inheritance: in some political climates, power is normally inherited or bequeathed from parents and transferred from generation to generation. Most political kingdoms like England (Queen), Morocco (King) Saudi Arabia (King) etc transfer power from one person to another. In these kingdoms, power is centralized and it rotates among the members of the royal family.

Types of Power

Power is divided into various forms depending on how it is acquired and being used. These forms of power include:

1. Political Power: this type of power is acquired through the political process, in a periodic free and fair election. It is supposed to be used for the good of the people. Unfortunately, in most African countries, elections are neither free nor fair. Politicians employ all kinds of tricks to win political power, and later, they employ it for their self aggrandizement. For instance, the Nigerian 2007 April general elections were anything but free and fair but the 2011 general elections were better. In Kenya, it was still the same ugly story, and in Zimbabwe's 2008 parliamentary and presidential elections, the votes of the people never counted. The people were short-changed by the ruling elites. The unconstitutional acquisition and use of political power is the greatest impediment to Africa's development.
2. Economic power: This form of power is dependent upon the economic possession of an individual. In every society those who have wealth, money and other financial resources are highly revered and wield some influence. For instance in U.S.A, Mr. Bill Gates and Mrs. Oprah Winffery are highly respected for their economic power, and how they are using their wealth to empower poor people like Alhaji Aliko Dangote, Dr. Cosmos Maduka (Chief Executive of Coscharis Motors) and Chief Innocent Chukwuma (Chief Executive of Innoson Industries) have economic power.
3. Traditional power: This form of power is based on the accepted norms, laws, rules and culture of the people as passed down from generation to generation. Many political institutions are still operating through traditional power. For instance, the "igweship" or "Eze" title in Igboland is based on this type of power. The "Obaship" in Benin Kingdom and Yoruba land is based on traditional power. Even the "Queenship" of England is traceable to it.
4. Religious power: This is based on religious beliefs, doctrine and dogma. Religious power could be in from of Christianity, Islam, and Hindu etc.
5. Military power: this dependent on the degree of a nation's armed forces and their military prowess and preparedness. In the world today, U.S.A, Britain, France, China and Russia are respected for their military power. These five nations are the super powers, and they make up the five permanent members of the United Nations' Security Council.
6. Technological, Scientific and intellectual power: This type of power has to do with the scientific and technological advancement of a nation. The United States and European nations are known for their scientific and technological exploits. Also, the Asian Tigers (Japan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Hong Kong and China) are respected in the area of science and technology.

Authority

Authority according to Adeniran (2018) defined authority as legal power. It is the right of an individual to act in a certain way in order to secure the obedience and compliance of others. In authority, obedience of the people is based not on the office or position one occupies. In other words, authority is not personified. It is a legitimate right and power of a person or group of persons to

control and coordinate the actions of others (subordinates) to attain a given purposes. People obey their leaders or superiors not necessarily because of reward or punishment but because they believe they are under obligation to do so.

According to Adefolani (2020) in exercising authority the leader combines power and legitimacy. He acts with and through people to achieve the stipulated objectives; the people obey him because of their belief in the right of the leader to make authoritative decisions. The leaders secures obedience from the subordinates in turn obey willingly. Authority therefore is the right of a leader or superior to direct the activities of others (subordinates) and to exert from them the responses that are relevant for the actualization of the goals and objectives of an organization.

Types of Authority

Authority is categorized into the following forms:

1. **Legal/Rational Authority:** this form of authority is based on laid down rules and regulations, which must be strictly adhered to. In the view of Max Weber, bureaucracy is the best form of administration, especially the one based on legal/rational authority. Most government functions and activities in Nigeria are based on bureaucratic rules and regulations. The rules and regulation are clearly stipulated and legalized, and must be obeyed.
2. **Traditional Authority:** This authority is based on the right of the leader to rule, which is derived from the laid down norms, traditions and cultures of the people as passed down to them from their fathers. Authority is usually inherited or bequeathed. The authority of Queen of England, Obi of Onitsha, Oba of Lagos and Emir of Kano is based on laid down customs and traditions.
3. **Charismatic Authority:** this type of authority is derived from the outstanding and salient qualities an individual possesses which make others to believe in him as well obey him. Thus, the leader is obeyed not because of the position he occupies or the rules and traditions, but due to his extraordinary qualities. Adolf Hitler, though not really educated was able to dominate the politics of Germany through the NAZI party because of his sterling qualities. He was known for his oratory ability. Again, Barrack Obama, an African American was able to win the presidency of USA in 2008 due to his charisma and strength of character.
4. **Religious/Sacred authority:** in this form of authority, a ruler is usually respected and obeyed due to the belief by the people that the leader has divine mandate. To the people, leaders are chosen by God, and thus, must be obeyed. Hence, disobedience is normally dependent on some established creeds or dogmas. The Catholic pope and Bishop of Canterbury are obeyed due to their sacred authority.

In conclusion, authority is derived from the following sources: the constitution, the people, customs and traditions and through decrees and edicts, and charisma.

Conclusion

The concept of citizenship has been discussed as an indispensable concept in national development and in any nation building. There can be no meaningful development in any country without truly devoted good citizens and there can be no government without the citizens. But on the other hand the government should care and protect the citizens otherwise a house divided against itself will never stand.

The problem of the citizens of Nigeria on the other hand is that of “bulk passing” and “blame game.” Each thinks that it is the other person’s fault. The civil servants who demand bribe before attending to a file do not see it as corruption; rather, they think corruption is only when a Minister embezzles billions of Naira. The policeman who collects ₦50 from the Keke rider will rather blame the

President for the problems of Nigeria, instead of himself. For as long as Nigerian citizens do not realize that the solution to the nation's problem lie in each and every one of the citizens, the country will continue to slide backwards.

The change one desires to see in any nation must begin with every individual citizen who has a stake in the development of Nigeria. That the United States of America is one of the most prosperous countries in the world today is not by accident. During the inauguration of J. F. Kennedy as the 35th President of America, his memorable and enduring charge to Americans was "...and so my fellow Americans: ask not what your country can do for you, rather ask what you can do for your country".

The above excerpt from J. F. Kennedy's inaugural speech has since challenged most Americans to commit themselves to service and sacrifice to their nation. The phrase is even taught as a lesson to American children in school. Nigerians need a similar re-orientation in the same direction even when our national anthem and national pledge has huge commitment to national allegiance in this direction things are not going well. It is on this note that constitutional provisions are to be independently enforced by an honest and independent judiciary. These laws should be enforced without sacred cows with full recourse/choice to the rule of law.

References

- Adebayo, A. A (2019). *Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.
- Adebayo, A. A (2016). *Power of Politics*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.
- Asiegbu, N. D, and Oguejiofor, G. N and Ewuim, E (2000). *Modern Approach to Government of West*. Awka: Mueei Publishers Ltd.
- Chikendu, R. N (2002). *Introduction to Political Science*. Enugu: Academy Publishing Company.
- Adeniran, O. et'al (2018). *New Approach Government*. Ikeja: Longman Nigeria Plc.
- Asiodu, P. C. (1979). *Nigeria Government and Politics Under Military Rule 1966-1976*. Ibadan: Macmillan Press.
- Appadorai, A. (1975). *The Substance of Politics*. Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Agbo, I. O and Ujam, H. U (2020). *A Guide to Patriotic Citizenship in Nigeria*. Enugu: Mekanand Ventures.
- Adigwe, F. (2019). *Essentials of Government for West Africa*. Ibadan: University Press.
- Adefolanin, A. (2020). *Political Science and Government of West Africa*. Lagos. Adefolanin Press.
- Benemy, F. W. G. (1968). *Constitutional Government of West Africa*. London: George Harrap.
- Ball, A. R (2017). *Modern Political and Government*. London: Macmillan Publishers
- Chukwuemeka, E. O (2006). *Administration and Politics Past, Present and Issues*. Lagos: Vinez Publishers.
- Chukwuemeka, E. O (2013). *Trends in Political Science and Civil Service Administration*. Enugu: Providence Publishers.
- Chukwuemeka, E. O (2014). *Public Administration and Local Government in Nigeria: Issues, Theory and Practice*. Enugu: HRV Publishers.

- Chukwuemeka, E. O (2005). *International Politics: A Contemporary Perspective*. Enugu: JTC Publishers.
- Ewuim, N. C (2014). *A Succinct Approach Government: A Comparative Analysis*. Awka: Rex Publishers
- Ezeude, P. (2018). The politics in new states: the evils of tomorrow. *Journal of Political Science*, Vol 10, No. 1. Pp.35-42.
- Ofoegbu, G. A. I (1999). *Modern Government for Senior Secondary Schools in West Africa*. Onitsha: M Founders Publication Ltd.

RUDIMENTS OF COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

IFATIMEHIN, OLAYEMI OLUFEMI AND OYIBO PAUL

Department of Public Administration, Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

Introduction

It is often said that when one does know others he knows nothing. Comparative public administration essential broadens the horizon of practitioners and scholars of administration. This section will provide such insight.

Definition of comparative public administration

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

1. **Nimrod Raphaeli:** "Comparative public administrative is a study of public administration on a comparative basis." He traced the origin of comparative public administration to the 1952 Conference on Administration held at Princeton University in USA. He said, "Comparative public administration is a new corner to the community of academic instruction and research."
2. **Robert H. Jackson:** "Comparative public administration is that facet of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous cross-cultural comparisons of the structures and processes involved in the activity of administering public affairs."
3. **Comparative Administrative Group (CAG):** "Comparative public administration is a theory of public administration applied to the diverse cultures and national settings and the body of factual data by which it can be examined and tested."
4. **Jong S. Jun:** "Comparative public administration has been predominantly cross-cultural or cross-national in orientation."
5. **S.B.M Marume (1976):** Comparative public administration is that method of the study of public administration which is concerned with making rigorous systematic cross-cultural comparisons of the structures, institutions actions and processes involved in the activity of running the public affairs.

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

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

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

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

Distinctions between comparative public administration and traditional public administration

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

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

Areas of Comparison

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

1. Inter state comparison, which refers to a study of administration systems across states. State as used here refers to an independent political unit recognized internally as exercising sovereignty over a particular area of the earth surface. Adoption of this approach is based on the assumption that there is a uniform administrative system in a particular state at a particular time.

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

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

this method there can be study of public administration in the traditional system, the transitional system and the modern system. It may be noted that these three simple stages are perhaps the most commonly adopted.

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

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

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

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

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

Usefulness of Comparative Public Administration

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. A comparative approach to the study of public administration leads to an in-depth understanding of the administrative systems studied. When an entity is studied in relation to another there is a tendency of a rigorous analysis to be carried out. A vivid examination of various facets is done either in an attempt to identify similarities of establish dissimilarities. This aids added understanding of the phenomena.
4. As a result of comparative public administration data on administrative systems are produced. This leads to available information, check list or data which can be obtained and utilized for various purposes. This same advantage is derived from comparative politics. So across the globe the information is made available in a processed form and presented in martial people can easily have access to like diary etc.
5. A political system encountering particular problems especially relating to its public administrative system may study the administrative systems of other political systems that have had similar problems in the past. Such a study may lead to identification of how the particular problems can the provided solutions to through the instrumentality of public administration.
6. Comparative public administration may lead to improved efficiency in the administrative

system of some states. This happens when a particular state identifies aspects of the administrative system of another which when adopted may lead to an improvement or increased efficiency. It has been argued for instance that in adopting the indirect rule system in the northern part of Nigeria Lord Lugard utilized the idea which he had seen working in Uganda. He adapted it for adoption in the Nigerian environment.

7. Comparative public administration offers an opportunity for theory testing. There can be a comparative study of the impact of administrative theories adopted either across political systems or at different periods in political systems. Such a study could lead to identification of the areas of imperfection of the theory. Where efforts are consequently geared towards a modification of the theory, it becomes further enriched and more relevant.

Problems of Comparative Public Administration

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

One of the problems is that of resistance by scholars who continue to be skeptical about the feasibility of the scientific or behavioral approach to the study of social phenomena among which are public administration and political science. Such scholars mostly of the Normative persuasion regard collection of data, analysis of data and consequent theory building in the area of comparative public administration as unrealistic. Their major area of criticism therefore is the doubt about the science of public administration.

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

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

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

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

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

It has been observed that in some social science discipline, like economics, presentation of

complex statistical calculations may wrongly be viewed as a value and evidence of rigorous work. It can therefore lead to an unrealistic work getting viewed as a great.

Comparative Public Administration: A Theoretical Perspective

1. THE TRADITIONAL MODEL

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

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

It may be observed however that political philosophy especially in the area of organization and ordering of the state was not completely devoid of empiricism. Many of the thinkers were concerned with empirical problems in the area of organization of the state. This is what has led to describing such ideas as based on empiricism, but at lower level, when compared to what is obtainable in positive science or behavioural theories.

The traditional approach also concerned itself with political history. Efforts were made to find out how societies were organized in the past. There was an emphasis on the types of organization of the state that led to problems and those that were solutions to problems. So prominent among the phenomena studied were dynasties, kings, parliaments, courts, wars, crises, property, regime change, development, stability, etc.

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

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

1. The method was accused of being stipulative. They took a normative position and established the value position as what had to be. They allowed little room for contesting their value of position.
2. As a result of the stipulative nature, little attention was paid to empiricism. It led to tenacity in preserving and sustaining an idea not because the idea was found to be empirical, but because it emanated from a person regarded as an authority in the area.
3. The method did not pay a meaningful attention to informal structures, processes and actors. They were duly concerned with the formal position. In line with this argument the classical organization theorists like Max Weber, Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol did not only fail to analyze the informal structure of the organization they regarded them as aspects which should not be encouraged.
4. The traditional approach was basically interested in describing the features or characteristics of structure and therefore paid inadequate attention to identifying and analyzing regularities, commonalities, peculiarities, deviations and the variables to which they could be traced.
5. There was also little attention paid to the interaction between the administrative structures and their environment. This reduced the utility of their findings especially in

- the area of adopting them in societies with different ecology.
6. The emphasis on value in the traditional method and the frustration which followed failed attempt to transplant the institutions, principles and processes to different environments instigated ethno-centricisms. This was the case especially when Western scholars attempted to study the organizations of the societies in the third world adopting the principles development in their societies.
 7. The traditional approach led to low pace of development of comparative politics and comparative public administration. Emphasis in authority, value tenacity, etc. gave little room for investigations into what was already preserved as the final truth which was in any case inadequate.

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

Enduring Principles

It may be observed however that there are some principles, concepts, and theories in management and comparative public administration which have endured up to the behavioural and post behavioural periods. This is because such principles are so useful in management of societies that they cannot be ignored. Referring to this works Harold Kootz, Cyril O, Donnell and Heinz Weihrich argued that: Many records and ideas relating to management date from antiquity. Among these are records of Egyptians, the early Greeks and the ancient Romans. In addition, there have been the experience and administrative practices of the Catholic Church, Military organization, and the cameralists of the sixteen to the eighteenth centuries.

Referring to management principles adopted in organization of societies developed by the Catholic Church these writers observed. Striking examples of these techniques are the development of hierarchy of authority with scalar territorial organization, the specialization of activities along functional lines and early intelligent use of staff device.

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

2. Behavioural Theories

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

- i. There is regularity in nature. This same assumption forms the foundation for classification in nature sciences. So matter can be classified into plants and animals etc. similarly, there is regularity in administrative systems, administrative behaviour, administrative processes, etc, across states.
- ii. The human mind can study nature. This means that man is capable of understanding the working of nature including the arrangement and relationships in the human societies.
- iii. Relatively of Knowledge. This means that knowledge is not static. It is dynamic. So what was regarded as the truth and therefore formed a body of knowledge yesteryears may be found not to be true in the past may be

- incorporated into the body of knowledge as truth today.
- iv. Nothing is self-evident. Knowledge or an aspect of it should not be regarded as complete as the fact just because it is taken as self-evident or apparent. Researches have to be conducted to establish the knowledge empirically.
 - v. Every natural phenomenon has a natural cause. So there must be an explanation behind every human behaviour whether the behaviour is negative or positive. Such explanations may be adapted through an interdisciplinary approach.
 - vi. Statistical calculations aid in establishing a relationship between variables of the phenomenon studied. The level of precision attainable in soft science is adequate study of social phenomena.

Factors Which Gave Rise to Behavioural Approach

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

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

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

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

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

A. Structural-Functionalism Theory

Talcot Parsons is perhaps the most frequently mentioned writer among others in a systematic arrangement of the structural functional analysis. According to the theory one important approach which can be adopted in the study of the society and the political system is the structural functional approach. The theory emphasizes that if a system is to be maintained adequately there are requisite structures which must perform certain functions. So if a political system is to be maintained adequately, or attain its goals efficiently. These functions could be regarded as interest articulation, interest aggregation, political recruitment, political education, political socialization, system maintenance, order, political development, law making, law implementation, international relation e.t.c. This theory recognizes the need for structures to

be put in place to perform these functions adequately. So in adopting this theory in political system requisite functions must be identified. So function can be traced to the structure while structures can be located first then an attempt is made to identify the function they perform.

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

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

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

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

B. The System Theory

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

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

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

Like a biological system, a political system can be given birth to. It grows and develops. It can be healthy in which case it is adequately maintained and plays its role efficiently. It can be pathological or sick or unhealthy. This happens when there is no sufficient interaction between the system and its environment.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

C. The Elite Model

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

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

1. It is the elites that rule in every society. The implication of this argument is that no matter the effort geared towards democracy, whether it is based on the western democratic philosophy or the Eastern democratic socialism or the African democratic centralism or even the Arabian Islamic democracy, in the final analysis it is the privileged few or the

elites that rule.

2. The Interest of the elites is antagonistic to the interest of the masses. There are certain privileges which the elites enjoy in every society which they would not allow to go round. Also they struggle to differ from the masses and remain in the upper part of the social ladder.

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

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

The elite theory is a natural consequence of social stratification. It is based on the recognition that in every human collectivity people belong to different strata. We can therefore talk about different levels in the categorization. This suggests that the elites do not belong to a uniform group. Yet they often identify their areas of common interests and seek to protect them.

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

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

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

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

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

Also adopting the elite model the nature of stratification in a particular public administrative system can be studied. In this case an attempt can be made to identify the degree of influence which various groups or actors in the public service have on the third world what such studies

have revealed is that study of the formal administrative systems does not show much about power relation within the bureaucracy. In varied degrees, factors like ethnicity, primordial ties, feudalism, associations, etc have been found to be very important in determining the degree of influence in these countries.

D. Development Theories

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

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

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

Developed Societies

Universalism
Achievement
Specificity
Self-Orientation

Underdeveloped Societies

Particularism
Ascription
Diffusion
Collectivity Orientation

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

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

This approach is often adopted to support the argument of some scholars, bureaucrats, political leaders, etc. who support the idea of technical assistance, technology transfer for the purpose of development of the underdeveloped nations. W.W Rostow wrote on the stages of economic growth. The stages he identified are; the traditional stage, the pre-condition for take-off, the takeoff, drive towards maturity and high mass consumption.

Criticism often raised against many theories of development especially those propounded by the western scholars' that they take their society as a model which the third world countries must copy from. They therefore assume that the stages which they have identified in the western societies in their process of growth are the same stages which must be passed by the third world countries.

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

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

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

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

1. Task necessary for the attainment of goals are divided into highly specialized jobs. This strategy is regarded as division of labour by many writers on bureaucracy. Weber argued that job holders could become experts in their jobs and could be relied upon for efficient accomplishment of tasks.
2. Each task is to be performed according to a consistent system of abstract rules to ensure uniformity predictability and successful co-ordination of different tasks. The rationale for this practice is that the manager can eliminate uncertainty in tasks due to personal difference.
3. Each member of the organization is accountable to a superior. The authority wielded by a superior is based on expert knowledge and it is legitimated by the fact that it is delegated from the top, a chain of command is created.
4. Each member of the organization does his work in an impersonal formalistic manner maintaining a social distance with subordinates. The purpose of this practice is to ensure that personalities do not interfere with efficient accomplishment of task and realization of the objectives of the organization.
5. Employment in the bureaucratic organization is based on technical qualification or merit. Informal consideration like favoritism should not come into play in selection of candidates for employment.

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

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

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

Early administrative practices

The development of thought on administration dates back to the days when people first attempted to accomplish goals by working together in groups. "Although modern operational management theory dates primarily from the early twentieth century, with the work of Frederick

Taylor and Henri Fayol, there were serious thinking and theorizing about management many years before.”¹

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

Early interpretations of the Egyptian papyri revealed the importance of organization and administration in bureaucratic states of old states including China. Practical Suggestions for proper public administration and admonitions to choose honest, unselfish, and capable public officers are included in Confucius parables.

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

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

The Catholic Church

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

The Military Organization

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

The Cameralists

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

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

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

Administrative Systems in Developed Nations

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

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

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

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

Given the historical background of the dominant lines of evolution in the process of political and administrative modernization, as this process is identified with the Western European experience, we need to consider more closely the leading characteristics of these particular “modernized” politics and of other like them. These characteristics include that the procedures for making political decisions are highly rational and secular, the system of governmental organization is highly differentiated and functionally specific, and the allocation of political roles is by achievement rather than ascriptions.

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

The “classic” Administrative Systems- France and Germany

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

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

“In France, it meant the violent overthrow of the monarchy brought about by

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

It has further been noted that:

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

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

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

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

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

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

The salaries are adequate, though not lavish, besides fringe benefits which include family

allowances; various secret programmes and generous retirement pensions. These reflect the organized effort of the bureaucracy to safeguard its position and enhance the prestige of the service.

In Germany, the constitutional safeguards for the civil service were amended with republican constitution of 1919 and retained in the post war constitution of 1948.

In France, an adoption in 1946 of a general civil service status shows a prolonged struggle to secure uniform legal declaration of status.

It has been observed that:

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

Britain and United States

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

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

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

Yet there are areas of differences in the public service of Britain and USA. These areas include the more compact nature of the Britain society, higher level of legitimacy in Britain than USA, a more stable party system in Britain than USA, etc. it may also be noted that Britain operates a unitary system while USA operates a federal system. So there is a higher level of uniformity in the administrative system of Britain than that of the USA.

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

USSR: Administrative System in a Communist State

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

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

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

It is also important to mention that organizations involved in production of goods and services in USSR were state organizations. To that extent they were management by state bureaucrats with party representatives checking them. The implication then is that there was a large body of citizens involved in public service. To that extent unlike the politically neutral public service obtainable in the western administrative system the USSR emphasized commitment to the party for advancement in the public service.

Administrative Systems in the Third World

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

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

negative impacts on neutrality and efficiency.

6. Political instability in the third world countries has led to insecurity jobs in the public service. In many of the third world countries there have been retrenchment of public servants politically instigated.
7. The problem identified above have led to the public service in many in many of the third world countries not being able to stimulate the level or pace of development in the political, economic and social aspects of the society up to an appreciable standard.

It may be observed that there are some parts of the third world countries where the traditional administrative systems have been preserved. In many Arab nation for instance, with some level of influence and modification, the Islamic administrative system has led to adoption of the administrative principles of the colonizers the traditional administrative systems have not been wiped out. In varied degrees they are still operated side by side with the imported type.

In Nigeria the concept of politically neutral public service at different levels of government has become unclear since the commencement of the fourth republic.

This is because there is a court ruling upholding the right of a public servant to belong to a political party. Yet the idea of politically neutral public service has not been explicitly abrogated.

CONCLUSION

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

REFERENCES

- Akanimo Reports 2012. "Nigeria: Coalition Gives Govt 30 Days Ultimatum to Sack Oil Minister", *Scoop Independent News*, November 1
- Bello-Imam, I.B. 2005. *The War Against Corruption in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects*, Ibadan. College Press & Publishers Limited.
- Ehwarieme, W. 1994. "The Role of the Society in Preventing and Combating Corruption in Nigeria," *Ekpoma Political Review*, 2-3 (1&2)
- Iyoha, F.E and Idada, W. (2009). "Theoretical Basis of Transparency and Accountability in Public Service" in V.O. Aghayere and F.E. Iyoha (2009). *Ethics, Standard and Accountability in Governance*, Benin City: Imprint Services, pp. 19-29
- Mbamalu, M. 2010. "Halliburton: Open Sore of A Nation", *The Guardian*, May 9
- Naija News 2015 CACOL "Accuses CCB of Aiding Political Corruption", <https://www.naija.com/570108-cacol-slams-anti-corruption-agencies-in-nigeria.html>
Accessed 10/11/15

Obinna, O.E. (1985) *Public Finance*, Oruwulu-Obasi: Pacific College Press Limited Osumah, O.

2012. *Corruption Complex and Anti-corruption Policy Effectiveness in Nigeria, 1999-2010*,

Doctoral Thesis, University of Benin, Benin City

Sultana, S.A. (2012). Bureaucratic Accountability towards Good Governance, *Basic Applied and Social Sciences* vol. 11 (June), pp.186-188

DR. JOY ATTAH AGBONI & MR. ABDULLAHI BALA MUSA,

Department of Public Administration,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
Prince Abubakar Audu University, Ayingba

INTRODUCTION

Gender Studies is a relative new discipline or field in Social Sciences in general and Public Administration in particular. Gender Studies as distinct from Women Studies was introduced into the curriculum of the undergraduate with a view of sensitively educating them on gender dynamics and other issues of conflict between the male and female folk.

Gender Studies has a wide or broad domain or scope with topics cutting across Sociology, Psychology, Biology, Religion, Law, Politics etc. it is a multi-disciplinary course that is packed and presented to students to equip them with the knowledge of gender problems, principles and prospects considering local and global perspectives.

MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF GENDER STUDIES

Gender Studies is a discipline or course that examines the differences or peculiarities between men and women. Gender Studies is a new discipline that is designed to teach students of tertiary institutions (undergraduate and post graduate) more about who a man or woman is, why they are who they are and how to handle or manage their differences.

Gender Studies is a discipline critically examines ways in which history, religion, culture, and social norms shape or determines the role or place of gender in the society. Adelabi, (2019) defined gender studies as a special course of study that carefully and critically considers the uniqueness and peculiarity of the male and female gender especially as it relate to their roles in the society. Feres, (2020) sees Gender Studies as a course of study that sensitively examines the differences and distinction that biologically or psychologically exist between the male and female folk in terms of gender behaviour, potentials and position in the society.

Abdullahi, (2021) described Gender Studies as a multi disciplinary that fundamentally explain the innate or intrinsic characteristics of the female gender as different or unique from the male folk.

Alabi, (2019) submitted that the scope of Gender Studies covers a wide range of topics or areas such as:

- Masculinity and Feminism
- Gender Identity and Roles in the society

-The Social Make-up or Construction of Gender

-Women, Work, Family and Global Economy

-Gender Inequality and Discrimination.

IMPORTANCE OF GENDER STUDIES

The importance of Gender Studies as a discipline cut across several areas of societal significance. Adele, (2019) submitted the under listed importance of studying Gender Studies among students of tertiary institutions:

1. Gender Studies help to reduce the conflicts and increase the understanding or cooperation between both genders,
2. Gender Studies enable us to work out ways to reduce the inequality between the two genders.
3. Gender Studies helps to educate us to understand the differences or peculiarities between the two genders.
4. Gender Studies equipt us to resist or reject norms that produce inequality between men and women. Gender Studies through research and analysis help us to examine and challenge social norms especially what it means to be a woman or man in the society and pursue justice and equality for all.

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF GENDER

By social construction of gender, we mean what is the make-up, character disposition of men and women at home and in the society. In another word, social construction of gender mean how does men and women behave, why they socially exhibit such behaviour and the impact of such behaviours on the family and the society at large.

Gender Studies therefore helps us look deeply into the social life of a woman and man and why the creator designed or architected them like that.

Bande, (2020) submitted the social construction or make-up features of both the male and female genders:

MALE

i. The male gender is more stronger and dependable.

ii. The male gender display

FEMALE

The female gender is weak.

The female gender is soft and prayerful.

The feminist theory also known as women's liberation or movement refers to a series of political campaign for reform on a variety of issues that affects women quality of life. Feminist theory is a type of conflict theory that examines inequalities in gender-related issues. Feminist such as Elizabeth Lucygale, Late Mrs. Fela Ransome Kuti and Dr. Joe Odumakin usually use the conflict approach to achieve their set goals.

2. BIOLOGICAL THEORY

The biological theory states that psychological and behavioural gender differences are due to biological differences between male and female.

For example, biological peculiarities usually account for why the male gender is strong, powerful and do not desire details. Similarly, genetic or biological factors also account for why the female gender is emotional, fible and weak.

3. SOCIOLOGICAL THEORY

The sociological theory view gender differences as a product of the differential treatment girls and boys receive from the people in their lives and the pervasive gender stereotyped messages that children are exposed in the environment e.g. girls are lazy or cannot make it while others do not include women in their will, get little in inheritance or the perception that women are temporary members of the family. Examples of these treatments include sex preference by parents, female inferiority and child abuse.

ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONTEXTS OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

Gender discrimination manifest in different shades or perspectives depending on the context of examination or perception.

Bande, (2020) explicitly submitted the various areas of its manifestations in the following context:

- (a) Socially
 - i. Women are usually seen by men as second fiddles or weaker vessels.
 - ii. Women should only be seen and not heard until the men beckon on them to speak.
 - iii. In most gender- mixed public functions, women usually take the back seat while the men occupy the front seats.
 - iv. Women are usually bullied, beaten and brutalized especially in marriage or family life.

- v. Most women suffer from harmful traditional widowhood practices such as accusation of a husband death on the wife, sleeping with the husband corpse, drinking from the corps bath water etc.
 - vi. Most women are usually sexually abused or even raped taking advantage of their social construction or build –up.
 - vii. Women in Africa/Nigeria and in some religion are to be confined to the kitchen, bedroom, and child bearing and rearing.
- (b) Religiously
- i. Women in some religion are not expected to work to earn a living for themselves.
 - ii. Women in most African and Nigerian marital homes are confined to the kitchen, bedroom and take up child bearing and rearing.
 - iii. Most women in different religious cycles are not permitted to lead religious worship or sermons.
- (c) Culturally
- i. Some cultures use their wives as entertainment to visitors before food is served.
 - ii. Some cultural practices use women as a collateral or mortgage to take loan.
 - iii. Most women suffer from harmful cultural practices such as traditional widowhood practices, inheritance denial and marital brutality.
- (d) Economically
- There is no need for women to work but to work as home makers or builders.
 - Employers of labour (private and government) favours the employment of male to women.
 - Men are paid more on some jobs than women
 - Some juicy job positions are usually are exclusively reserved for men alone e.g. CBN Governor, NNPC DG etc.
 - Stringent or strong employment conditions are usually set for women to be employed especially in the private sector.

On the other hand, the economic contexts of discrimination against men in Nigeria include:

- No special empowerment programmes for men
- No widowhood support fund for men
- No Ministry of Men Affairs and Social Development in Nigeria
- No risk/hazard or vulnerability fund for men etc.

(e) Politically

-Politics is usually viewed as an exclusive reserve for men thus any woman who venture into it fully is usually termed a prostitute or mistress because of the male dominance in politics.

- Women are economically perceived as been poor to finance the cost of politics.

-women are not supposed to lead but follow or support men thus should take up secondary or relegated political positions such as Deputy Governor, Vice Chairpersons, Deputy Directors etc.

Women are not to be heard but seen and should fully champion the home front.

- Culturally or religiously, it is believed that a woman political leader cannot hold her home front properly, be faithful and loyal to the husband etc.

EDUCATION AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

Education is one of the social rights of a citizen of a country regardless or irrespective of the gender. The right to education as stipulated by the UN in 2014 is a universal right that all the citizens of a nation should have access to in order to salvage them from slavery and facilitate their contribution to national development.

Education thus in the light of Gender Studies should be viewed as a general right of a citizen that is legally and constitutionally provided and protected by law. This is to mean that no government, individual or group has the right to deny any gender of the right to be educated. The fundamental human right to education in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular unlike other in advanced societies is based on certain traditional or preferential considerations which tend to favour the male gender and discriminate the female gender. This is one of the rationale education is on the front burner of every government agenda because it's a tool that drives every member of the society to great achievement and societal development.

Fafunwa, (2017) defined education as the life long process of training a learner to impart useful skills and knowledge to the individual for personal advancement and societal contribution. Adesanya, (2020) described education as the systematic process established in an organization or institution to help sensitize and mould the mind, character and academic advancement of the learner. These right to education as defined above thus is basic privilege that both male and female in the society should enjoy with bias or sentiment to which of the gender needs to be educated or not.

Just like the right to education should be the same for both male and female, the equity in terms of granting both the male and female gender the societal opportunity to for work, appointment, employment, contracts, positions of authority etc be equally distributed on a fair playing ground.

The Beijing Conference of 1994 also clearly submitted her view on gender equality in China by instructing Governors to give women 35% elective and appointive position in the cabinet of their country. The pervasive or widespread educational imbalance in Nigeria to day according to Federal Ministry of Education (2019) showed that there are more male students enrolling in schools in Northern Nigeria compared to the female gender.

On the contrary, the 2019 Federal Ministry of Education (2019) report submitted that there is more female enrollment in public schools in the Southern part of Nigeria. The equity or equality campaign or advocacy according to Musa, (2021) is morally and legally sue for a balance for both gender to have equal access to education for a balanced and unbiased society.

Finally, the right to education and equal opportunity as entrenched in the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) should be implemented to the letter and parents, governments and religious organizations should preach and practice equal education and inclusive opportunity for all and sundry without preference or sentiment to gender.

WOMEN, WORK AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

The development and achievement of socio- economic and political progress of a country's economy is majorly dependent on how everybody is willing and afforded the opportunity to serve and contribute to the success of the nation's economy.

It is a known fact that women have the capability to move and change the world with their very sensitive and delicate role or work in the socio-economic and political national economy but this has for long been left at the mercy of the men (Obi, 2018).

Nigeria is a country that is endowed with human and material resources yet a larger proportion of her citizens (women) running about 57% of her total population are neglected and left out of important issues that will initiate economic growth and development. The implication of leaving the female gender or womenfolk out of the corridors of the social, economic and political participation include psychological dejection and subjection, low productivity in the public and private sector of the economy, massive bribery and corruption, underdevelopment among others.

Amujiri,(2017) stated that the negative effect of neglecting and subjecting women have reached a disturbing proportion and alarming dimension.

Statistics from Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (2019) disclosed that Nigerian women live in penury, declining socio-economic conditions despite the increasing revenue generation from crude oil as the chief revenue earner for the country. This has result to tension, social conflict and poor living conditions with women and children mostly affected. Most Nigerian communities are male dominated and such norms and traditional practices which objectively permit or promote the economic exploitation and political marginalization of women are put in place. Women are denied education especially in the northern part of Nigeria. Female children who should be educated are forced to get married at tender age thereby limiting and eliminating their chances of meaningfully contributing to the socio-economic and political transformation of Nigeria.

The 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria endorses the fundamental rights principles by guaranteeing and ensuring equality of all persons under the law in all spheres of social, economic, political and cultural life of the citizens.

The creation of Ministry of Women Affairs is a deliberate attempt to induct women into the economic and political environment of the nation in order to increase Nigerian's national economic development. Also, the National Agenda policy put forward by former president Olusegun Obasanjo during his administration gave women 30% representation to all women on all appointive positions the dispensation of President Goodluck Jonathan gave women 35% representation on all appointive/elective positions while the current democratic government of President Muhammadu Buhari is still operating with the 35% affirmative agreement in Beijing, China. These measures among others are conscious and affirmative actions of the government to empower and foster women's interest in various aspects of national development.

On the whole, women in our society are dependable part of the country's labour force and their participation in the labour market contributes positively to economic development which improves the gross domestic product (GDP) and as such brings about socio-economic and political transformation of the country.

Following the over two decades of Nigeria's return to civil rule, women still play second fiddle in the male dominated socio-economic and political transformation. Women participation and contribution to the transformation process of the country has been impeded by several socio- cultural, religious, economic, political and legal factors.

The reasons for the subjection and relegation of women in these various sectors human life according to Obi (2014) include:

- Low educational standard of women
- Poor economic status of women
- Attitudes of males towards women in politics
- Socio-cultural belief of not allowing women to participate in important issues like religion, politics and the economy, on the grounds that women are weaker vessels
- The insecure and dirty nature of the game called politics
- Lack of support from the husbands of the few women who aspire to participate in politics or governance
- The age-long religious or traditional cultural perception or belief that women should be seen and not be heard.
- The religious tenet or teachings that men should lead while women should support or assist also greatly affect women active involvement in the socio-economic and political transformation project of the country.

The poor performance and incapacitation of women in the socio-economic participation in Nigeria's economic sector and the world at large can be attributed to the aforementioned problems among others.

REFERENCES

Adelabi, T. (2019). *Gender Studies and Social Order in Nigeria*, Ibadan Happy Publishers.

- Adele, A.C. (2019). *Gender Studies and Nigerian Economy* Lagos, Malthouse Mark Sage Books.
- Abdullahi, (2021). *Gender Studies in a Contemporary World* Lokoja, Mumin Publisher
- Alabi. O. (2019). *Gender Studies and Human Warfare-The African Experience* Lagos, Seal Publishers
- Adesanya, C. (2020). *Educational System in Western Nigeria Problems and Prospects* Ibadan, Emilon Books
- Amujiri, (2018). *Women and Family Life in Nigeria* Nsukka, Abath Books
- Bande, G.A. (2020). *Peculiarity of Personality*, Enugu Aboki Publishers Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999
- Dennilson, A. (2020). *Theories of Gender Studies* United Kingdom, Priston Publishers
- Fafunwa, J.U. (2017). *Education in Nigeria* Ibadan Web Publishers.
- Feres, O. (2020). *Principles and Practice of Education* in Nigeria Sky Clear Publishers.
- Musa, B. (2018). *Women Studies in Nigeria* Kaduna Bafcon Enterprises.
- Obi, O. (2018). *Women Discrimination in Nigeria* Lagos, Mario Printing Press.
- Obisi, C. (2015). *Anatomy of Female Gender* Lagos, Pertas Publishers,
- Teni, W. (2018). *Women in a Contemporary Work Environment-* Abuja-Nigeria, Maxwell Publishers.
- Wayne, F. C. (1995). *Managing Human Resources, Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profits* Irwin Mcgraw Hill Boston.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN PUBLIC SECTOR

ALIYU ABDULLAHI, AUDU AMINU AND OMALE DANJUMA

INTRODUCTION

The age long maxim that *power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely* advanced by 19th century British politician and historian Lord Acton remains relevant to inspiring the deployment of controls and checks to prevent or minimize abuse of power by those vested with it. The complexity,

size and nature of modern state have made public servants assume powerful positions of authority which has transformed them metaphorically into “sacred cows/untouchables” (i.e. they can do and undo). Their vantage position is seen by scholars to be derived as a result of their permanent tenure, fixed salary and regular promotions that guarantee a life time career. In return for the accorded privileges it is natural that public servants will be expected to act with uttermost fairness towards all members of the public and to refrain from using their position for selfish ends. However this is not always so in practice because of the selfish and unpredictable nature of humans as often argued by sociologist and economist. Hence, checks and measures to control the excesses of career public officials become compelling to prevent abuse. The measures designed to control public officials embody what is usually referred to as *administrative control* in public administration parlance. This forms a major part of the discussions in this chapter.

Closely related to administrative control is the concept of accountability in the public sector. Accountability in the public sector has become a subject of interest to many (scholars, international development organizations, Civil Society Organizations [CSOs], citizens, governments and other stakeholders of governments) globally. It has become more reverberating with the spread of democratic governance in recent years. Accountability has assumed the front burners of public policy in developing countries like Nigeria with very disturbing levels of corruption, and lack of probity.

It is against the foregoing, that is chapter is poised to examine administrative control and accountability in the public sector as two critical tools designed to engender integrity and probity in the public sector with particular reference to Nigeria. Effort shall be made in the remaining part of this chapter to examine each of these concepts according to the dictates of their scope. It is important to note here that, administrative control is more restrictive and focused on administrative officials in public service while public sector accountability is more broad and encompassing. Moreover, the types of measures of control for administrative officers are also tools of accountability that will be discussed under public sector accountability. Hence, we shall dwell more extensively on accountability in Nigerian government and public sector.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL

This segment is focused on examining the meaning of administrative control, sources of power of career administrators and types of administrative control;

Concept of Administrative Control

According to Adamolekun, (1983), when the word ‘control’ is used in reference to administration (administrative control), it refers to ‘measures aimed at restraining and checking the behaviour of administrative officials. Administrative control is not only to prevent but also to control the arbitrary use of administrative power.

Sources of Power of Career Administrators

An important part of the need to control career Administrators, is an understanding of their sources of power. What then constitute the sources of power for the public officials?

Firstly, nature of tenure of appointment of career Administrators guarantees permanence of tenure. This means that different governments come and goes but the career administrators remain. (Adamolekun, 1983). Secondly, there has been an significant expansion in the size and functions of the state over the years and as a result, government has transformed from security of lives and properties to a welfare or service state which has consequently strengthened the power position of the bureaucrats. Thirdly, most politicians that turn out for periodic elections are laymen that lack the expertise. Hence, in the interactions between career Administrators and the politicians, career administrators become dominant because of their expertise and permanence of tenure. Finally, as a result of the need to adequately handle issues that arise from the dynamic and ever changing society, the career Administration always equip themselves with ‘up to date knowledge as well as appropriate skills and technique.’ (Op.cit). Thus this gives public servant an upper hand over the politician.

Types of Administrative control

Different types of administrative control measures have been devised by governments to prevent and the abuse of powers and check the excesses of public servants. These include: judicial control, legislative control, independent auditor (Ujo, 1995).

Judicial Controls

One measure that can be used to curb the abuse of administrative power is judicial control. The overall objective of judicial control is to grant judicial remedies to citizens that are negatively affected by wrong actions or inactions of administrative bodies which are bound to act according to law in the same way as the ordinary citizen. In this regard, the Judiciary (if its independence is maintained) can declare administrative action null and void or ultra-vires where it is observed to be faulty in the manner of performance, if action is taken without care, where there is improper motive, etcetera. The ordinary law courts can hinder civil servants where their administrative action is observed to be faulty. This is very popular in a country like France where there are administrative courts. The judicial remedies consist of mandamus, injunction, order of prohibition and Ultra-Vires etc.

The Legislative Control

There are varieties of controls which the parliaments can exercise over public officials. One of such is control over appropriation of public funds and the other is power of the parliaments to conduct investigations. First, section 80 sub-section 4 of the 1999 constitution of Nigeria empowers the

members of the National Assembly to control the finance of the federation in that: 'No money shall be withdrawn from the consolidated revenue fund, except in the manner prescribed by the National Assembly. Section 120:4 of the 1999 constitution of Nigeria addresses that of states. Secondly, section 88 subsection (1) b (i-ii) of the 1999 constitution also confers power to each of the houses of the National Assembly to 'conduct investigations on for the purposes of exposing corruption, inefficiency and wastes within its legislative competence. Section 128-subsection (1) b (ii) stipulates how each state House of Assembly should carry out investigative oversight to check corruption, inefficiency, wastes at the state level. Specific examples worthy of mentioning here of how the Nigerian National Assemblies conduct investigations via public hearing, oversight visits and activities of Public Accounts Committee (PAC) among others. More details about the PAC will be discussed later in this chapter.

The Independent Auditor

Depending on the country of operation, this office is variously called. In Nigeria, the office is called the Auditor General of the Federation. This office is independent of the Executive arm of the government and its annual reports form the basis of the control exercised by the legislature over Government Accounts. In the 1999 constitution of Nigeria (as amended), section 86-87 provides for the appointment of an Auditor General charged with the responsibility to audit public accounts. For the state, this is contained in section 126-127 of the 1999 constitution of Nigeria. More discussions about the Auditor General will be featured under the public sector accountability section.

PUBLIC SECTOR ACCOUNTABILITY IN NIGERIA

Public sector accountability is a global phenomenon but defined by local realities which could be ideological, ethical and/or legal. There is a school of thought that considers accountability as synonymous with democratic governments and that undemocratic systems of government such, as totalitarian, dictatorial or despotic governments are not obliged to be accountable. But even in practice, countries like Russia, China and Saudi Arabia that are widely regarded as dictatorial, totalitarian and undemocratic respectively have been seen to uphold the principle of accountability in practice. Consequently, it can be arguably said that accountability transverses all forms of governments (both democratic and undemocratic governments), public or private spheres (organizations, officials, citizens and entities) and is anchored on ethical and moral principles. The only difference between democratic governments and undemocratic systems in term of accountability is that democratic systems have requirements of accountability embedded by default while in undemocratic systems accountability depends on the moral disposition of the leadership. Central to the discussion of accountability is transparency and we shall briefly look at meaning of transparency later on..

The discussion in this segment shall be organized in the following sequence: first we begin with clarifying the meaning of public sector; then proceed to highlight the link between corruption, transparency and accountability; we also conceptualize corruption; quickly highlight the manifestation of corruption in Nigerian public sector; shed light on the meaning of transparency; accountability; highlight the theoretical perspectives of accountability in a democratic setting; examine the rationale for accountability; discuss the types of accountability; examine administrative frameworks for financial control & accountability in Nigeria; institutional frameworks for accountability and anti-corruption in Nigeria; legal frameworks for accountability in Nigeria; Civil Society Organization (CSOs) and public sector accountability in Nigeria; impediments to accountability in Nigeria and finally summarize, conclude and chart the way forward for achieving effective administrative control and public sector accountability in Nigeria.

Concept of Public Sector

Public sector like most concepts in social and management science is subject to varying definitions. Specifically, public sector definition comes under either a narrow government centric (government ownership and control) perspective or a broad more encompassing (stakeholders) perspective.

Wegrich, (nd) defines public sector as that portion of the economy that comprise of all levels of government and enterprises controlled by government. It excludes private companies, voluntary organizations, and households. Going by the above definition, public sector encompasses government ownership or control and not just function. It includes, for example, the exercise of public authority or the implementation of public policy. The above definition is aligned with the narrow perspective noted earlier.

Akpa, (2008) describes public sector as the parts of an economic system that is controlled by either government or non-profit organizations. He further describes government as a social institution that has the responsibility of undertaking several roles in society which are financed mainly through taxes levied on residents and other legal entities. While the non-profit organizations on other hand, refers to organizations whose orientations and motives are not strictly about profit making and they are financed mainly through donations. They include: client oriented non-profit organizations (organizations that operate to provide services in exchange for charges meant to recover cost) public oriented non-profit organizations (organizations that operate to provide services free of charge) and member oriented non-profit organizations (organizations that operate and provide services for its members in exchange for charges meant to recover cost).

Torfin, Sørensen, & Røiseland, (2016) seem to agree with Akpa (2008) but observes that the change of meaning of public sector from a restrictive (government centred) perspective to a broad (stakeholders centred perspective) is due to a paradigm shift in public administration from New Public Management (NPM) to New Public Governance (NPG). Public sector in this new paradigm is

seen to be transformed from an authority and service provider (government ownership, control and provision of services) to a facilitator of collaboration (a facilitator /participator in partnership) with relevant stakeholders to address societal challenges. This type of arrangement is called ‘co-creation public sector’. They argue that: *public sector should neither appear to be an almighty authority vis-à-vis disempowered and obedient citizen nor seek to imitate a private service company that zealously satisfies a customer’s every wish. Instead, it should facilitate and participate in a constructive collaboration with relevant and affected actors who can help to define and solve the shared problems and common tasks. Public sector as co-creation requires to transverse the borders separating the public and private sector and taps experiences, resources, energies, and ideas of users, citizens, civil society organizations, and private firms* (Torfing, Sørensen, & Røiseland, 2016p.800).

We align our conceptual thought on public sector with those expressed by Torfing, Sørensen, & Røiseland, (2016) and Akpa (2008). However, our discussion on accountability in this chapter is limited to government (government officials and organizations) which form our conceptual focus in public sector here. These categories of public sector elements in Nigeria are usually embodied by government organizations such as ministries, departments, agencies and commissions. A cursory look at the scope and activities of government ministries; department agencies, boards and commissions especially at the federal level in Nigeria will reveal how their activities have permeated virtually almost all aspects of our lives with sometimes far reaching implications. Some of these public sectors organizations are ministries (example: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Internal Affairs etc.) departments (example: Department of Petroleum Resources) or agencies (example: National Primary Healthcare Development Agency, National Orientation Agency etc. Federal Airport Authority of Nigeria (FAAN)), while others are statutory boards and commissions (example: Joint Admission and Matriculation Board, National Board for Technical Education, Universal Basic Education Commission, National University Commission etc.).

Corruption, Transparency and Accountability

With the increasing wave of democratization across the world today, public officials and entities are coming under increasing pressure to be open to scrutiny and account for their actions or inaction in public interests. This is coming just as the clamor against public sector corruption is also being re-echoed and heightened globally. These calls and demands for increased anti-corruption stance, openness and answerability are often among critical issues in public debates and public policy agenda. Therefore, there seem to be a logical link between the trio concepts of corruption, transparency and accountability just as most literatures see, transparency and accountability as critical elements of good governance in a country. Practical evidence suggests that we cannot achieve accountability without transparency in society. While transparency is the foundation of

accountability by ensuring open operation of government machinery, accountability is to be liable for responsibility vested in public officials (Akpa, 2008). Before delving further it important to quickly look at the meaning of corruption, transparency and accountability.

Concept of corruption

Although the word corruption is frequently used in everyday discussions and literatures, its meaning is slippery and subject to varying interpretations. One of the most respected authorities on corruption, Rose-Ackerman (1998) observed that it is not conceptually easy to precisely define corruption. This is because of the degree of ambiguity, country specific peculiarities and value orientation embedded in the concept. The word corruption comes from the Latin word “Corruptus” (to break). It literally means broken objective. Macrae, (1982) had earlier defined corruption as “a negative form of behavioral pattern whereby an official entrusted with public office abuses that office through personal misconducts or moral lapses that borders on greed, avarice or selfish desire. She further opines that corruption is primarily a problem of institutional weakness and inefficient public bureaucratic system. Rose-Ackerman (1998) also defines the concept of corruption as payments that are illegally made involving public agents with the goal of obtaining a benefit or avoiding a cost. The above definitions narrow corruption to abuse of trust, power and finances at the formal level alone. However, it common knowledge to hear that such abuse even at a private and informal level with serious implications.

Finally, a summarized definition of corruption put forward by Transparency International (the international organization that has maintained a global ranking of countries corruption index for decades) is simply expressed as “the abuse of power for private gain” (Transparency International n.d.). We shall berth with the following takeaways from the definitions presented above thus: i. corruption is a form of behavior that departs from ethics, morality, tradition, law and civil virtue and ii. corruption is a deliberate violations of established procedures and standards (legal, professional or even ethically established) for gainful end either in private and public sector affairs.

Manifestations of Corruption in Nigeria Public Sector

Numerous expressions of corruption abound in Nigerian society. The list presented is not exhaustive but highlights prominent forms of corruption in the country. They are: 1. Manipulation of government accounts by government officials; 2. Forgery of documents by officials of government; 3. Giving and accepting bribes in form of gifts; 4. Employment of nonqualified personnel in public sectors; 5. Embezzlement of public fund; 6. Misappropriation of public fund; 7.

Contract manipulation; 8. Nepotism; 9.Kickbacks from contract (Kukah, 1999, Ogundiya, 2009 & Otisy, 2011).

Transparency

Dlakwa (2005) in Mmbaya (2007) defines transparency as the open manner in which those assigned responsibility comply strictly with the rules and procedures for conduct of their affairs. This means that public officials are not expected to conduct their affairs in secret, neither should they hide information from members of the public. It also means officials should be open to/subject to scrutiny and criticism. Transparency is an ethical concept that is concerned with upholding what is right by being open. Transparency is aimed at ensuring openness, uprightness and fairness in the course of dealing with people at both public and private levels. Akpa, (2008) opine that transparency includes openness in decision making as well as in public policy formulation, implementation and making information available to the public. This is widely believed by scholars to: reduce uncertainty in policy execution; impede corruption among public office holders and strengthens good democratic governance. Consequently, transparency without accountability is impotent just as accountability cannot be effectively achieved without transparency.

Accountability

Mulgan, (2000p. 555) sees accountability as a ‘process of being called to account to some authority for one’s actions’. In other words, it is a process of ‘rendering an account’.

Akpa, (2008) observes that accountability is an act that becomes incumbent as soon as an individual is appointed or elected to serve and act (as an agent) on behalf of another (the principal) in administering an office. Hence, the holder of such office must uphold the inescapable obligation to stand ready and willing to answer for all his/her actions and inaction whether good or bad consistently. The above definition situate accountability within the context of officials serving as agents to a principal but did not address issues arising when actions that violate established standards are carried out by corporate entities and organizations . Benito, (2018) addressed the above concern when he opines that accountability refers to act of holding individuals, agencies, and organizations (ether public, /private/civil society) responsible for reporting their activities and executing their powers properly. It also includes the responsibility for money or other entrusted property (Benito, 2018).

Accountability can therefore simply be conceived as rendering of stewardship, demonstration of responsibility to duties by officials, corporate entities or organizations. It is the ability of elected or appointed officials to demonstrate to the citizens (Electors) that they are performing their responsibilities to the people according to the law in public service. It also construes the ability of the ordinary citizen to hold public officials responsible for their mistakes or bad deeds.

Theoretical Perspectives on the Problem of Accountability in Public Sector

Farazmand, (2018) advanced three theoretical perspectives to explain the problem of accountability in public sector. These include the Marxian perspective “ruling class” perspective represented by

Marxian and neo-Marxian theories. The “ruling class” perspective postulates that accountability is a flawed concept that is not treated with seriousness in capitalist societies. They argue that capitalism corrupts and corruption is instrumental to maintaining and enhancing the system of capitalism. They argue that citizens in such societies are powerless and irrelevant because power elites decide and rule through public and private corporate institutions and organizations. The small group of ruling class exploits the majority working class. Money is used to lubricate the political system and to perpetuate the rules and pervert the system to the advantage of “ruling class” for more money and profits. To achieve this, they collaborate with middle-class “agents” in charge of administering, managing and supervising public service as well as politicians from whatever partisan divide through the instrument of bureaucracy, or policy. In the end there is usually lack of accountability among corporations and top political, administrative/bureaucratic, and military elites to anyone. Rather it is only held as a symbolic principle to seek legitimacy.

The second perspective is based on theoretical principles of ethics, virtue “principled professionalism” and categorical imperatives. It runs contrary to the Marxian perspective that focuses on social class because accountability is considered to envelop all members of society regardless of social class or partisan orientation. Most public administration scholars, philosophers, social scientists subscribe to this perspective. Accountability is seen here as a critical charge that is based on prescriptions of ethics, virtue “principled professionalism” and categorical imperatives. Scholars in this category argue that the actions or inactions of all officials in public service should be subject to public scrutiny, and accountability. They uphold the assertion that any breach of accountability must be sanctioned appropriately by constitutional, legal instrument, and financial means regardless of the level or position of officials in the system (no sacred cows).

The third perspective is that of the conservative public choice theory (centered on the citizen’s choice in the provision of public goods and Services) and New Public Management (NPM). This perspective is apprehensive of bureaucrats and doubtful of public servants ability to be accountable because the permanence of their appointed and professionals expertise makes them powerful and likely to be corrupted. This perspective considers the bureaucracy as that lends its self to inefficiency and ineffective in all operations and services including of accountability. This perspective and its extended ideology of public choice theory and NPM propose privatization, “marketization”, and outsourcing of public services and government agencies as the solution to accountability problems in the public sector. Although in reality the extent of improvement in the overall quality of government and public service under NPM is subject to debate especially with the failed privatization of power sector in Nigeria and others. The immediate implication of NPM systems are reduction of power of politicians over public organizations, autonomy as ministries or politicians can no longer give direct instruction. Instead owners elect a board to manage the privatized organisation. The downturn of this development is that citizens are may come under the exploitative tendencies of profit driven private sector.

Rationale for Accountability

Accountability and transparency have gained currency as critical tools of ensuring good governance in the social contract between the government and the governed over the years. This has specifically become more compelling as a result of the spread of democratic governance. Several grounds account for the need for accountability in government/public service. Chief among these are that: *accountability has become a popular mechanism for ensuring good governance; high prevalence of corruption and; Public sector reform has prompted the adoption of New Public Management (NPM) approach.*

Accountability has become a popular mechanism for ensuring good governance: Advocates of democratic governance have continued to allude to and clamor for the integration of the principle of accountability to ensure *good governance* is achieved. A typical democratic system of government is built on the principle of separation of powers (the separation of executive, legislative, and judicial powers to allow autonomy for each arm of government) to provide checks and ensure accountability to citizens; free press (independent media) and robust civil society engagement which all contribute to the providing the framework for accountability (Akpa, 2008 & Farazmand, 2018).

The high prevalence of corruption: the high prevalence of corruption and the declining trust among citizens for their government has provided more impetus for instilling the principle of accountability in public administration and governance. Recall that the anticipation of Nigerians for a leadership that will insist on accountability and decisively fight against corruption was a major ground that favoured Presidential Muhammodu Buhari in the 2015 election. It is well established that Nigeria retarded development has largely been a consequence of the problem of corruption in the public sector and successive governments have attempted to address this through diverse means including accountability (Ogundiya, 2009; Otisy, 2011; Salman, & Abdulrasaq, 2016). More discussions on the concept of corruption as a major link to accountability shall come in subsequently part of this chapter.

Public sector reform has prompted the adoption of New Public Management (NPM): the third explanation for the adoption of reforms in public sector organizations typically within the framework of New Public Management (NPM) which advocates for the adoption of management strategies of private sector in addition to privatization and “marketization” (market driven approach to public service delivery and privatization). The solution to the problem of accountability through NPM approach may as discussed earlier also result in accountability problems (Farazmand, 2018).

Types of Accountability

In public administration today, several measures have been designed to ensure that public officials are held accountable in a state. Mbaya 2007 in Odoh (2011) identified five kinds of accountability

namely: *political accountability, legal accountability, administrative accountability, moral accountability and social accountability*. Akpa, (2008) on the other hand advanced three major types of accountability which include: *political accountability, administrative accountability and financial accountability*. It is obvious that two types of accountability presented by the above authors (*political accountability and administrative accountability*), tally, except for the *legal, moral, social and financial* accountability which do not. Hence, we shall proceed to discuss all six types of accountability highlighted by the two scholars.

Political Accountability Political accountability refers to the obligation of elected or appointed public officials to maintain close relationship with those who elected or appointed them. This is to enable them to explain to the electorate or constituencies how they have been able to represent their own interest in the decision-making body (Odoh, 2011). Political accountability is anchored on the premise that political leadership is a social contract between the leader and the followers guided by the constitution. Political accountability is thus assessed by ascertaining i. the extent to which political office holders adhere to constitutional provisions and observe checks and balance; ii. The extent to which politicians and the electoral process complies with the requirements for free and fair elections and; iii. The extent that politicians keep to their electoral promises (Akpa, 2008). Hence, an elected official who pursue personal interest in a decision-making body and not in the interest of the members of his constituency is not accountable to his people. The electorate can therefore, make him accountable by cautioning him or even refusing to vote for him in future elections. Election is therefore an effective instrument of enforcing political accountability (Odoh, 2011). However, in the case of Nigeria, it is almost nearly impossible to hold public officials and institutions in the country accountable due to systemic weakness from the political party machinery, election administrators, the electioneering process and even the citizens- leadership engagement in government. For instance, there is seemingly lack of ideological substance in political parties existing in the country and this is compounded by a fraudulent electoral process characterized by rigging/manipulation of the electoral process, inducement of electorates and electoral officials and more recently an amplified version of vote buying (Elaigwu, 2018; & Akpa, 2008). Akpa, (2008p.36) aptly averred that *in Nigeria today, we do lack credible mechanisms for enforcing political accountability, especially the political parties and their candidates for their campaign promises*.

Administrative Accountability: this entails the responsibility of public officials to report back to their superiors on the discharge of their responsibilities. The word “superior” as used here, include the electorate who are expected to surrender their mandate to public officials who are expected to act on their behalf. In other words, Local Government Chairman, Governors and President of the country are obliged to render administrative accounts to the public that voted them into power. This type of stewardship could e in form of providing tangible social services such as adequate portable water, health care, qualitative education, housing, electricity, essential agricultural inputs and roads. It is

therefore, the duty of the electorate to conduct a performance audit of their elected representative from time to time.

Legal Accountability: this is the type of accountability that is enshrined in the constitution or laws of the land. The principles of constitutionalism and rule of law provides that; those saddled with the responsibility of making laws and executing public policy must bring themselves to act under and within the proper sphere of law and the constitution of the state. Public officials can demonstrate legal accountability through the respect for rule of law. For instance, legislators are not supposed to fix their own salary, this responsibility has been assigned by law to the Revenue Mobilization, Allocation and Fiscal Commission. Elected officials are equally expected to obey traffic rules and regulations. This means that they should equally be punished, in accordance with the law if they commit unlawful acts such as stealing public funds or committing murder. Furthermore, they are expected to vacate their office in accordance with the time stipulated by law. They can exceed this time only if a new constitution that permits them to do so backs their action. Even though public officials are punishable under the law, it is only courts of law or judiciary that can impose such punishment. Hence, if members of the public invoke such punishment by themselves through physical beating (assault) or the burning of proper of (arson) of the official in question through “jungle justice”, it is done in violation of the law.

Moral Accountability: this is the “responsibility imposed on a public official to act in accordance with the general perception of what is morally just”. Moral accountability entails the ability of the public officials to maintain integrity and avoid acts that would tarnish his/her image. Forging... of academic credentials in order to contest for elected posts, stealing public funds, drunkenness, prostitution or chasing after women, homosexuality, and drug abuse are some of the immoral acts that could tarnish the image of not only the public officials but also that of members of their constituencies. Rigging of elections, the use of thugs to beat up political opponents and the payment of money to votes in order to win their votes all constitutes political immorality. It is the duty of the electorate to avoid the temptation of causing their elected representative to engage in these unwholesome acts.

Social Accountability: social accountability is rather broad. It could mean the expectation of public officials to maintain an open-door policy with members of the constituency. This means that the elected official must not be seen as a lord or king of the worship and feared. He/she must be friendly with the members of the constituents. He is equally obliged to participate in the social activities of the community he is representing such as annual festivals marriage ceremonies, community development programs and other activities that are of social nature. In short, social accountability requires of the public official to be accessible, friendly, and concerned about the welfare of the members of his community. However, it should be noted by the citizenry that public offices are not

places that officials have limitless access to money. It is therefore; wrong to expect all public office holders to donate huge sums of money at fund-raising ceremonies.

Financial accountability

Akpa (2008) opines that financial accountability is also known as budgetary accountability. This type of accountability is aimed at compelling all public officials charged with the responsibility of handling and administering public funds to render account of the custody and use of financial resources they are entrusted with in line with established guidelines or rules, policies and best practices. This means that due process must be followed at all times and in all transactions concerning the office. It also includes: *monitoring and performances and controlling all inefficiencies, wastages and abuse of office.....; there must be a robust accounting and auditing system in place....; observance of transparency; effective machinery for safeguarding public funds must be put in place; adequate mechanism for authorization of expenditure and stoppage of misuse or abuse of public funds must be put in place; strict adherence to financial rules and regulations (such as Financial Regulations (FR) at the federal level, Financial Instructions (FI) at the state level and Financial Memorandum (FM) at the local government level) when dealing with public funds* (Akpa, 2008pp 33-35).

Administrative Frameworks for Financial Control & Accountability in Nigeria

The public service in Nigeria like elsewhere have some measures designed as administrative framework to control abuse of public finances and ensure accountability. Akpa, (2008) has pointed certain key administrative arrangements have been provided in Nigeria to facilitate public service accountability. They include:

- ❖ Functional officers
 - ❖ Internal control system
 - ❖ External audit and
 - ❖ Oversight committees
- *Functional officers*: this refers to officers charged with the responsibility of ensuring financial control and accountability in the public service. They are: **a).** the Accounting Officers; **b).** the Accountant General; **c).** the Accounts Officers.

a). *the Accounting Officers*: in Nigerian public service, Ministers (at the federal level) or Commissioners (at the state level) who are political appointees are recognized as the political head empowered to authorize and approve decisions and spending in their various ministries while the permanent secretary (a career bureaucrat) is authorize to serve as the accounting officer. This does not imply that the accounting will be carrying out the technical accounting work. Instead, it simply means that he has the duty to be accountable or answerable for the use of approved funds in that

office. The Accounting Officer usually delegates the technical financial and accounting work to professional accountants in the office designated as accounts officers. *Functions of the Accounting Officer include:*

i. preparation of annual budget of the ministry/department; ii. properly safeguarding financial votes allocated; iii. collect and duly account for all revenue approved to be collected by ministry/department; iv. ensure all expenditures are duly approved and disbursed in accordance with laid down rules; v. ensure all required books of account are maintained and secured; vi. ensure that heads and subhead in the ministry/department file the monthly report of revenue and expenditure which is then forwarded to the offices of Accountant General and Auditor General; vii. answers queries from the Auditor General and is also answerable to the Public Account Committee concerning allocated funds of the ministry/department.

b). the Accountant General: this is an official appointed as the chief accounting officer of the government. In Nigeria's federal state structure there is the Accountant General of the federation at the federal level and each state of the in the country has an Accountant General for the state. The Accountant General has the overall responsibility of supervising the accounting system of the government.

Basic

Functions of the Accountant General include:

i. he serves as custodian of funds and therefore receives and disburses funds appropriately; ii. Serves as Chief Treasury Manager by making sure all government cash is distributed to various sub-treasuring in the state; iii. he works with the consent of the Chief Executive to place surplus funds in profit/interest yielding securities; iv. is responsible for preparing annual account report of the state in addition to others such as the balance sheet (statement of assets and liabilities) of government, statement that each compare projected revenue and actual sums received into the Consolidated Revenue Fund and Contingencies Fund, statement that each compare estimated expenditure and actual sums paid out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund and Contingencies Fund and any other statement that may be required by the Chief Executive from time to time; v. he is also required to carry out any other duties that may be assigned by the Commissioner/Minister of Finance or may be contained in relevant accounting manuals.

c). the Accounts Officers (usually referred to as Accountants): these are professional accountants that are staff of the office of Accountant General posted out to carry out the day to day financial accounting functions of various ministries, departments or agencies of government. They are receive directive of their duties and tasks on a day to day basis from the accounting officers (the permanent secretaries).

The basic

functions of Account Officers are:

i. he keeps vote book and other similar records; ii. Collect and account for revenues; iii. keep and maintains bank account(s), imprest account(s) and other related accounts; iv. prepares and disburses staff salaries, allowances and other such records; v. reconciles Treasury schedules and perform monthly returns of revenues and expenditures; vi. attends to audit and Treasury queries on behalf of the Accounting Officer; vii. he is usually delegated by the Accounting Officer to prepare the financial estimates of the ministry or department; viii. prepares monthly bank reconciliation.

➤ *Internal control system*: this refers to all the procedures and measures (financial and otherwise) put in place by the management of an organization to ensure operations of the organization are carried out in a civilized manner, in line with established rules and policies designed to protect assets, avoid misapplication, waste, misuse and secure accurate and timely information. To achieve the objectives of internal control, the following mechanism should be put in place: **a).** internal checks; **b).** administrative control; **c).** accounting control and **d).** internal audit.

a). *internal checks*: this refers to the mechanism designed to ensure layers of checks are in place to prevent and detect early all kinds of errors and sharp practices. The internal check principle prescribes the subdivision of major tasks and work activities among different staff so that no single official should be allowed to complete an entire official financial transaction cycle alone in Nigerian public service. For instance, when a ministry/department decides to buy some furniture the authorizing officer will be different from the paying officer, and the procurement officer will differ from the store officer. Furthermore, the Accounting officer to record the items in the store ledger will also be a different person.

b). *administrative control*: this simply refers to laid down rules, regulations, codes and manuals of office instructions that members of staff are obliged to abide by in the conduct of general work and financial operations in the organization. It is not the administrative control discuss earlier in this chapter which is more broad involving external stakeholders. Examples of rules, regulations and codes that form the basis of administrative control as a mechanism of internal control system include: the civil service rules, general orders, financial regulations etc.

c). *accounting control*: the Accountant General is empowered by the 1999 constitution of Nigeria (as amended) to exercise powers of control over financial or accounting matters in the country. This control is guided by codified rules which govern financial transactions of all types. It specifically stipulates measures and procedures for processing and reporting various financial transactions, internal checks and so on. The rules guiding accounting control include: the Financial Regulations (FR) applicable at the federal level, Financial Instructions (FI) applicable at the state level and Financial Memorandum (FM) applicable at the local government level.

d). *internal audit*: this is a measure of internal control system that plays the role of a watchdog over financial and accounting matters by continuously reviewing operations to ensure adherence to laid down rules and procedures. The internal audit function is carried out by an internal audit unit and this refers to the continuous systematic examination of all accounting books and records. This examination includes the following checks: surprise cash survey, bank tellers, receipt books, revenue collectors cash books, stores verification, assets registers to verify and locate assets, prepayment verification of all payment vouchers before payments are made.

The internal audit is considered to be very crucial to the operations of public service organizations. Consequently, each audit unit is mandated as standing rule to submit a comprehensive audit programme plan to the Treasury division. The audit programme must encompass all segments of government organization. It is also mandatory requirement to set up an internal audit unit before any ministry or department of government can be granted self accounting status.

The head of the internal audit unit has the mandate to render periodic reports (including queries and comments) to the Accounting officer (his boss, the permanent secretary), and forward a copy to the ministry or department's Director of Finance and Supplies (who is required to take action and remedy the identified errors or problem), the Accountant General and Auditor General. When the report gets to the Auditor General he can take special interest in the comments made and insist that the query must be answered within the time limit and where irregularities have been clearly established that after the answer has been provided, the appropriate disciplinary measures are activated according to the relevant public service rules and regulations.

- *External audit*: external audit is concerned with the examination of public accounts by an independent auditor who is not directly or indirectly controlled or influenced by members of and the organization being audited (the auditee). The Auditor General is constitutionally empowered to carry out the responsibility of external audit in the public sector of Nigeria. Section 85-87 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (as amended) provides for the appointment, emolument, powers and duties of the Auditor General at the federal level while section 125-127 provides for similarly for the Auditor General at the state level.

External audit is carried out with a view to ascertain whether or not: i. essential records have been maintained and adequate safekeeping measures ensured for items in stores and other assets, ii. all monies expended were done in accordance with the purpose for which they were approved, iii. all accounts have been properly kept, iv. all necessary precautions have been exercised in the collection and allocation of public revenue and v. all revenues collected have been accounted for.

- *Oversight committees*: there are two important committees that have been institutionalized to carry out oversight function and ensure that accountability and probity abounds in Nigerian

public service. They are: i. Audit Alarm Committee (AAC) and ii. Public Accounts Committee (PAC).

- (iv) *Audit Alarm Committee (AAC)*: this is an executive oversight committee created by the 1988 Civil Service Reform in Nigeria. It is high level audit oversight committee that is set within the executive arm of government with the intent of preventing irregularities before they occur and to also promote accountability, prudence, and probity in the public service. The membership of this oversight committee include: the Auditor General (as Chairman), Accountant General (as member) and representative of the office of the president or governor (as the case may be as member). This committee is also to be set up at local governments levels in each state of the country and members of the committee at that level comprises of Auditor General for Local Government (as Chairman), Director of Local Governments Inspectorate representing the Office of the Governor (as member) Accountant General's representative (as member).

The AAC meets periodically to look into alarm cases referred to it. The alarm cases are usually prepayment queries that were raised by the internal auditor at the ministry/department level but ignored and overruled by the Accounting Officer (the permanent secretary). Once alarm has been raised against a transaction, it becomes prohibited for it to be executed until a go ahead clearance is issued by the Auditor General after satisfactorily answering the query.

- (v) *Public Accounts Committee (PAC)*: this is a standing committee of legislature which usually carries out oversight aimed at ensuring financial accountability in the public sector. PAC is chaired by leader of the opposition party in the legislature in a multiparty democracy. PAC examines the Auditor General's report and call parties that issues have been raised concerning the administration of public funds to explain and defend themselves. The specific functions of PAC include:
- a) *Quasi-judicial function and fair hearing*: PAC provides a quasi-judicial forum where all those alleged to have committed financial irregularities (public officials, contractors, corporate bodies are given fair hearing and opportunity to defend themselves.
 - b) *Feedback to citizens and stakeholders*: The report of PAC that is presented to the house provides indirect feedback to the electorates through their representative on how the executive arm of government has been administering their funds.
 - c) *Reinforce the statutory role of Auditor General and checks the executive*: PAC facilitate the enforcement of the recommendations of the Auditor General through it investigations, sometimes validations and demands for remedies which may be ignored if there is no such check in place.

Other administrative frameworks include: *Open Government, Open Government Partnership (OGP) E-government, Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS) and Treasury Single Account (TSA)*

➤ *Open government and E-government*

Open Government and E-government have evolved as new innovations driven by Information and communication technology (ICT) designed to promote accountability transparency and efficiency in government operations. These are discussed below.

Open Government:

Open Government refers to an administrative concept that intends to ensure that members of the public have free and easy access to government information and data so as to promote transparency, accountability and citizens' participation in government. It has evolved as part of the innovations of aimed at using ICT to strengthen accountability. ICT is also actively being used to promote open data for development in areas such as public procurement and management of public finances as it can strengthen transparency, facilitate access to public tenders and simplify administrative procedures (Ojo, & Milard, 2017: International Development Research Centre (IDRC), 2019). A good example of promoting access to information is the Open Data Charter, which as at July 2022 has seen more than 100 governments and organisations committing to opening up data based on a set of global principles, the ODC has influenced global data policies, helping shift focus to the purpose-driven publication of open data.. Government information is also shared as part of the Open Data Charter. It is required to comply with six principles: i. should be open by default, ii. timely, iii. comprehensible, iv. accessible and useable, v. comparable; and vi. interoperable (following international data standards) (<https://opendatacharter.net/our-history/>). i. In addition to the open data mechanism is the open government initiative which has sprung a new global framework called Open Government Partnership (OGP).

Open Government Partnership (OGP)

OGP is a multilateral initiative developed to promote transparency, empower citizens, fight corruption, and harness new technologies to strengthen governance through to securing concrete commitments from governments. The OGP initiative was formally launched in 2011 by eight Heads of State including United Kingdom, the United States, Brazil, Indonesia, Mexico, Norway, Philippines, South Africa, and nine civil society leaders at the UN General Assembly. The membership of OGP has increased rapidly since its lunch as with over seventy five (75) members as at 2019. A participating country must endorse a high-level open government declaration (commitment to transparency) co-develop and deliver a country action plan developed in public consultation (other levels of government and civil society); implement commitments made by

government; commit to independent reporting on progress and, contribute to peer learning. Nigeria formally joined the Open Government Partnership (OGP) initiative in July 2016 and collaborated with civil society to develop the country's National Action Plan (NAP) which was billed to run from January 2017 to June 2019. Nigeria's OGP commitments are well articulated to improve transparency, accountability but it is encumbered by challenges, especially lack of coordination, lack of strong commitment from leaders in government and agencies especially lack of commitment to open contracting and citizens low technological capacity (Audu, Ishaq, & Ifatimehin, 2019).

e-Government

Yildiz (2007), opine that e-government can either be seen as an end in itself or a tool for public sector reform through ICT. Shafritz, Russell, Borick, and Hyde, (2016) on the other hand defines *e-Government*, as an umbrella term that describes all efforts made to use the Internet to simplify governmental activities for both members of the public and the public's employees. This means that E-government is simply the organization of government operations and delivery of government services through the use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) instead of the traditional face-to-face approach/analogue (file and paper system) system. *e-Government is a mechanism for improving public administration and democratic process through facilitating participation, transparency and accountability by employing information technology, initiating organisational changes and introducing new skills in public administration* (Molnár 2007:4). The launch of Nigeria's National Information Technology policy in the year 2000 marks the watershed of e-Government in Nigeria. One of the central objectives of the policy was to improve governance in Nigeria by *improving citizens accessibility to public administration and strengthening transparency in government processes* (NITDA, 2007 in Abdulkareem, 2015). Nigeria Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) is the apex government agency responsible for regulating ICT implementation in Nigeria including e-Government. e-Government implementation in Nigeria has mainly been piecemeal in form of establishment of government websites, setting up of e-payment platforms for government revenue and fees and publication of government information including finances online. Consequently, some of the measures designed to promote accountability and transparency through e-Government include: publishing regularly the monthly federal allocations to the states and local governments in electronic form that can be viewed on the website of the federal ministry of finance, publication of budget of the federation among others (Abdulkareem, 2015). Despite the efforts being made by Nigeria, transparency in contracting is still far-fetched among other operational challenges of ICT (Audu, Ishaq, & Ifatimehin, 2019; Kalu, & Masri, 2019). Nigeria's ranks low in the global e-Government ranking scale and movement upward has been slow over the years. Records from the United Nations E-Government Survey indicate that Nigeria maintained 143rd position in 2016, and also held the same 143rd position in 2018 before moving two places up to the 141st position in 2020 (United Nations, 2016; 2018 & 2020).

➤ *Treasury Single Account (TSA)*

Treasury Single Account is a public sector accounting system where government receipts and income are collected into one single account, usually maintained by the country's Central Bank and all payments done through this account as well. The purpose is to ensure accountability of government revenue, enhance transparency and avoid misapplication of public funds. The wholesome implementation TSA policy commenced in 2015 with the administration of President Muhammadu Buhari administration. Prior to the implementation of the TSA, government was incurring finance cost on debit balances in some MDAs' accounts while it was earning close to nothing on the credit balance of other MDAs. This banking arrangement for government transaction is based on the principle of fungibility of all cash resources irrespective of its end use (Ocheni, 2015). Although TSA was initially highly commended by financial experts and observers, it has generated certain challenges. For instance, it is criticized to have slowed down the funds approval and release in government, there is also the problem of alleged incompatibility with operation of autonomous organizations of government. Public universities and other similar autonomous organizations are considered to be affected by this challenge.

➤ *Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS)*

This refers to a centralized computer-based payroll and management system aimed at centralizing data base of public servant, eliminating payroll fraud (ghost workers syndrome), minimizing wastage of public funds, ascertaining actual personal emolument of FGN staff at a glance, to facilitate easy storage, updating and retrieval of personnel to records for administrative and pension purpose and to ensure data integrity towards ensuring that personnel information is correct and intact.

The IPPIS has been reported by the federal government to have significantly reduced ghost workers syndrome and wastage of public funds (Otaru, 2016; Folorunso, & Simeon, 2021; Anuku, 2022). However, critics have disparaged the framework as being incompatible with the operations of certain public sector organizations through encroaching on autonomy of its operations. Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) has firmly criticized the implementation of IPPS in the university system insisting that it has encumbered the effective operations of the federal universities (. It has been one of the main issues of conflict that has prompted ASUU to embark on two long national strike actions: nine months from 2020 to 2021 and from February 2022 to date to demand for the rollback of IPPIS from the university system and advocating for its replacement with the University Transparency and Accountability Solution (UTAS) introduced by the union (Daily Trust, October 17, 2021; Yunusa, 2021)

Institutional Framework for Ensuring Accountability & Curbing Corruption in Nigeria

Beyond administrative measures designed to ensure accountability already discussed above, there are also numerous institutions that have been established to promote accountability and curb corruption in Nigeria. Key institutions established to promote accountability and fight corruption in Nigeria

include: i. *Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC)*, ii. Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC), iii. *Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit (NFIU)*, iv. *Public Complaints Commission*, v. *Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB)* vi. *Nigeria Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (NEITI)*

Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC)

Corrupt Practices Act of 2000 provides the legal framework which established the ICPC as an institution empowered to tackle corruption and enforce the law on issues bothering on abuse of office and other acts of corruption. In recognition of the pervasive nature of corruption in Nigeria, the first democratic government in the forth republic (1999-2003) enacted the Corrupt Practices Act of 2000. The Act established the ICPC as a statutory body answerable to the National Assembly and to provide a legal framework for fighting corruption. Specifically, the Act grants the ICPC considerable power for investigation, arrest and prosecution of suspected persons. The Act stipulates that the ICPC shall consist of a Chairman and twelve other members selected from each of the six geo- political zones of Nigeria. The ICPC Act provides that the Chairman and Members of the Commission, who shall be persons of proven integrity appointed by the President upon confirmation by the Senate. Members of the Commission are mandated by law not begin to discharge their duties until they have declared their assets and liabilities as prescribed in the Nigerian Constitution. The duties of the Commission are spelt out in Section 6 (a-f) of the ICPC Act 2000 as follows:

Functions of ICPC include:

a). To receive and investigate complaints from members of the public on allegations of corrupt practices and where established to be appropriate offenders are prosecuted; **b).** to examine the practices, systems and procedures of public bodies and where such systems aid corruption, to direct and supervise their review; **c).** to instruct, advise and assist any officer, agency, or parastatals on ways by which fraud or corruption may be eliminated or minimized by them; **d).** to advise heads of public bodies to change/adopt practices, systems or procedures so as to ensure the effective discharge of the duties and to reduce likelihood of bribery, corruption and related offences; **e).** to educate the public on and against bribery, corruption and related offences; **f).** to enlist and foster public support in combating corruption; **g).** the Chairman of ICPC is empowered to seize movable property in the custody or control of a bank or financial institution under investigation under the Act; **h).** to obtain information from any person including relatives, associates and their banks suspects of offence under the Act; **i).** to make an apply to Court to prohibit any dealings with properties that are subject of an offence under the Act wherein such properties are held or deposited outside Nigeria.

6. Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC)

Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) was established three years after the ICPC as a law enforcement agency that investigates financial crimes such as advance fee fraud and money laundering under the EFCC (Establishment) Act of 2004. EFCC is an inter-agency Commission comprising of a twenty two member board drawn from all Nigerian Law Enforcement Agencies (LEAs) and regulators. The Commission is empowered to investigate, prevent and prosecute offenders who engage in money laundering, embezzlement, bribery, looting and any form of corrupt practices, illegal arms deal, smuggling, human trafficking, and child labor, illegal oil bunkering, illegal mining, tax evasion, foreign exchange malpractices including counterfeiting of currency, theft of intellectual property and piracy, open market abuse, dumping of toxic wastes, and prohibited goods”. 35 The Commission is also responsible for identifying, tracing, freezing, confiscating, or seizing proceeds derived from terrorist activities.

The Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit (NFIU)

The NFIU is an autonomous intelligent unit created in line with NFIU Act 2018. It is housed within the Central Bank of Nigeria. NFIU serves as the central coordinating body for Anti-Money Laundering, Counter-Terrorist Financing and Counter-Proliferation Financing (AML/CFT/CPF) framework in Nigeria. NFIU is also the central national agency responsible for: receiving disclosures from reporting organisations, analysing disclosures and the producing intelligence which are disseminated to competent authorities. Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit (NFIU), is vested with the responsibility of collecting suspicious transactions reports (STRs) from financial and designated non-financial institutions, analyzing and disseminating them to all relevant government agencies and other Financial Intelligent Units all over the world (NFIU, nd.).

7. Public Complaints Commission (PCC)

The Public Complaints Commission (Nigerian Ombudsman) is an independent organization established by the Federal Government of Nigeria in 1975 through Decree No. 31 of 1975, amended by Decree 21 of 1979, now Cap 377 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990 and revalidated in Section 315(5) of 1999 Nigerian Constitution. With a nation-wide network of offices, it became the first West African country to set up such a system and the largest federal government to have it at national and state levels. Although the creation of the PCC was widely acclaimed in Nigeria, this initial enthusiasm appeared to have been short-lived. The publicity about the Commission has dwindled over the years. The PCC tends to operate in secret because its reports are inaccessible to the public, with the result that the average Nigerian knows almost nothing about what it is, what it does, how it performs, and why it continues to exist. The Public Complaints Commission (PCC) is the Nigerian equivalent to the office of an Ombudsman. According to the PCC Act, Chapter 377 L.F.N. 1990, the chief commissioner and commissioners in the states are appointed by the National Assembly. The chief commissioner should then appoint all other officers at the headquarters and state offices, including the national secretary at the headquarters and the directors of investigation at

the state level. Part of the motivation for setting up this constitutional body is to provide citizens with a framework through which they could improve governance in the country by making certain that civil servants who engaged in illegal, unfair, or irregular practices were investigated and if necessary, brought to justice (PCC Act, L.F.N. 1990).

8. *Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB)*

The Code of Conduct Bureau was set up by the Federal Government under the Code of Conduct Bureau and Tribunal Act. The Bureau could not however become operational due to the inability of the National Assembly to pass the enabling bill into law until the demise of the second republic in 1983. The organization was however resuscitated by the regime of General Ibrahim Babangida in 1988 with the appointment of a ten-member board. In order to avoid the problems the body encountered in the Second Republic, the Babangida regime went a step further by promulgating Decree 1 of 1989 to give legal backing to the organization. In 1999 the Constitution affirmed the above thus permanently enshrining the organization. The Code of Conduct Bureau and Tribunal Act, Chapter 56 LFN 1990 gave the Bureau the mandate to establish and maintain a high standard of public morality in the conduct of government business and to ensure that the actions and behavior of public officers conform to the highest standard of public morality and accountability. It is important to note that the provisions of the Code of Conduct Bureau should be lauded and should be taken seriously by civil servants, but in reality, civil servants have simply ignored these codes. In Nigeria, most civil servants do not declare their assets and where they do it is usually overrated as to give room to loot. Civil servants have flaunted these codes and are still flaunting them because the penalties for noncompliance are either weak or non existence and impunity for violating these codes is common place in Nigeria.

➤ *Nigeria Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (NEITI)*

NEITI is an affiliate of the Global Initiative i.e The Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI). NEITI is aimed at due process and transparency in the payment system by the Extractive Industries (EI) companies to the government and government linked entities. It is also aimed at improving transparency and independent auditing of the oil and gas revenues in Nigeria. NEITI was established in 2004 as it has been working through the National Stakeholders working Group (NSWG). NEITI bill was signed into law in 2007 thereby giving it activities legal backing and also recognizing it as subset of the Global Extractive Industries Transparency Initiatives.

Legal Frameworks for Accountability in Nigeria

Nigeria is endowed with an avalanche of legal codes designed to facilitate accountability in the public sector. These frameworks range from the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria (as amended) to numerous other laws. For instance the 1999 constitution of Nigeria (as amended) provides for separation of powers among the three arms of government (the executive, the legislature and the

judiciary) to ensure check and balance and also strengthen accountability. Other constitutional provision include; the establishment of the offices of the Accountant General and Auditor General including the appointment of and powers of the Accountant General and Auditor General; asset declaration; establishment of Nigeria Police, its powers and duties. Furthermore, relevant legal frameworks enacted over the years to promote accountability in the country include: Code of Conduct Tribunal (CCT) Act 1991; ICPC Act 2000; EFCC Act 2004; the Freedom of Information (FOI) Act 2011; NFIU Act 2018; the Money Laundry (Prevention and Prohibition) Act 2022 enacted to replace the repealed the Money Laundry (Prohibition) Act No. 11, 2011 and provide a comprehensive legal and institutional framework for prevention of money laundry with the establishment of a control unit under EFCC among others.

Civil Society Organization (CSOs) and Public Sector Accountability in Nigeria

Civil societies are reckoned globally to play a critical role in demanding for public sector accountability in a democratic setting. Nigeria's Civil Society body is still at the rudimental stage of development as a result of long military rule in the country. Nevertheless, there are numerous civil society organizations championing different civil and human rights issues. The past decade has seen the emergence of a few active civil society organizations at the fore front of the push for public sector accountability in the country. Prominent among them are SERAP, Budgit, Connected Development and Premium Times. These four shall be discussed below:

➤ *Social-Economic Rights and Accountability Project (SERAP)*

SERAP is a nonprofit, nonpartisan, legal & advocacy organization devoted to promoting transparency, accountability & respect for socio-economic rights in Nigeria. It was registered as a non-governmental organization in 2004 to advocate for and promote accountability human right issues, corruption, as well as ensure even development. In doing this, the *SERAP* works in partnership with the Economic and financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), Independent Corrupt Practices and other related offences commission (ICPC), the Judiciary and other regulatory bodies in the Nigeria system, set up to ensure accountability particularly from public officers.

Since its establishment, to date, the number of resolved law suit that were instituted by *SERAP* to compel public authorities (government organizations and officials) to account for their conduct and enforce transparency, probity on highly significant matters of public interest in Nigeria are about seventeen (17). Prominent among the cases instituted and won are:

- i. **SERAP V. Federal Republic of Nigeria** was resolved suit on oil spillage and environmental degradation in the Niger-Delta region by oil companies by ECOWAS court. The Court ordered the Federal Republic of Nigeria to within the shortest possible time take all effective measures, to: hold the perpetrators of the environmental damage

- accountable; ensure restoration of the environment of the Niger Delta and prevent the occurrence of damage to the environment;
- ii. **SERAP V. Minister of Information** was a suit initiated in 2017 to compel the Minister of Information of Nigeria to provide SERAP with detailed and up to date information on funds recovered since May 2015 in response to controversies concerning records put forward by different public authorities on the matter.
 - iii. **SERAP V. Federal Republic of Nigeria and Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC)**: In 2010 SERAP filed and won a suit demanding the ECOWAS Court to compel the Federal Government of Nigeria and UBEC to enforce the legal and human right of all Nigerians to education.
 - iv. **SERAP V. 36 States Governors of the Federal Republic of Nigeria**: the suit was instituted by SERAP to compel the 36 state governors in Nigeria to disclose details of payment of billions of naira of tax-payers' money as life pensions to former governors and other ex-officials under their respective State pension laws between 1999 and 2019 despite having served and/or serving as members of the National Assembly at the same time also.

➤ *BudgIT*

BudgIT is a nonprofit organization in Nigeria established in 2011 to promote transparency and accountability in budgeting and utilization of public resources in the country through info-graphics, data analysis and citizens' engagement. BudgIT seeks to achieve institutional improvement and societal change through its activities. Its operation is anchored on ICT and data analysis. It can thus be classified as a civic-tech organization advocating for fiscal transparency and accountability in public budget and finance (BudgIT, nd. <https://yourbudgit.com>). Since inception, BudgIT has developed and undertaken numerous fiscal transparency and accountability initiatives in Nigeria. Some of these measures include:

- i. creation and distribution of budget info-graphics (budget information simplified using graphical presentations such as charts) attainment among the ordinary citizens with low educational ,
- ii. organizing town hall meetings to educate/sensitize the citizens and stimulating citizens interest in budget and accountability through the simplified access to the budget information,
- iii. preparing, publishing and distributing well researched publications on budget related themes to members of the legislature and top members of the executive arm of government,
- iv. visiting and tracking public projects in communities across the country through a programme called *Tracker*,

- v. engaging with stakeholders in the extractive industry (particularly the oil and gas sector) to ask questions and demand accountability about how the funds realized from the sector is utilized,
- vi. engage with government ministries and departments to improve commitment to transparency and accountability.

BudgIT has made considerable progress in advancing the course of Accountability in Nigeria. Among these include: engagement with the Ministry of Budget and National Planning in 2017 to advocate the implementation of the Nigeria Open Government Partnership OGP commitment signed by President Buhari in 2016 signed (BudgIT, 2017) . BudgIT also works with stakeholders at the state level across the country to promote accountability.

➤ Connected Development

Connected Development (CODE) is a Civil Society Organization established in Nigeria in 2012 to address the challenges of: poor social accountability, lack of transparency, information gap between government and citizens, citizenry apathy and distrust in government, weak social contracts and illiteracy through amplifying voices of people in marginalised rural communities denied basic human needs and access to development projects in their communities and regions despite budgetary allocation of funds by different levels of government. CODE has made extensive inroads in pursuit of these objectives over the years. For instance, in 2019 CODE was able to by block financial leakages in rural community funded projects which saved Nigeria government and its people the sum of four hundred and seventy seven million naira (N477 million) (Connected Development, 2019). One of the most prominent tools used by CODE for advocating public sector accountability is an initiative called ‘Follow the Money’.

Connected Development (CODE)’s ‘Follow The Money’ (FTM) Initiative

‘Follow the Money’ (FTM) is an action oriented advocacy initiative that tracks and promotes proper use of government and international interventions funds in rural communities. FTM operates as a network of development consultants, activists, social workers, legal experts, researchers, data analysts and like-minded individuals interested in probity, transparency and accountability to achieve its goals (www.ifollowthemoney.org). Some of the achievements of CODE include:

- i. In 2019 CODE was able to by block financial leakages in rural community funded projects which saved Nigeria government and people the sum of four hundred and seventy-seven million naira (N477 million).
- ii. In 2019, FTM, won the 2019 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals Mobilizer Award
- iii. FTM also won the 2019 Council of Europe’s Democracy Innovation Award for being an initiative for advancing the cause of democracy (Connected Development, 2019).

Premium Times is a subsidiary of Premium Times Services Limited. It was founded in middle of 2011 as a media organisation based in Abuja, Nigeria. It publishes via online platform at the moment but aspires to publish across all formats in future. Its vision is to help strengthen Nigeria's democracy, advocate for best practices, good governance, advance the socio-economic wellbeing and rights of the people, promote and enrich their cultural practices, and transparency. To achieve its vision Premium Times established a CSO called Premium Times Center for Investigative Journalism (PTCIJ) now known as Center for Journalism Innovation and Development (CJID). The centre promotes fundamental human rights, good governance and accountability in Nigeria and West Africa through employing investigative journalism, open data and civic technology tools. One of the core mandates of the centre is to conduct and facilitate groundbreaking investigations on corruption, human rights abuses, abuse of power and due process among others. In terms of achievements, the centre has to date tracked over two hundred and eighty (280+) government projects to ascertain their performance, it has also conducted over six hundred and fifty (650+) fact check to ascertain claims made by government officials, individuals and organizations and has equally published over one thousand stories to advance its mandate (Premium Times nd. & CIJD nd.).

Impediments to Accountability in Nigeria

Despite numerous administrative, legal and institutional mechanisms put in place to instill and enforce accountability in the Nigerian, progress has been quite slight and slow. Thus, getting public sector organizations and official to account for their actions and inactions has still been very difficult. Several encumbrances hindering the effectiveness of the administrative control mechanism and accountability tools in Nigeria include but not limited to the following: *entrench corruption; weak institutional capacity; lack of/inadequate sanctions for violators; low level of civic awareness among citizens; and opaquesness in formal operations and procedures.*

Entrench Corruption in Nigeria

Corruption is inherent in all human organizations everywhere but varies from culture to culture and from place to place over time. It is public knowledge that one of the greatest challenges bedeviling almost all spheres of Nigeria's public and private sector is the pervasiveness of corruption which is responsible for deplorable state of affairs in public service delivery, accountability and infrastructure. Indulgence in corrupt acts and behaviour in Nigerian public and private spheres is no longer seen as an aberration but a norm in both public and private spheres. For instance, it is common to see members of ethnic group, or leaders of community rise in dismissing allegations of corruption leveled against their indigene serving as a public official as a witch-hunt. Even where a public official is seen spending more than his/her legitimate income from proceed of corruption most people around usually feel nonchalant about holding him/her to answer rather, he/she is usually elevated

with undeserved honours and chieftaincy titles. Corruption in Nigeria is so deeply rooted at both public and private levels to the extent becoming cultural and systemic. Theoretically Richard Joseph and Peter Ekeh Peter described Nigeria's corruption in terms of 'prebendalism' and the existence of two publics (Ekeh, 1975 & Joseph, 1987). People do not consider public corruption as a wrongdoing instead it is seen as a norm and misuse of public resources is considered to be taking a share of the national cake. Thus, the citizens do not feel strongly about demanding accountability due to the pervasiveness of corruption (Ekeh, 1975; Joseph, 1987; Ogundiya, 2009; Otisy, 2011; Salman, & Abdulrasaq, 2016).

Weak Institutional Capacity

Most institutions that are supposed to enforce accountability in Nigeria are too weak to carry out their responsibilities as expected due to numerous reasons. Poor funding, lack of financial autonomy, undue interference with the operations of institutions saddled with the responsibility of enforcing accountability are among the major conditions that have weakened their capacity to effectively perform. For instance, the judiciary, the internal audit units, the Auditor General, the Public Account Committee (PAC) and even the Audit Alarm Committee (AAC) all suffer from such conditions. Top public officials such as accounting officers (permanent secretaries) often decline to obey summons to appear before PAC or respond to queries without consequences (Akpa, 2008). The frequent political interference with the independence of the Judiciary impedes the judiciary's to be effective. There are also several instances where court judgments are not obeyed without penalties while the anti-graft agencies such as EFCC and ICPC appear to lack complete autonomy by omission or commission (Akpa, 2008 & Otisy, 2011 & Folarin, 2019).

Lack of/inadequate sanctions for violators;

Sanction and penalties met out to violators of established principles and mechanisms of accountability and administrative control in Nigeria are either out rightly lacking or inadequate to serve as deterrence to those contemplating similar wrongdoings. For instance, it common place to hear that public officials indicted of corruption (which violating the principles of accountability) are left off the hook eventually without any rational justification other than sentiments and political interest. Similarly, the outcome of numerous investigative panels on corruption and abuse of office in the legislature end up being swept under the carpet. Some of clear cases include: the probe power projects alleged to have gulped over (\$10 billion) between 199 to 2007 without commensurate improvement in power supply by the House of Representative; the petroleum subsidy probe; and the budget padding scandal among numerous cases of violations of the principles of accountability but these cases were either swept under the carpet, without penalties or sanctions meted out were grossly inadequate akin to a slap on the wrist. It is common to hear that offenders are fined a few millions for stealing billions of naira (Yunusa, 2016; Eketu, & Edeh, 2020).

low level of civic awareness among citizens; and

The low level of civic awareness/consciousness among citizens of Nigeria like many other developing countries is a major constrain to effective accountability. This is because citizens as stakeholders in the social contract between government and the governed are critical to demanding for accountability from their leaders. However in a situation where citizens are least aware of their rights including the write to hold public officials accountable the leaders will do anything and get away with it. Otisy, (2011) describes this as widespread apathy (lack of interest of citizens) as a consequence of ignorance or illiteracy which gives those in positions authority and power the latitude to do whatever the like with state machineries without fear of being held to account.

Opaqueness in formal operations and procedures

Lack of transparency in formal operations and procedures impedes accountability in the public sector. In Nigeria, it is common to hear of close contract bidding in some public establishments. The operations of state owned oil company Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) has being opaque for so many years to the extent that it is difficult for the federal government and her agencies to ascertain the actual amount of money realized from sale of crude oil over the years. The former Governor of Central Bank of Nigeria Sanusi Lamido Sanusi and federal Finance once had conflicting figures of revenue that ought to have been remitted by NNPC to the federal government, prompting the former to alert the federal government that about twenty billion dollars (\$ 20 billion) was either missing or stolen from NNPC (Oni, 2017).

Politicization of the fight against Corruption

Another major problem that is weakening the campaign for effective accountability and probity in Nigeria is the politicization of the fight against corruption by the ruling elite. The display of bias and selectiveness in the prosecution of violators by seemingly shielding politicians from the ruling party and moving against perceived opponents or disloyal individuals or groups in the fight against corruption apparently serves as a disincentive for citizens to uphold the principles of accountability. Jason (2006) in Folarin, (2019p. 389) averred that *The EFCC and the entire anti-corruption machine seem to overlook corrupt cases and corrupt persons and groups until they begin to oppose the president on his policies and personal decisions affecting governance*. Similarly, individuals indicted of corruption in public office seem to enjoy sudden soft pedaling of their cases when they decamp to the ruling party. Numerous cases of corruption against members of the ruling party are either abandoned, discarded by the court due to “lack of diligent prosecution” or sentence are waived through Presidential Amnesty. This appear to be the trend since the beginning of this political dispensation (the fourth republic) when Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) was the ruling party and EFCC was has remained the same despite the coming of All Progressive Congress as former governors, Orji Nzor Kalu of Abia State, Dariye of Plateau State, Jolly and Nyame of Taraba State standing out in recent times as beneficiaries of such politicization of the fight against corruption which ironically sabotages the attempt to uphold the tenants of anti-corruption, accountability and probity (Folarin, 2019).

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND THE WAY FORWARD

Summary

This chapter has examined the twin but significantly varied concepts of administrative control (somewhat restrictive and narrowed concept related to control of career public administrators) on the one hand and accountability in the public sector (a broader concept related to answerability of all categories public officials, public organizations and measures designed to hold them liable) on the other. The chapter began by exploring the meaning of the concept of administrative control, then highlighting the sources of power of career administrators and finally discussing the types of administrative control. Afterwards, attention shifted to the public sector accountability beginning with the meaning of the concept of public sector; the nexus between corruption, transparency and accountability; accountability and their conceptualization; theoretical perspectives to the problem of accountability in the public sector; rationale for accountability; types of accountability; administrative, legal and institutional frameworks for accountability in the public sector in Nigeria and CSOs role in promoting accountability in Nigeria. It is clear from the issues examined that Nigeria is endowed with numerous administrative control mechanisms and accountability measures in form of administrative legal and institutional machinery. Yet, achieving effective administrative control, accountability, transparency and probity in the country's public sector has remained a mirage over the years due to numerous inherent conditions impeding progress that have already been discussed here.

Conclusion

In wrapping up this chapter, it is imperative to restate that administrative control and accountability are two essential tools for restraining public officials and organizations from derailing from established standard, ethical expectations, excesses and abuse. They are also instrumental to the effective performance of public officials, public administration and actualization of *good governance* in a state. Evidence abound to suggest that Nigeria has a robust systems of administrative control and accountability in place, but has unfortunately grappled with an awful state of accountability due to inherent impediments. Nevertheless, administrative control and accountability can be made more effective in the country if these challenges are addressed to evolve a new trajectory of prudent, accountable, efficient and effective public administration machinery. This essentially requires high level of commitment from all stakeholders to address these issues.

Recommendations

In view of the inherent constraints to effective administrative control and accountability in Nigeria already noted above, the following measures are hereby suggested to address them and chart the way forward:

Vigorous, sincere and unbiased anti-corruption campaign: effort has been made by successive government to tame corruption, but lack of adequate commitment, lack of sincerity and bias have dogged the battle against the cancerous monster, Hence, to make accountability more effective, and rid the country of deep rooted systemic corruption, effort against corruption must be vigorous, sincere and unbiased to inspire confidence. Leaders at all levels must make strong commitments and lead the fight which should be spearheaded by the executive but amplified by the legislature and judiciary. The presidency must demonstrate zero tolerance for corruption by actions, inactions and posture towards allegations of corruption against close associates, family members and party members. The fight against corruption must not be politicized, no “sacred cow” should be spared.

Strengthen the capacity of institutional frameworks for enforcing administrative control and accountability: institutions saddled with the responsibility of enforcing accountability in the public service/sector such as the Internal control, judiciary, EFCC, ICPC, PAC, etcetera should be strengthened through adequate funding (adequate budgetary allocation), guaranteed financial autonomy (funding directly from the federation account i.e. first line charge) and operational autonomy (non-interference in their operation). Also crucial is that welfare of civil servants and public officials should be accorded priority to discourage yielding to wrongdoings.

Prescription of stiffer sanctions for corruption and violation of accountability standards: the way penalties are handed out to violators has over the years eroded any serious sense of deterrence. Hence, all acts of corruption and violation of standards of accountability must face severe penalties. Maximum penalties must be prescribed by law and implemented to deter individuals with similar intentions. This may require reviewing some of the existing laws (including the constitution) to ensure penalties are made stiffer to commensurate with offences. All cases of indictments must also not be swept under the carpet. This will clearly make it known to all that government is non-tolerant of corruption and violations.

Aggressive civic engagement, sensitization and education of citizens: The citizens have a critical role to play in facilitating public sector accountability but that is possible if there is civic awareness (political awareness, consciousness of the workings of government) and a strong channel of engagement with government. The level of civic awareness among citizens in Nigeria especially among the vast rural populace is generally considered to be very low. Hence, the National Orientation Agency (NOA) (the government agency responsible for citizens’ sensitization and education), Non Governmental Organisations (NGO) and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) should design and aggressively implement programmes geared towards rural advocacy, sensitization and

civic education on accountability. Although some CSOs are already engaging citizens as noted earlier but more effort is needed.

Institutionalization of transparency

Transparency is critical imperative of accountability. Citizens cannot demand answers when they are unaware, lack information or insight about what is happening in government as against what should be. We submitted earlier that accountability and transparency are two sides of the same coin and that accountability cannot be effectively achieved without transparency. Hence to improve the level of accountability in Nigeria it is important institutionalize transparency by internalizing openness in all government processes and operations. This means government must embrace openness. All government record including government finances (budget, plans, revenue and expenditure) programmes and policies should be accessible to citizens with ease.

References

- Abdulkareem, A. K. (2015). Challenges of e-government implementation in the nigerian public service. *Journal of Creative Writing*, 1(4) pp. 45-56
- Achimugu, H. and Omale D. (2021). *Public administration and global practices: Readings in public administration* (first edition). Anyigba, Prince Abubakar Audu University.
- Adamolekun, L. (1983). *Public Administration and comparative perspective*. Lagos , Long Group Limited.
- Akpa, A. (2008). *Government accounting and public finance management: Nigerian concepts and applications*. Ibadan, Spectrum Books Limited.
- Anuku, W. (June 23, 2022). *IPPIS: 720,000 public servants working at federal level – BPSR*. Daily Post, Retrieved on 18th July, 2022 from: <https://dailypost.ng/2022/06/23/ippis-720000-public-servants-working-at-federal-level-bpsr/>
- Audu, A., Ishaq, I. O. & Ifatimehin, O. O. (2019). Open Government Partnership (OGP): A viable tool for restoring public trust in government budget and budgetary processes in Nigeria. *International Journal of Intellectual Discourse*, 2(1) pp. 280-288
- Awoghem, A. (2015). 'Banks and challenges of Treasury Account Policy. Abuja, *Network Times*, September, 11 2015.
- BudgIT, (2017). Annual Report. Retrieved from: <https://yourbudgit.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/BudgIT-2017-Annual-Report.pdf>
- Benito, B. (2018). Accountability and corruption, Europe. In A. Farazmand, (Ed.), *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance* (p. 28). Springer International Publishing AG part of Springer Nature.
- Center for Journalism Innovation and Development (CJID) (nd.). About us. Retrieved from: <https://thecjid.org/about-us/>

- Connected Development (CODE), (2019). *Annual Report: Rebuilding trust in institutions- Restoring public trust in government institutions*. Retrieved from: <https://www.connecteddevelopment.org/2019-annual-report-rebuilding-trust-in-institutions/>
- Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (As Amended), With the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Alterations of 2018.
- Daily Trust (October 17, 2021). How IPPIS breeds irregularities, uncertainty in varsities. Retrieved on 18th July, 2022 from: <https://dailytrust.com/how-ippis-breeds-irregularities-uncertainty-in-varsities>
- Diamond, L. (2004). *The imperative of good democratic governance*. Washington DC, USA: Centre for Private Enterprise.
- Elaigwu, I. J. (2018). *Between the ballot box and the barracks in Africa: Prospects of enduring democracy in Nigeria*. Jos, Aha Publishing House Ltd.
- Farazmand, A. (2018). Accountability and democratic administration. In A. Farazmand, (Ed.), *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance* (pp. 36-42). Springer International Publishing AG part of Springer Nature.
- Folorunso, O. O., & Simeon, A. O. (2021). The gains and the pains of Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information Systems (IPPIS) policy implementation in Nigeria. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, 9, pp. 551-569. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jhrss.2021.94035>
- Ekeh, P.P (1975). Colonialism and the Two Publics: A Theoretical Statement. *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, 17(1), pp. 91-112.
- Eketu, C. A., & Edeh, F. O. (2020). Aphorisms on meningitis of leadership accountability in Nigerian public service. *Nigerian Academy of Management Journal*, 15(4), pp.16-28.
- Folarin, S. (2021). Corruption, politics and governance in Nigeria. In R. Ajayi & J. Y. Fashagba (Eds.) *Advances in African Economic, Social and Political Development Series: Nigerian Politics*. Springer Nature Switzerland AG part of <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-50509-7> pp. 377
- Hakala, D. (2010) in Odoh, 2011. The top Ten (10) Leadership Qualities. <http://www.hrworld.com>
- Joseph, R. A. (1987). *Democracy and Prebendal Politics in Nigeria: The Rise and Fall of the Second Republic*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- <https://bscholarly.com/causes-corruption-Nigeria/>
- Kalu, E., & Masri, R. (2019). Challenges of e-government implementation in the Nigerian public service. *International Transaction Journal of Engineering Management & Applied Sciences & Technologies*, 10(1), pp. 13-25.
- Kukah, M. H. (1999). *Democratic and civil society in Nigeria*. Ibadan, Spectrum Books Ltd.
- Macrae J. (1982). Underdevelopment and the economics of corruption: A game theory Approach.
- Molnár, S. (2007). *eGovernment in the European Union*. Budapest: European Union.
- Mensah, E. (1980). “Methodological Problem of study of corruption”.
- Mbaya, P.H (2006). Introduction to planning and planning theory. PAD 211 Lecture Notes, Department of Public Administration, University of Maiduguri.

- Mulgan, R. (2000). Accountability: An ever-expanding concept? *Public Administration*, 78(3), pp. 555–573.
- NFIU, (nd.). About NFIU. Retrieved from: <https://www.nfiu.gov.ng/Home/About>
- Otisy, K. J. (2011). Effective Corruption Control Measures in Nigeria: A National Challenge. *Policy Alert*, 4(1). pp. 280-288
- Lewin, K. et'al (1939). Leadership: “Patterns of Aggressive Behaviour in Experimentally Created Social Climate” <http://wikipediafoundation.org/wiki/special>
- Ocheni, S. I (2015). *The economics of running a state: Advanced public finance (first edition)*. Ibadan, Spectrum Books Ltd.
- Odoh, P. (2011) *Leadership good governance and democracy in Nigeria: Challenges and prospects for transformation*. Husis Digital Press.\
- Ogundiya, I. S. (2009). Political Corruption in Nigeria: Theoretical Perspectives and Some Explanations. *Anthropologist*, 11(4): 281-292 (2009)
- Otaru, A. (January 7, 2016). Impact of public service reforms: The IPPIS example: Focus. The Guardian Newspaper. Retrieved on 18th July, 2022 from: <https://guardian.ng/features/impact-of-public-service-reforms-the-ippis-example/>
- Pattanayak. S & Cooper (2015). Chart of Account: A critical elements of the public financial management framework. Technical notes and manuals (Washington: international Monetary fund).
- Premium Times (nd). About us. Retrieved from: <https://www.premiumtimesng.com/about>
- Reichborn-Kjennerud, K. (2018). Accountability and ethics. In A. Farazmand, (Ed.), *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance* (pp. 42-49). Springer International Publishing AG part of Springer Nature.
- Rose-Ackerman, S. (1998). Bribes and gifts. *Economics, values, and organization*, 296-328.
- Transparency International, (nd). <https://www.transparency.org/>
- SERAP, (nd)a. <https://fortoasis.com/serap-ng/>
- SERAP, (nd)b. List and summary of resolved cases. Retrieved from <https://fortoasis.com/serap-ng/2020/10/25/list-and-summary-of-resolved-cases/>
- Salman, T & Abdulrasaq, K. (2016). Pervasive Corruption in Nigeria Budget Systems. Retrieved from <https://m.thenigerianvoice.com/news/238043/pervasive-corruption-in-nigeria-budget-systems.html>
- Shafritz, J., M., Russell, E.W., Borick, C. P., & Hyde, A. C., (2016). *Introducing public administration: Ninth edition*. New York, Routledge.
- Torfin, J., Sørensen, E., & Røiseland, A. (2019). Transforming the public sector into an arena for co-creation: Barriers, drivers, benefits, and ways forward. *Administration & Society*, 51(5), 795-825. doi:10.1177/0095399716680057
- Ujo, A.A. (1995) *Administrative Law in Nigeria*, Merry Time Press Limited, Kaduna.

- Wegrich, K. (nd). *public sector*. *Encyclopedia Britannica*. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/public-sector>.
- Yildiz, M. (2007). E-government research: reviewing the literature, limitations and ways forward. *Government Information Quarterly*. 24(3), pp. 646-665.
- Yunusa, A. (2016). Corruption and accountability in the Nigerian public sector: an empirical discourse. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*, 3(3), 47-54.
- Yunusa, A. (2021). Impact of Integrated Personnel Payroll Information System on Employees Satisfaction in Kogi State. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*, 6(6) pp. 17-27
- United Nations, (2016). United Nations e-government surveys: 2016 E-government for sustainable development. New York, Retrieved from: <https://publicadministration.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2016-Survey/E-Government%20Survey%202016.pdf>
- United Nations, (2018). United Nations E-Government Surveys: Gearing E-Government To Support Transformation Towards Sustainable and Resilient Societies. New York, Retrieved from: https://publicadministration.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2018-Survey/E-Government%20Survey%202018_FINAL%20for%20web.pdf
- United Nations, (2020). *United Nations E-Government Surveys: Digital Government in the Decade of Action for Sustainable Development*. New York, Retrieved on 18th July, 2022. Retrieved from: [https://publicadministration.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2020-Survey/2020%20UN%20E-Government%20Survey%20\(Full%20Report\).pdf](https://publicadministration.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2020-Survey/2020%20UN%20E-Government%20Survey%20(Full%20Report).pdf)

**CHAPTER EIGHT
ELEMENTS OF GOVERNMENT**

By

Thomas Yusuf Adejo, Ph.D and Samuel Ochijenu

Department of Public Administration

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Anyigba

INTRODUCTION

Government is as old as human existence. It is an action machinery of the state. Government and governmental institutions dominate the scope of human endeavours universally. Because of this, studying government is hard and sometimes hard to understand. A student who wants to learn about government will have to deal with a lot of problems. At first, he might find out that he is studying public policy. Soon after, he might learn that his professor majored in Public Law, Public Administration, or Political Economy. When he finds out that he is studying Public Affairs and Citizenship, he will be even more shocked. More than that, he is very surprised to learn that Government is a required course in the Faculty of Management Sciences. He thought he didn't need to study Government because he was majoring in Banking, Finance, or Accounting. Policies made by the government have such a big effect on people's lives that studying them has become very important. Simon Bolivar, who freed South America, says, "We will be saddened to see that almost the whole world has been and still is a victim of bad government." The problem, according to the former president of Harvard University in the United States, is that "government even lacks the first essential of a modern science, a nomenclature that educated men cannot understand." Part of the problem with making the study of government easier is that it is seen as the study of "government," "politics," "civics," "political science," "public administration," "democracy," "military administration," etc.

How a modern state works

It's important to ask who the government is at this point. Before we can answer this question, we need to understand what the word "state" means. The State is an organization in which the government has a monopoly on the legal use of physical force within a certain territory. The state is just one of many in the same "family." It is a complicated thing with both concrete and vague connections or processes. The state is a specific type of social and cultural grouping that is defined by the way it combines political power. Simply put, an organization is considered a state if it has control over a certain part of the earth, if it has a monopoly on physical force, and if its use of power is accepted. To tell the difference between the state and the government, you need to understand how the state works. First of all, a state can't exist without a government and land, and we can't think of a state without people. People who live in a certain part of the world and agree with the government that runs that area are considered citizens or public of that area.

State's sovereignty and power

Once a state has grown, it has control over the whole area in the following way. First, its government orders all of its citizens and any people or groups that are in its territory to follow its rules. Second, you have to be born in the state to be a citizen, so you can't choose where you're from. Citizens don't have the right to say bad things about their country, and even in a liberal country like America, immigrants

can't become citizens until they meet certain requirements. This kind of forced membership is what makes the state different from other groups or governments:.

Third, the government is the only one that can legally use some forms of regulatory power. This is what makes state power different from the power held by other institutions like churches, political parties, businesses, women's groups, etc. If the state's registration law, especially the certificate of incorporation, doesn't say or explicitly allow it, these organizations' power over their members is illegal or wrong. If a state is not able to stop or punish the illegal use of physical force on its territory, it has not reached the level of power integration that is typical of a modern sovereign state. Sovereignty is the idea that comes from the way the state brings together political power. Bodin says that sovereignty is when a state has the most power over its citizens and subjects without being limited by laws. This definition of sovereignty, of state, has been criticized a lot in the modern democratic world. However, the concept of sovereignty does emphasize maximization and justify the state's unquestioned power. The modern state responds to what is going on inside and outside of it. So, there is no such thing as an all-powerful sovereign state because world powers, strong economic, military, cultural, and even citizens' interests must have an effect on the state. These are natural limits on state power. Even the most independent country can run into trouble when it tries to impose a well-thought-out policy. Stronger countries can get in the way, or the media and elite groups inside the country can be very critical.

Government as a Thought

Let's go back to the question we asked before: who is the government? Or what government is made of. In the last conversation, we said that a state is sovereign when its political power is all in one place. This statement isn't very clear because "integration of political power" is a term that can mean different things to different people. Government is the voice of authority for the state. The government is how the state makes its voice heard and gets respect for its power. So, the government is the state's agent. Government uses the power of the state on its behalf. The state is always there, but the form and structure of the government change often. This can happen through the ballot box, constitutional reforms and amendments, coups d'etat, or even popular revolutions and acts of civil disobedience by the people. The government changes, but that doesn't change the fact that the state still exists. The government is just one part of the state, but it is so important that sometimes it seems to overshadow the whole.

What is Government then? Government has been defined in different ways, such as "people in positions that are systematically related to each other" or "an administrative staff dedicated to a continuous purposeful activity of a certain kind" or "the idea of the state put into practice by real, fallible men." This means that the government is the state's agent. It is made up of the rulers, leaders, officials, officers, or employees of the state who, according to the constitution and the laws of the state, hold certain positions of power or public trust.

The people who hold office are paid for their work in the form of a salary, prestige, honors, and titles. Some people in the government are the heads of state or prime ministers, governors, chairmen of local governments, and councillors in those governments. Government officials are the people who work for and on behalf of the state.

The first government was set up in an ancient Greek city-state, where philosophers studied it. In the fifth century B.C., the Greeks defeated Persia under the leadership of the Athenians. This brought the power and great democratic government of Athens to the forefront, which caught the attention of the philosophers of Athens. Socrates was the first great philosopher. He looked at how Athens was run and questioned everything until he was killed in 399 B.C. Socrates did not write down any of his studies, which is a shame. His student Plato and Plato's student Aristotle are known as the great masters of the study of politics and government.

Plato's philosophy says that in the fifth century B.C., Athens had an amazing level of democracy and political power (B.C.). At that time, all adult men who lived in Athens took part in political activities. Citizens could run for office, and most positions were filled by drawing lots, which made it much easier for an average Athenian to get a job in government than it is today, when positions are filled by exams. The Athenians had more political power and personal freedom than their neighbors, the Spartans, who were trained to be soldiers from the time they were kids until they died. Athens was defeated in battle by the discipline of the Spartans, and Socrates was killed by the free people of Athens because he abused his freedom. Plato was a true follower of Socrates, but he got sick of democracy and turned away from Athens. He came up with one of the most radical plans for government ever put forward in any century.

The search for justice or the dialogue of justice is at the heart of Plato's political masterpiece. Plato's idea of an ideal state is one where people don't share political power but instead get it based on how good they are. Philosophers are in charge of the most important decisions in the state, and even the military is run by people with higher education. Most of the people who live there will be craftspeople and farmers. The state is run by a hereditary nobility and is an aristocracy. No matter what percentage (quota system) or gender, education and responsibility are based on proven merit. The philosopher kings of Plato must keep the basic rules of the state in place, control all levels of education, and have full power over all literature and art. Plato's idea of how a government should work is often called the Republic of Plato, which is basically a communist idea.

The Philosophy of Aristotle: For more than twenty years, Aristotle was a member of Plato's great school, "The Academy." Aristotle's father was a doctor, and he grew up during the time when the Macedonian empire was in power. Aristotle taught Alexander the Great when he was young, but he never cared about the Government of Macedonia or any other empire at the time. He was very interested in city-states, and once said that they were the best kind of community.

The end of Peloponnesian War made Sparta to lose the hegemony of Greece, and the prestige of Athens enjoyed revival. So, Aristotle used Athens as a place to talk about how a good government works. Aristotle was interested in the large number of constitutions, and he used the inductive method to talk about how the city-state should be run. He said that power in the government could be in the hands of one person, a small group of people, or the majority of the people. He insisted that in real life, there are different kinds of government that come from the different ways that the state's deliberative, authoritative, and judicial powers can be used. In many ways, these parts are like the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government today. Aristotle thought that the same people would be in charge of all three elements, just like the power of the purse gives the executive branch control over all the other parts of the government today.

Aristotle was quick to add that the best kind of government for a certain state might depend on the situation. Like in Athens, the right of political participation was extensive enough to include those who must work for their living. Aristotle came up with ways to keep poor people from getting involved in politics. For example, he said that if one person in a state was better than everyone else, there should be a royal government. He supported three kinds of government: a democracy, an aristocracy, and a monarchy. There is a prevented counterpart according to Aristotle - democracy, oligarchy and tyranny.

Aristotle said that the common good is the most important part of any true form of government. That is, "a state exists for the sake of a good life, not for the sake of alliance and security from injustice, nor for the sake of exchange of mutual intercourse." Under Aristotle's view of government, law and order were respected. This was his most important contribution to the western way of running a government.

Politics and Government

The Industrial Revolution, the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Napoleonic Wars all led to a new way of running the government. In the nineteenth century, there began a series of revolutions in transportation and communication which practically obliterated barriers of space and brought citizens of great nations closer and created awareness of public affairs. Then, everyone was thought to be equal and to have certain rights that could not be taken away by anyone, such as the right to live, be free, and look for happiness. In America, this pursuit was interpreted to mean that every white man has the right to vote. In France, the Revolution of 1848 gave men the right to vote, which was similar to what happened in England. This was made possible by the new way the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizens was interpreted in 1789. In Britain, there was a movement that tried to figure out how each proposed action would affect the happiness of everyone as a whole. This led to what was called utilitarian democracy.

Supporters of democratic government said that representative government was the only good way for large groups of people to run their own government. Democracy thus, is the government of the people, by the people, and for the people. Assumption into office through the mandate of the people or popular will of the people is the central thrust of any democratic activity. Representative Government makes it clear that competition between candidates and free elections are important for democracy to work. The separation of powers between the executive branch, the legislative branch, and the judicial branch was one of the most important parts of democratic government. The executive branch comes up with policies and sends them to the legislative branch so they can be discussed and made into laws. The judiciary explains what the law means and defends the rights of the average person. While the legislative body acts as a watchdog and keeps the executive from having too much power by using checks and balances strictly. The Constitution, which is like a bible for people who run democratic governments, is full of democratic ideas and ways of doing things. The law tells the people who run a democratic government how to act. Elections are the only way to get into office, and any attempt to take power by force is considered treason. In a democratic government, law and order are the most important things.

The government and the state

Francis Wilson wrote in 1936 that "government is the instrument of the state (and, by extension, of the people) through which the state's goals are tried to be achieved." He said this because he thought of the state as a group of people who work together to achieve certain goals. The point that is being made is that the government is only one part of how the state is thought of. Even though "government" and "state" are often used interchangeably, it is important to note that they do not mean the same thing. People might think that they are the same thing because the government is an agent of the state. But the state is a much bigger idea. The government and the people it rules over are both part of the state. When we talk about the government, we usually talk about three important parts: the legislature, the executive, and the judiciary. Each of these parts has its own job to do. The Legislature is in charge of making laws, the Executive is in charge of carrying them out, and the Judiciary is in charge of figuring out what the laws mean and how they should be used in each case. In real life, experience shows that sharply dividing the jobs of these three branches is not only bad but also impossible.

If we know the difference between the state and the government, we know that the government is the most important part of the state and does most of what the state wants it to do. But we also need to agree on the purpose(s) of a state. This is because when we look at the purpose(s) of a state, we will always have to talk about the functions of the government to the extent that government has to do with putting the purpose(s) of the state into action.

What the government is for?

Aristotle thought that the state was created for the sake of life and stayed around "for the sake of the best life." This point of view thinks of the government as a way to help people live better lives. In his

book *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1976, Adam Smith wrote that a sovereign has only three duties: (i) to protect society from the violence and invasion of other independent societies; (ii) to protect, as much as possible, every member of society from the injustice or opposition of every other member of society, or to set up a fair system of justice; and (iii) to protect society from the violence and invasion of other independent societies.

Laski is known for making a popular and well-known statement about the purpose of the state in recent years. He said that the state is a group that makes sure people's "rights" are respected so that everyone can be the best version of themselves. Laski said that these rights include the right to vote and be voted for, periodic elections, freedom of speech, press, and association, and a sense of personal security and freedom of conscience. We have freedom of religion, the right to reasonable access to the courts, and a limited right to property under this category. Rights are the parts of social life that make it possible for people to be their best selves. Without them, no one can be his best self. They come before the state in the sense that, whether they are recognized or not, they are what gives the state its power. Because of this, rights are the foundation of the state. As you can see, Laski's ideas about the end goal of the state put the state on trial in the sense that the amount of support and loyalty it gets from the people will depend on how hard it works to make the people's rights more real. For example, a citizen has the right to vote in an election and to be voted for. So, it is the state's job to make it easier for him to exercise his right by giving him the right kind of structure. If the state's election process gets in the way of what the people want, their view of what the state is for will change.

Simply put, the government is the group of people who use different agencies or institutions to run the state's political and administrative affairs. They do this by making and enforcing laws all the time to keep things in order.

The idea of "government" can be looked at from three different points of view: as a state institution, as a way of running things, or as a field of study.

As a part of the government, it controls how people interact with each other to keep things running smoothly. It controls the state by making and putting into effect laws.

As a way to run the government

- It is a process of governance because it is an ongoing activity that includes making laws, putting them into effect, and figuring out what they mean. Government is always there because anarchy can happen if there is no government in any state.

- Government is a field of study that is taught in schools, colleges, and universities.

Functions of government:

- It helps keep law and order in the state.
- It makes laws and policies.
- It provides social services for the people.
- It protects the lives and property of the people.
- It helps protect the state's territorial integrity.

- The government helps make sure that people get jobs and get along with each other.
- The government helps make sure that people in a country get along with each other. And people who live in order countries.

Government bodies

The executive, the legislature, and the judiciary are the three main parts of a government.

Legislature: the group that makes laws for the country.

- Makes laws
- Looks over and approves the executive branch's budget
- Looks over and approves the list of people who want to be ministers

- Agrees to treaties or takes an active role in making them.

- They keep an eye on what the top people are doing.

Different kinds of laws

- A unicameral legislature means that there is only one chamber of the legislature. Nigeria's states of the federation have a single chamber of parliament.

- A bicameral legislature is a type of legislature with two chambers. The lower house is the first one, and the upper house is the second one.

The executive is the part of the government that is in charge of carrying out the laws.

- Duties • Carry out laws and rules

- Come up with the national budget or spending bills

- In a presidential system, the ministers are chosen by the president, who is in charge of the government.

- Choosing diplomats and ambassadors.

The law is interpreted by the judiciary.

- Does its job • Interprets the law • Settles disputes between people, the government, and businesses in the state.

- Explain the Constitution. • Help protect citizens' basic human rights.

Makes laws that other courts follow.

What the government does

We've talked about how the government is a part of the state that helps the state reach its goals. We have also said that the purpose of the state is to help people reach their full potential by giving them basic rights. What we want to look at now is how the government works as an agent for the state. In an ideal world, the roles of government can be put into two categories: social and economic. We will use this classification to talk about it.

The political and social roles of government

i. To protect the sovereignty of the state: The government works to keep outsiders from messing with the state's territory and status. They do this mostly by building up their military power and support, as well as by keeping in touch with other countries and making friends with them. Again, the government tries to keep peace and order within its borders by passing laws that do something.

ii. The protection of the individual and his or her property. The government protects the individual from being harassed and abused, and it protects the individual's property (both intellectual and physical) from theft by people inside and outside the state. They do this by making good laws and setting up a strong security network in the state. The Nigerian government passed the Failed Bank (Recovery of Debts) and Financial Malpractices in Banks Decree No. 18 of 1994 and the Copy Right laws as bold attempts to protect the physical and intellectual property of its citizens from theft and abuse.

iii. The Guarantee of Certain Basic Human Rights: By passing laws, the government protects and expands the freedom of its people. Chapter IV of Nigeria's Federal Constitution from 1979 says that people have certain basic rights that the government must protect. They include the right to life, the right

to human dignity, the right to personal freedom, the right to a fair hearing, the right to a private and family life, the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion, the right to freedom of movement, and the right to peaceful assembly and association.

iv. Setting up a fair and quick system of justice: The government does its job of administering the state's legal code to make this happen. There are both civil laws and criminal laws. Private laws deal with disagreements between two or more people. Examples, contractual relationships, debts etc. Public laws deal with how people relate to the government. There are laws against murder, theft, and treason, among other things. The government also pays for and supports the police, the courts, and the building of prisons for people who break the law.

v. Promoting the general welfare of the people: The government does a lot of different things to help people be healthy and happy. These are part of the cultural, social, economic, and general welfare group. The government does things that directly affect the well-being of the people, like set up and fund public education, libraries, public parks, public health services, social welfare benefits for the elderly, mothers with children, and poor people, take the census, report the weather, control floods, etc.

How the government helps the economy

1. The government's main economic job is to set up a system of economic institutions that do the basic job of dividing up limited resources to meet the needs of people and groups in the community. Such economic institutions as private property, price competition, price control, fiscal policy, freedom of contract, freedom of entry, and the ways in which business is organized, directed, run, and regulated.

2. To keep unfair business practices from happening, the government has the power to regulate trade and commerce both inside the country and with other economies. It also takes steps to make sure that producers follow the rules and standards for safety. The goal of setting up a consumer protection council in Nigeria is to keep producers and manufacturers from treating customers unfairly.

3. To encourage the production of as many public goods and services as possible so that unemployment stays low and prices stay stable.

4. To make sure that prices and incomes are in line with what's best for the public.

5. The government protects people from economic disaster through minimum wage laws, help for the elderly, unemployment benefits, insurance, and programs for public education, housing, health care, etc.

6. The government is involved in providing public utilities like electricity, rail roads, and phone services.

7. The government can tax, borrow, and print money.

What the government does and how it does it/The Constitution and Constitutionalism

In every political system, whether it's a nation or a state, the roles of the government and the citizens are made clear. In some cases, these responsibilities are written down in the form of duties, rights, and obligations for everyone to see. In others, it might not be easy to find a specific document that spells out the basic rules that the state and its citizens are expected to follow. For a better understanding of how a state or government works, we will take a close look at two important ideas that drive the way government works. They are the Constitution and the idea of constitutionalism.

Scholars have never agreed on a single definition of what a constitution is. The disagreement is about how to set up the authorities that are part of a country's constitution in the right way. Some people think of the Constitution as the whole set of basic rules that govern a state. These rules are made up based on

generally understood and accepted procedures. From this point of view, all of a country's rules for how to act, such as its customs and conventions, are part of its constitution. A different point of view, like that of A.V. Dicey, says that the rules that make up a constitution must be written down and made public. Dicey wrote in his book "Introduction to the Study of Law" that a "constitution" is a document with special legal weight that explains how a state's government works and what its main jobs are. It also states the rules that govern how these government parts work. The focus is on the fact that there is a document, which means that the rules are written down.

Austin Ranny may have come up with a definition of constitution that is more widely accepted. For him, the term refers to all of the basic rules, both written and unwritten, legal and not-so-legal, that govern how a government works. This way of describing what a constitution is is important because it shows that a constitution is the basis on which a government must work. It makes no difference whether the rules are written down or not. In this way, a constitution becomes the most important law in a political system. A state's government is better able to run smoothly when it has a constitution. It helps to define what the government can and can't do. It does this by laying out in detail how political power is shared and used. It spells out the powers of each part of the government (the legislature, the executive, and the judiciary) and clearly limits them by saying when and how they should be used, as well as the relationship between each part and the people. A state's economic, social, and political goals and ideas are often written into its constitution. These kinds of statements of values are often found in the beginning of the constitution. For example, the preamble of the Federal Constitution of Nigeria from 1979 says:

We, the people of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, have firmly and solemnly decided: To live in unity and harmony as one indivisible and indissoluble sovereign nation under God dedicated to promoting inter-African solidarity, world peace, international cooperation, and understanding; and to create a constitution to promote good government and the welfare of all people in our country based on the principles of freedom, equality, and justice.

What a Constitution Has

A constitution can have a mix of different qualities. It can be written or unwritten; unitary, federal, or confederal; rigid or flexible; and it can be written or unwritten.

A written constitution is a document that was written at a certain time and place and has all the basic laws that govern how a state is run or run by. Here, the focus is on the fact that there is a specific document that defines the constitution in clear terms. Countries like the United States, Nigeria, and France have written constitutions.

A country that doesn't have a written constitution doesn't have a single document that lays out its basic laws. Britain is often used as an example of a country with no written constitution and thus no constitution. People who agree with this point of view, like Thomas Paine, say that a constitution must be a written document written by a special convention and approved by the public in special elections before it can be put into effect. Most modern scholars, though, don't agree with this difference. They said that even though it could be argued that Britain has no constitution at all, a body of constitutional doctrine and, therefore, a constitution could be found by putting together different legal and non-legal pieces. Using the Bill of Rights of 1689 and the Act of Settlement of 1701, which together establish the supremacy of parliament, as well as the Petition of Right (1628), the Reform Act (1832), and the Parliament Act of 1911, which all settled major constitutional issues, James Bryce wrote in 1901 that the debate over the status of the British Constitution is a distinction without a difference, since all written constitutions are the same. In any case, let's agree with Shaw (1963) and say that Britain has a constitution because it has some basic rules for how to run the country. However, the British Constitution is usually seen as an example of an unwritten constitution because it is not written down.

Unitary means that the national or central government has the most power over all other levels of government. Even though there may be other levels of government, such as Regions/States and Local government, they can only use their legislative and executive powers when given to them by the Central legislative or executive authority. So, a unitary constitution means that sovereignty is exercised by one source instead of by many.

With a federal constitution, power is split between the central, regional/state, and local levels of government. It divides all legislative and executive powers between a central administration and a number of regional administrations. This way, each administration would have its own area of exclusive legislative and executive responsibility and would be independent from the others in that area (Wheare: 1960). There are two important differences between a unitary and a federal constitution. In a unitary state, smaller states don't have any power over the government, but that's not the case in a federal state. The different levels of government (Federal, Region/State, and local) each have their own set of responsibilities. Second, the process for making changes to the two constitutions is different. Most of the time, a unitary constitution is flexible, but a federal constitution is not.

A constitution can be flexible or hard to change. What makes a constitution flexible or rigid is mostly the process that must be followed to change it. A constitution is flexible if making changes to it is easy and follows the same pattern as making other laws. Countries like New Zealand, Italy, and Great Britain have constitutions that can be changed. On the other hand, a rigid constitution makes it hard and complicated to change it. Wheare gave four goals for the special procedures for making changes to the rigid constitution. These are (i) meant to make sure that the constitution won't be changed quickly or carelessly, (ii) meant to give people a chance to say what they think before changes are made, (iii) meant to make sure that neither the national nor the local government can change the other's powers on its own, and (iv) meant to protect the rights of certain linguistic, religious, or cultural minorities. The Nigerian Federal Constitution of 1963 and the constitutions of Denmark, Switzerland, Belgium, and Sweden are examples of rigid constitutions because they are hard to change. In Denmark, Austria, and Switzerland, for example, all proposed changes must be approved by the people in a referendum before they can be put into place.

Constitutionalism

Constitutionalism or constitutional government is not used to talk about a political system in which a state's basic laws are written down and available to its citizens and the rest of the world. Constitutionalism may require a document called a "constitution," but its main point is that political leaders should be careful about how they use their power. In other words, constitutionalism is the idea that the government's power should be limited so that people's rights, such as free speech, free press, due process of law, personal security, and so on, are protected from being taken away by either government officials or private people.

The most important part of the description is the need to define and control how officials act so that they don't act in a careless or arbitrary way. So, "the rule of law" is similar to "constitutionalism" in some ways. More importantly, constitutional government is a good fit for countries like Nigeria that have many different national groups with different traditions. Constitution and "constitutionalism" do not always mean the same thing. In many countries, the constitution does not reflect the ideas of

constitutional government. In countries with military dictatorships, like Paraguay, Nicaragua, and the Dominican Republic, the written constitutions are often ignored. Their rules are broken, and they don't get much respect or attention.

Constitution and Constitutional Government's Key Elements

In what we've talked about so far, we've said that a state's constitution is a set of rules that says who can be a part of the state and where it can rule. It also says how the state's machinery for running the territory's affairs is supposed to work. When these rules are written down in a document, the idea of a constitution becomes less abstract and more concrete. We also said that the idea of "constitutionalism" means putting the rule of law first in how political power is used and how political order is kept. What may be left for us to do is set up the conditions needed to support the ideas of the constitution and constitutionalism. We propose five elements:

1. Sovereignty

No country or state can make a constitution or run a constitutional government, taking into account the goals and ideals it has for itself, if it doesn't have a lot of freedom or independence. As a set of rules that the people who will be governed by it agree to follow, Thomas Paine's idea that the people must consciously and deliberately set its basic rules is useful. Sovereignty, as the core of political order, is important for making laws that work. For Bodin, sovereignty meant the right to make, interpret, and carry out laws forever, as far as humans can tell. People think that this right is important for a well-run state and that it shows the difference between a more developed political body and a more primitive one. In other words, "the independence and autonomy of the state helps to make it easier for it to make rules and run its processes, given the dynamic pluralism of modern life, which rejects tradition in favor of constant change."

2. Government that lets people vote

It might not be possible for every person in a state to have direct access to the government's tools. So, we need to set up structures that will effectively control how political power is used and force politicians to listen to what the people want. Representative government has been one of the most important ways to make sure that the rights that are written into the law and that people value are actually respected. Most changes to the American Constitution, like the Thirteenth and Nineteenth Amendments, which ended slavery and gave women the right to vote, were mostly made possible by representative government.

3. Keeping power separate

It has been found that the idea of "separation of powers" is a key part of the creation and maintenance of the principles of the constitution and constitutionalism. The French Declaration of the Rights of Man says that a government without separation of powers doesn't have a constitution. This shows how important separation of powers is to any political order. Montesquieu thought that the secret to political freedom was a constitution that gave different people the power to make laws, run the government, and decide disputes. Persons or groups. Montesquieu and other supporters of the separation of powers did, however, agree that the three parts of government must work together for the government to work well. It is important to note that the degree to which this idea is accepted and used depends on the type of political system that is in place. A presidential system of government is more true to the idea of separation of powers than a parliamentary system. In a presidential system, the President, who is the head of government, and his cabinet, which is made up of ministers, are not members of the legislature. People vote for the president through a system called the electoral college. In a parliamentary system, like the one in Britain, the Prime Minister and his cabinet are also members of Congress. They not only

help make the laws, but they also help carry them out. So, in a presidential system, powers are kept separate, while in a parliamentary system, powers are mixed together.

4. Check and checks

This idea may explain why it might not be possible to completely separate powers. The idea tries to change the extreme interpretation of the structural separation of the three arms of power by allowing a small amount of interdependence between the different parts of the government. This way, each part of the government only does what the constitution says it can do.

Checks and balances are an important part of both the presidential and parliamentary systems of government. Like the British fusion of powers, the American separation of powers is not as strong as it could be. Checks and balances work in both situations. For instance, Congress makes laws, but the president has the power to veto them, which can be used again. by majorities of two-thirds in both Houses of Congress. Treaties are made by the President, but before they go into effect, they must be approved by two-thirds of the Senate. Cabinet members may have to testify in front of congressional committees, and Congress can also remove the President and judges from office. On the other hand, regulatory agencies do things that are "quasi-judicial." The courts have judicial review, and the Realist School of thought is based on the idea that what the law is depends on what the courts (judges) say it is. Shaw thinks that the founders didn't set out to make a perfect example of the Separation of Powers. Instead, they wanted to make sure that the idea could work with a system of spread out, limited, and balanced power.

5. The Law of the Land

The rule of law is a political idea that stresses how important it is for the government of a country to follow the basic laws of the country. It is the process of running the country's business. It means that all powers of government should be used in accordance with the law and never at random (Wade: 1971). In order to do this, the idea lays out three basic rules:

(i) The law is always the most important thing. By this, it means that the government shouldn't use its power in a random or arbitrary way. No one, for example, should be punished for doing something wrong unless the wrongdoing is proven in court. The government also can't take people's private property without paying them for it or having a good reason to do so, and they can't do it without following the law.

(ii) All people are equal in the eyes of the law: This principle says that everyone is equal in the eyes of the law or is subject to the normal laws of the land. Even though this principle is not absolute, it does try to make sure that everyone is held accountable before the law for everything they do or don't do. This includes people in high public office, business barons, and regular people. No one can say they are above the law.

(iii) The Constitution is based on people's rights that can't be taken away. This means that the constitution must protect and guarantee all of the citizens' basic rights. Some of these rights are the freedom of speech, the freedom to move, the freedom to gather, and the right to life and property.

State Power: Policy Development and Implementation

We argued in our discussion of Constitutions and Constitutionalisms that one of a constitution's core purposes is to create a state's machinery for administering a territory subject to its authority, as well as to

articulate some of a state's social, economic, and political ideals or goals. We submitted that this broad outline provides legal motivation for the exercise of state power. To put it another way, state power is the use of governmental authorities to achieve certain goals and values outlined in a country's constitution. Though all governments are formerly supreme, governments differ greatly in how they exercise their power in practice. Pickles (1964) observed that an absolute king is not obligated to consider his subjects' wishes. In a dictatorship, too, the government is not accountable to the people for how it wields power, even if it keeps some of the democratic lexicon and the legal framework of democratic institutions. Government in Nigeria, as in most federalist states, is divided into three levels. The federal, state, and local governments. Each level is in charge of a specific set of functions. Some functions may be unique to a level of government, but others may be devolved on an equal basis to multiple levels of governmental authorities.

Policy Establishment

The term 'policy' has been described as a course of action involving decisions with the broadest implications and the longest time horizon in the life of an organization. According to Akpan (1982), a policy is a type of law created by an organization's governing authorities to rule, guide, control, and regulate its members. It might take the formal shape of laws passed by the legislature, decisions made by a government * cabinet, boards of directors of public businesses or private companies, and even directives given by departmental authorities, among other things.

A closer look at these definitions reveals two basic ideas. The first is the scope and temporal viewpoint or element involved in a policy statement. Thus, a policy statement made by a state government to offer affordable health care and housing for all by the year 200 is an example of a policy statement. Again, a piece of policy is normally written by a qualified and legitimate authority. For example, in a parastatal, the board of directors is responsible for policy formulation for the business enterprise; in a local government administration, it is the Executive Council, which is currently represented by the Finance and General Purpose Committee (F & G). The State Executive Council has a comparable role in a state government administration, but the Federal Executive Council has the same role in a democracy. In a military regime, the Supreme Military Council (SMC), Armed Forces Ruling Council (AFRC), Provisional Ruling Council (PRC), or whatever name they select, does the same thing (statocracy).

Policy Making Procedures

The policymaking process is divided into three stages. The first is the policy formulation step. This stage of the policy process often follows the normative approach to decision-making, which outlines four separate steps: The first phase is problem identification, in which an attempt is made to express in unambiguous words what subject or issue(s) requires change or desire to be protected from change. The second stage is to provide alternatives that outline the many approaches that could be used to reach the desired objective. A third phase is a study of all the various solutions drawn out, in connection to all foreseeable intervening variables, to determine which option will accomplish the best result. / The fourth step in policy formation is the selection and implementation of the option deemed most appropriate in light of the policymakers' stated objective(s). The normative or rational - comprehensive model of decision making refers to this step-by-step approach to policy formulation.

However, policymakers do not always adhere strictly to the comprehensive process of surveying all possible choices and identifying all possible consequences due to resource constraints — lack of time, finance, information, personal limitations such as prejudice and poor conceptions of the purpose and implications of any adopted strategy. Policymakers are frequently satisfied with a satisfactory course of action without bothering to do a comprehensive review of each option. They develop a policy

after considering the most important factors. According to Herbert Simon (1976), this technique provides a fulfilling policy-making model.

The policymaker's environment is not static.

As a living system that imports and exports energy to ensure its survival, it is prone to change, some of which may be spontaneous and revolutionary. Most environments are hostile and tumultuous by nature, necessitating the deliberate and methodical deployment of methods and initiatives.

This condition necessitating care may have influenced some policymakers' strategy of taking one tiny step at a time. This process of developing piecemeal policies in response to unfolding environmental change is referred to as the incremental model of decision-making or sequential restricted comparison by Charles Lindblom (1919). In elaborating on this reality of environmental dynamism, Amitai Etzioni says that policymakers do not (and should not) necessarily commit to a certain model of policy making but periodically vary their approach or strategy depending on the situation that confronts them. He claims that, depending on the circumstances, they may use both the rational-comprehensive and incremental models at the same time. This habit of shifting approach is what he referred to as the mixed-scanning paradigm, which suggests that there should not be a single strategy for policymaking.

The policy implementation stage is the second stage of the policy process. This step relates to the actual implementation of the established choice or policy in order to attain a quantitatively superior state beyond the scenario that prompted the formulation of a specific piece of policy. In certain circumstances, the implementation of a (new) policy is handled by an already existing agency/department, although there may be a need to establish a new and permanent agency/department or a temporary organization in the form of a task force. The policy of the Anambra State Government, led by Col. M. E. Attah, to rehabilitate some of the roads in the state's urban centers and to complete the Real Estate Housing Project in Awka using task forces rather than allowing the Ministry of Works and Housing, statutorily designated for such jobs, is an example of a new policy that resulted in the creation of new agencies. Another good example is the Federal Government's decision to establish a Ministry of Women Affairs in accordance to its policy of integrating women into the country's socio-political and economic growth.

Policy evaluation is the third and last stage in the policy process. At this point, an attempt is made to reconcile the outcome of a specific piece of policy in connection to the previously established aim (s). In this way, the cost-effect (time, money, and energy) is equated with the projected program result. Where there is a significant variation, the entire exercise may have to be repeated in terms of developing new plans or policies.

Comments on the Policy Process in General

First, we must dispel a misconception regarding policy formulation. Though it is widely assumed that policymaking is the official responsibility of political executives in governmental administration, this understanding, which was probably based on a confusion of politics and administration, and a desire to keep the former out of the latter, has always been somewhat misleading or fictional. According to extant research, the policy-making process is a complex exercise involving a vast number of actors, including bureaucrats, courts, the legislature, and the executive. At various phases, relevant agencies constituted for the purpose assist the lawful power (the political executive). In Nigeria, agencies like the Nigerian Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS), as well as other government organs like the congress and the judiciary, as well as non-governmental organizations and interest groups like the National Council of Women Societies (NCWS), and the Council of Traditional (Royal) Fathers, can and do make inputs or exert influence at various stages of policy formulation. The concept of pluralist policy formulation arose as a result of the vast number of individuals involved in policy formulation. Second, in terms of policy quality, it is crucial to note that policy formulation and

execution are human activities that are conditioned and impacted by the personalities of those engaged. Cultural considerations can influence the character of the role players. According to Mead (1953), the culture within which the individual has been reared shapes the function of every part of the human body - not only in terms of diet, sunlight, exposure to contagious and infectious diseases, overstrain, occupational... hazards, catastrophe, and traumatic experience, but also by the way he, born into a society with a definite culture, has been fed and disciplined, fondled and put to sleep, punished and rewarded.

Third, a policy must be clear and explicit in order to be easily understood and implemented. A statement like "this government is committed to the establishment of a stable and meaningful government" is ambiguous. It does not specify whether it intends to seek a democratic, militaristic, or diarchical rule, as each has its advantages. Again, in terms of democratic control, is it a presidential or a parliamentary system of government? Furthermore, and more crucially, the environment in which a policy is intended to be implemented must be receptively conditioned for that policy, or conflict will be created. This friction is visible both within and between implementing organizations and target populations.

Fourth, it should be noted that the era of policy implementation is when some interest groups and individuals become aware of an existing policy and, ten times out of ten, campaign for its modification or utter rejection. It is not uncommon for a policy-making body to have some difficulties accommodating representatives and input from these organs and interest groups. However, it is still critical to have not only good consultations while developing a policy, but also to create conditions that allow a policy to be modified throughout the implementation stage.

The Legal System

According to the idea of separation of powers, the judiciary is the third branch of government. The judicial function is one of government's oldest and most lasting activities. The role of a judge has always been held in high regard. The judiciary differs from the executive and legislative arms of government in numerous ways. The executive develops policy, the legislature enacts legislation, and the judiciary interprets the law.

The judiciary does not simply interpret the law; rather, it does so only when administrative officials or individuals bring legal problems before it. The judiciary hears the facts, which are backed by exhibits, examines the evidence, interprets the law, makes conclusions, and gives judicial orders.

Typically, the judiciary is shielded from political pressures and influences. However, in most developing countries, particularly in Nigeria, the neutrality, fairness, and position of the judiciary as the last hope of the common man have been distorted as courts issue conflicting orders for and against the government with or without due process of the law. The court is simply another tool used by military rulers to ensure political conformity. In a democratic regime, the judicial process is believed to limit political expediency and to insist on fair play for all, regardless of political affiliation. As a result, the judiciary must strive for high principles such as objectivity, unquestionable integrity, great renown, and prestige. These ideas stem from the impartiality of the law, which is the court's unique responsibility to interpret and execute.

Judges are members of the judicial system.

A judge is a state official who is paid by the state to protect individuals' rights even against the state that employs him. The main role of a judge is to interpret and enforce laws. He is the keeper of the "rule of law." Three notions are frequently used to define judges in order to interpret the law with justice and impartiality. These are judicial integrity, judicial independence, and judicial impartiality. These themes describe the unique and prestigious status of judges in government.

Judges' impartiality

The judicial process requires judges to be objective and infallible in their dispensation of justice. The judges are intended to be free of any secret cults, exclusive economic classes, or social organizations in order for their judgements to be based on inspired, unbiased realities. Because judges are regarded as the common man's sole savior and hope, the level of faith and confidence given upon them necessitates total impartiality in the administration of justice. At all times, the foundation of a judge's disposition is honesty, integrity, and impartiality.

Judge independence

The concept of an independent judicial system refers to a state in which judgements are decided based on legal criteria accepted by the people rather than for the government's political convenience. This concept is also part of the separation of powers principle, which states that no other branch of government has the authority to influence judicial decisions. As an independent system, the court must be free of political concerns and influence by the president or legislature.

Thus, an independent judiciary is viewed as the essential way of providing objective and fair justice and as an integral bulwark against dictatorship.

The Seat

The technique of picking judges varies from country to country. Judges are appointed in the United States of America after the candidate has made significant achievements as a practicing attorney. A legal degree is required, but no more particular training is required. In England, judges are appointed from among the barristers who practice before the courts.

Nigerian Perspective

In Nigeria, judges are chosen from among practicing attorneys. Candidates for judgeship must have a legal degree, be admitted to the bar, and have at least ten years of experience. The customary court justices are the first of five types of judges. They do not interpret the law but rather apply customary law (they exist in the southern states of Nigeria). Their Northern equivalents are known as area court judges, and their jurisdiction is the same as that of customary court judges.

Sharia Court judges, who are all from Nigeria's northern states, apply Sharia law, often known as Muslim law. These three categories do not have to be attorneys because they have not been called to the bar.

The magistrates who preside over the lower courts fall into the fourth tier. In Nigeria, one must be called to the bar to be a magistrate, although no specific number of years of experience is required.

The superior court judges are in the fifth tier. These are the rulings of the highest courts. They are selected by the constitution from among legally qualified lawyers who have been called to the bar and have practiced as a legal practitioner in Nigeria for at least ten years. In the case of federal and state judges, the president and governor normally make the appointment based on the suggestion and advice of the federal or state Judicial Service Commission. The judges are chosen from among the most successful members of the bar (of the private or official bar). Judges have a term of up to 65 years, and if they resign after serving for more than 10 years and reaching the age of sixty, they are entitled to a salary for life and statutory allowances. In deference to the high judicial position they previously held, judges at the superior courts who are appointed may not practice before the law courts as legal practitioners. They may, however, provide legal consulting services.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

People who are born into a country by parents who are citizens of that country are generally referred to as citizens. Non-citizens in a limited or local sense, and non-nationals or aliens in international usage or applicability. In other words, a citizen is a person who is a legal member of, and owes allegiance to, the country in which he dwells, in which he enjoys full civil and political rights, and who is willing to put his life at risk in defense of its territory when the occasion demands. This concept implies that not everyone who lives inside the borders of, say, a state/country is a citizen of that state, Obi and Uche (2019).

WHAT EXACTLY IS A CITIZEN?

A citizen is someone who enjoys full rights as a member of a political society.

This could be due to birth, location, or being granted such privileges. A person is a citizen of a certain state if he or she has full legal and political rights in that state as a result of his or her status, such as birth, place of birth, marriage, naturalization, and so on. It is a natural fact that membership in any state confers certain rights, duties, and obligations on its members, who are then referred to be citizens.

The concept of citizenship is one of many relevant socio-political topics and concepts that have received a lot of attention in the modern world. This idea provides an individual with an identity within a specific society or state, as well as obligations, rights, and benefits. Being a citizen of a community or state is so desirable. It protects one's rights and privileges by preventing one from being perceived as an alien. In a globalized world, this idea appears to have a broader reach with rising rights and privileges; but, in contemporary Nigerian society, it appears to have a smaller dimension with some rights and privileges informally stripped of people having Nigerian citizenship. This regrettable circumstance has arisen as a result of incorrect citizenship application in a tribalized and intensely ethno-conscious Nigeria with diverse ethnic nationalities and thirty-six officially constituted states of the federation (Iwuagba, 2018).

WHAT EXACTLY IS CITIZENSHIP?

Citizenship is simply the sum of all the rights and privileges afforded to all members of a given state or political group.

As stated in the preceding paragraph, members of any state have certain rights, duties, privileges, and obligations. The state establishes certain rights, advantages, duties, and obligations for its citizens. 2005 (Hosking)

The terms "citizenship" and "nationality" are sometimes used interchangeably. A citizen of a state is sometimes known as a "national" of that state. However, in modern usage, the two concepts (citizenship and nationality) are distinguished in terms of the spheres of jurisdiction. For example, citizenship is commonly used or associated with domestic or municipal law, which defines and guides the relationship between the state and the individual; whereas nationality extends beyond state boundaries, and is associated with international law, which defines and guides the relationship between the individual and the states (Pocock, 1995).

Citizenship is a political phenomenon characterized by an individual's strong identification with the state, for which the state rewards the individual. For example, if an individual citizen identifies with the state by paying loyalty to the state, he must be willing to put his life at danger in defense of the state's territory when the occasion demands, and so on. In exchange, the state is required to provide adequate protection for his life and property, among other things. Appadorai (1968)

It is also possible to argue that citizenship is a concept of exclusion.

It distinguishes between a citizen and a non-citizen, for example, and may not be accorded certain privileges/rights by the state's obligation or responsibility to safeguard his and property, access to passports that allow travel, and active political involvement.

Citizenship was granted to slave masters in the ancient Greek city-state of Athens. Citizens were defined in this state as free native-born men and women to whom the concept of equality before the law and active political involvement applied. In mandamus terms, he stated that what exists in Nigeria is an ethicized view of citizenship. In his examination of the diseases of the citizenship question, he has adequately expressed the dilemma as follows. "To be acknowledged as a "indigene," one must be a "native," and to be accepted as a "citizen," one must be a "indigene" (Nisbet, 1983).

CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION

Both the 1960 independence constitution and the federal republic of Nigeria's republican constitutions of 1963, 1979, and 1999 allow numerous avenues for acquiring citizenship in Nigeria. For the purposes of this course, we will look at the provisions of the 1999 Nigerian constitution concerning the acquisition of citizenship. According to the 1999 constitution, there are three basic routes to obtain Nigerian citizenship. These methods include birth registration and nationalization.

ACQUISITION BY BIRTH: According to the constitution, anybody born in Nigeria before the day of independence is a citizen of Nigeria. In addition, either of his parents or either of his grandparents must be from a Nigerian indigenous group. If none of his parents or grandparents were born in Nigeria. It is still part of the provision that any person born in Nigeria after the date of independence whose parents or grandparents are Nigerians automatically becomes a Nigerian. Furthermore, any person born outside of Nigeria whose parents are both citizens of Nigeria automatically becomes a citizen of Nigeria. And this provision allows children born outside Nigeria or in any other region of the world to become citizens of Nigeria, even if the child is born by chance or illegitimately. It should be noted that the specific element of "either of one's parents is a citizen" was the basis that enabled Alh. Shugaba to win his case against the then-minister of internal affairs, when he (Alh. Shugaba) proved that his father was a Chadian citizen and his mother was a Nigerian citizen of the Kanuri tribe. This acquisition through birth is also seen through the lens of 'JUS SANGUINIS,' which translates as "the law of blood" or "citizenship by descent." The view here is that any child born to parents who are citizens of the same state is a citizen of that state, whether or not he or she is born inside the state's territorial authority. For example, a child born in Liberia to Nigerian parents is automatically a Nigerian citizen. The second aspect is 'JUS SOLI,' which translates as "the law of the soil or place." It is stated here that any child born inside the geographical authority of a state is immediately a citizen of that state, regardless of the citizenship of the child's parents. The fourteenth amendment to the United Declares Constitution, which states that "all individuals born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States in which they live," is an example pertinent here. The third aspect is birth aboard a registered ship.' A kid born on board a registered ship becomes a citizen of the state in which the ship is registered. This is regardless of its parents' citizenship. **ACQUISITION BY REGISTRATION:** A person can be registered as a citizen if the president is satisfied that he is a person of good character who has demonstrated a clear intention to leave Nigeria and has taken an oath of allegiance contained or prescribed in the 7th schedule attached to the 1999 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. The key here is that the registration clause applies only to any woman who is or has been married to a Nigerian citizen, or to any individual of full age and ability born outside Nigeria, if any of their parents (i.e. grandparents) is a Nigerian citizen. This clause has a feminine or feministic aspect in that it excludes spouses and exclusively covers wives. **ACQUISITION BY NATURALIZATION:** The constitutional provision here states that any person may apply to the president for the grant of the certificate of naturalization, and the president may grant it provided that the person has shown a clear

intention of his desire to leave in Nigeria, or the person is in the opinion of the governor of the state where he or she is to leave permanently and has been assimilated in (Raphael, 1970).

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE GRANT OF A NATURALIZATION CERTIFICATE

There are several circumstances that must be met (present) before a person can be granted citizenship, particularly through naturalization, and these factors include:

Willingness: There should be (the zeal) willingness in the person desirous of becoming a citizen of any country, not just Nigeria. Any person may have spent several tenths of years in a place, but he cannot be granted citizenship until he expresses an interest in becoming a citizen of that state. In other words, a person who want to be granted citizenship must demonstrate a strong desire to do so.

Full-age: Of course, the person must be of full age, and this is largely determined by what a specific state refers to or interprets as "full-age." In other words, it varies from country to country. In Nigeria, for example, the voting age is considered to be 18 years or older.

Residency requirement: This specifies that the would-be citizen must have resided in Nigeria or a similar territory for a specified number of years. It differs from country to country. In the United Kingdom, for example, the residency requirement before being given a certificate or naturalization status is one year. It is five years in the United States of America. Switzerland has a twelve-year residency requirement, while Nigeria has a fifteen-year residency requirement.

Moral etiquette is a major concern for nearly every government. It would be absurd for any state to open its doors to people of doubtful character as an applicant. States are adamant about this, and it has always been reflected in a section of their constitutions. Section 25(2b) of the federal republic of Nigeria's constitution, for example, states unequivocally that no person shall be eligible to seek for the issue of a certificate of citizenship unless he convinces the president that he is a person of good character.

Acceptance: The prospective citizen must be accepted and integrated into the way of life of the people in the area where he wishes to live. He may be able to contribute to the Nigerian people's development, advancement, and well-being.

Language: Many states, but not all, require that the applicant have a decent command of the local language. Of course, this is natural because it might be difficult for a person to understand or interact successfully with another citizen. The concept of citizenship's horizontal dimension emerges here.

Oath of allegiance: All states need prospective citizens to take an oath of allegiance to the state. Again, section 25 (2f) of the federal republic of Nigeria's constitution requires such an applicant to swear an oath of loyalty to the Nigerian state as specified in the 7th schedule attached to the federal republic of Nigeria's 1979 constitution. This criterion typically includes the requirement to renounce previous citizenship and allegiance to another state.

CITIZENSHIP FORFEITURE OR WITHDRAWAL

Citizenship that can be withheld, denied, or forfeited is not that which you were born with. In most situations, citizenship by naturalization may be denied later, as it follows that "what the state grants, it may also take away." This could be the case for a variety of reasons, including: • If the naturalized person is found to have violated the terms of his or her citizenship through naturalization. If he continues to exhibit the same behavior, the state's image may suffer as a result of his grant. Furthermore, Section 29 of the 1999 Constitution states that "the president may deprive a person other than a person who is a citizen of Nigeria by birth or registration of his citizenship if he the (president) is satisfied that such a

person has been sentenced to imprisonment for a term of not less than three (3) years within a period of seven years after becoming naturalized." This will undoubtedly violate the earlier sworn fidelity oath.

- If the person is seen to be supporting or committing his loyalty (for example, during a period of war) to an allegedly Nigerian opponent. One of the bill of rights' clauses considers the "right to life."

Right to life: The constitution expressly states that every individual has a right to life and that he or she shall not be purposefully deprived of his or her life expectancy in the course of carrying out a criminal offense for which he or she has been found guilty in Nigeria. It should be noted here that there are exceptions where a person's death should not be considered a deprivation of life.

Personal liberty: the bill of rights' liberty provision ensures everyone's freedom from arbitrary arrest, questioning, and incarceration. It also deals with self-incrimination. A criminal may so remain mute when questioned or refuse to answer a criminative question. This clause also ensures "**WRITE OF HABEAS CORPUS.**" Which of the following is a legal remedy for being wrongfully imprisoned? The writ of habeas corpus is issued to gain the release of someone who has been wrongfully imprisoned or detained by police, or to order the person holding him to bring him before court to explain why he is being kept. This document is used in administrative law and as a tool for judicial review of administrative detention.

The right to property is guaranteed by the constitution to everyone, yet there is no absolute right to own property. In other words, after paying "fair" compensation, the government can take ownership of or acquire property from an individual. And because just compensation is defined by the value of the property, the constitution allows the person unfettered access to the court to determine how much compensation to be paid. This is the "**EMINENT DOMIAN**" power that the government has over personal or community property.

Human dignity: The constitution also guarantees the right to human dignity to all citizens. This right is protected against torture and other cruel or humiliating treatment. Under this article, citizens have the right not to be enslaved or forced into slavery. This right also protects citizens from forced or obligatory labor. It should be mentioned that there is a significant difference between legitimate and forced labor. The national youth service corps system (NYSC), for example, is not to be regarded as forced or obligatory labor, but rather as lawful labor.

The right to a fair hearing is likewise guaranteed by the constitution. This clause ensures that an accused individual receives a fair hearing in a reasonable amount of time by an independent and impartial court or other **TRIBUNALS** authorized by law. This fundamental right to a fair hearing specifies that due process of law must be followed in a person's trial. Other provisions of the bill of rights that protect citizens and groups include: the right to private family life, freedom of expression and the press, freedom of peaceful association and assembly, freedom of movement, and freedom from discrimination based on religion, tribal/ethnic origin, gender, political opinion, and so on. All of these rights are guaranteed and discussed in the federal republic of Nigeria's constitution.

Limitations on these rights: Just because citizens have an inherited, inalienable, and natural right to life does not mean that they cannot be deprived of it under certain conditions. For example, a person found guilty of heinous crimes like as murder or treason and condemned by a law court could legitimately forfeit his right to life. In other words, the fact that you have the right to life implies that everyone else does, and one is not expected to survive if what one does is constantly hurting other people's lives. There are also limitations or exceptions to the human person's right to dignity. Certain people are compelled to work here, particularly in the implementation of a law court's sentence. In times of disaster or calamity, for example, community labor is frequently required for the general good/well-being of all.

- If a Nigerian gives up his citizenship in order to obtain or acquire the citizenship of another nation. The concept of compulsory or voluntary forfeiture comes to the fore in this case. This is a rare instance in which a citizen by birth may be deemed to have lost its citizenship. This voluntary renunciation is called or referred to as "expatriation" in the current body of literature.

DUAL CITIZENSHIP

Dual or multiple citizenship usually occurs when a person is born in a state that follows the 'jus soli' to parents who are citizens of a state that follows the 'jus sanguine'. It can also happen when a woman marries a citizen of another nation and preserves her own citizenship while acquiring her husband's through marriage. This is especially true if the receiving country does not insist on renunciation of previous citizenship.

LIBERTY IN CIVIL LIFE: Individual persons' civil freedoms can be described as the right to do whatever they want without infringing on the rights of others. Civil liberty is defined on page 230 of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English as the right of all citizens to do anything they wish while respecting the rights of others. Again, the Nigerian constitutions provide comprehensive and thorough provisions for civil liberty. These clauses comprise the Nigerian constitution's "**BILL OF RIGHTS.**" These rights are meant to allow Nigeria to function as a true democracy. The same LDCE (Dictionary), page 115 defines a bill of rights as a written statement of the most essential rights of citizens. People with ailments may be avoided and restricted or confined to a place to avoid such afflictions being spread to others in order to prevent the spread of certain diseases (communicable). Similarly, a mad person who has a proclivity to harm others if allowed to socialize or mix with others may have his or her freedom of movement restricted. In circumstances of crises/conflicts that necessitated emergency rule, a dusk to dawn curfew was implemented as a precautionary measure for the stated time. These and other restrictions on people's rights are what we always see.

CITIZENS' DUTIES AND OBLIGATIONS TO THE STATE

Duties or obligations refer to the responsibilities that each person has to his or her state. Citizens are supposed to have specific obligations to the state as a result of being awarded certain rights/privileges. A citizen, for example, is supposed to prioritize the interests of the state over all other considerations. This is the basis for determining who is a true citizen. A loyal national or citizen prioritizes the interests of the state before his or her own. Jean Jacques Rousseau's general will is based on the notion of subordinating individual interests to public goals in order to actualize and maximize individual interests throughout time. Any individual who prioritizes his or her personal interests over those of the state is a "demagogue" and an adversary of the state.

• Prompt payment of taxes by residents

- Obedience to state laws/traffic regulations • Defense of the state's territorial integrity, i.e. against internal and external opponents

- Exercise one's franchise during elections;

- Protect public/state property and avoid vandalism or damage;

- Uphold the respect and dignity of the state; and

- Respect the state's symbols and symbolism, such as the national flag and national song.

We outlined the three primary groups of rights that a citizen is expected to enjoy as a member of a given society in the prior theme, under fundamental human rights. These are some examples: 1. civil liberties 2. financial rights 3. political liberties These rights are briefly explained below.

Citizens' rights

Civic rights are the rights that allow a citizen to participate in and exercise his or her societal functions. Citizens' civic rights include the ability to 1. be employed based on their capacity or qualification. 2. be able to take part in governance 3. freely express their views on governance 4 join the armed forces for the protection of Nigeria's territory. 5 represent their country in various aspects such as sports, defence, and foreign missions

Economic rights

Economic activities are the wheels of progress of any society. As a result, citizens have rights to participate in the economic life of their nation through various activities. Some of these activities include: 1. Keeping viable and lawful occupations. 2. Forming business enterprises. 3. Engaging in commercial activities. 4. Operating large or small scale industries. 5. Participating in any lawful economic ventures within and outside the country.

Political rights

One of the major rights of the citizens of a country is the right to participate in the political activities of their nation. Under this category of rights, one is entitled to 1. vote. 2. contest for a political post. 3. belong to a political party of their choice. 4. go to a political rally. 5. complain, or petition an action of the government. 6. form political allies and opinion groups, etc

CITIZEN OBLIGATION

Obligations are also duties expected of a citizen. Obligations emanate from one's conscious effort to do things for the benefit of others. One lives within a community in a state that forms a component of the nation or country. Therefore, one's obligations are to the community, state and the nation As in rights, there are also three main categories of obligations. These are: 1. economic and financial obligations 2. civic and political obligations 3. social obligations

Economic and financial obligations

Economic and financial obligations involve the assistance that one can render for the progress of one's immediate community, state or nation. The assistance can come in any of the following ways: 1. Donating to the cause of the destitute. 2. Building and equipping schools, hospitals, etc. 3. Construction of roads, bridges, etc. 4. Committing resources in creating jobs and viable enterprises.

Civic and political obligations

Citizens are expected to participate in civic and political activities of the nation. Obligatory civic and political activities are not forced on citizens, but one is expected to exercise such privileges willingly Civic and political obligations include: 1. Belonging to a political party. 2. Taking up employment with the government. 3. Assisting the law enforcement agents with useful information, when necessary. 4. Participating in environmental sanitation in one's area. 5. Voting and ensuring that others vote during an election.

Social obligations

There are also different social obligations that citizens carry out, depending on their abilities. These requirements range from the simple to the complex The social obligations of a citizen include: 1. Assisting the elderly, the physically challenged, the destitute, and the elderly. 2. Taking care of public utilities by making optimum use of them. 3. Establishing and participating in non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or community self-help groups. 4. Participating in and supporting national games festivals, as well as other activities of this nature

There are also different social duties that people have to do, depending on how well they can do them. These responsibilities range from the easy to the hard. The social responsibilities of a citizen are: 1. Helping people who are weak, have physical problems, are poor, or are old. 2. Taking care of public utilities by using them in the best way possible. 3. Creating non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or community self-help groups and joining them. 4. Taking part in national games, festivals, and other events and helping to fund them.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The purpose of the government is to help and serve the people of a country. The government's main job is to provide for, protect, and serve its people. The field of public administration was made so that the government would be held accountable and work well. It gives citizens a way to make sure that the government is being held accountable. What is meant by "public administration"? "In public administration, civil servants carry out a policy within the limits of an executive framework set up by the government. Public administrators make sure that all federal, state, and local public services are offered and carried out so that the future can be set up for success." The hardest thing about working in public administration is making sure you are held accountable and do what is right, not what is popular. First, leadership and management in public administration are one of the most difficult things to deal with. It is hard to find a public administrator who will do what is right and fair. Not only that, but it's almost impossible for a public administrator to make everyone happy because everyone has different plans and wants. Next, a public administrator must be fair, firm, and consistent. These are the most important parts of public administration. A public official must always be fair and can't play favorites, because that would lead to dishonesty and a drop in trust. This can make it hard for the organization to do its job.

Public administration can be both a way of doing things and a way of learning about things. As a field of work, public administration is the study of how and where government policies are carried out. As a field of study or an academic discipline, public administration is the study of the ways and structures that the government puts its programs into action. This more recent meaning, as a field of study, can also be called a principle or a philosophy. In both senses of the word "public administration," this chapter looks at some of the basic ideas and methods that are used to manage and study government policies and programs. By doing this, we hope to introduce first-year political science students to this unique part of the field.

What is management?

Administration is something that everyone does and is important to everyone. It is said to start when two people agree to work together to do something that neither of them can do alone, like move a stone. Another author who said the same thing in a different way said:

Administration is... something that has to be done whenever a piece of work needs to be done that requires the work of more than one person. Administrative behavior is when we work with other people to get things done, like building a town hall, building and running schools, churches, hospitals, cars, and assembly plants. So, administration exists whenever people work together to reach the goals of their groups. To do this, they need to plan, organize, give orders, work together, and keep control. It involves getting people and things together, putting them to use, and telling them what to do so that the goals can be reached. From this point of view, it's clear that administration is a very old and worldwide phenomenon that exists even in the most basic group of people. So, we could say that administration is the ability to coordinate and carry out many different and often conflicting social needs in a single body so well that they all work as a single unit. As the details below show, more and more definitions and explanations of administration point to the fact that it is both public and private.

Also, the word "administration" can also be used in a different way. This is in the sense that the word "administration" is used to mean the top people in the government's executive branch. People talk about the "Shagari Administration," the "Babangida Administration," the "Abubakar Administration," etc. in this way. No matter how you use the word "administration," it has a long history that goes back to the beginning of human history. Research has shown that administrative tasks and practices have been around since the beginning of written history. There are signs that the old practices and experiences of the ancient Egyptians, Chinese, Greeks, and Romans, as well as the Christian Church and the German Cameralists of the Middle Ages, led to the modern systems of government we have today.

The long history of how administration has changed has contributed to the never-ending debate about what public administration should be and how it should work. What should be the subject of the essay? What's the difference between public and private administration? The next part of the chapter is about these two different things. But first, let's look at the difference between public and private administration.

CONCEPT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is just like any other kind of administration that serves the public. Before we go into more detail about how public administration works, it would be helpful to look at how different authors have tried to explain what administration is. Marx says that administration is action that is planned and carried out with a clear goal in mind. What one wants to happen is for things to be set up in a planned way and for the right amount of resources to be used. Frederic K. Lane says that administration is putting together and taking care of the people and money that a group needs to reach its goals. But it's hard to give a full definition of public administration because it covers so many different things. Some academics say that all work that has to do with the government falls into this category, while others say that only the executive part of how the government works is public administration.

Public administration has been called many things, including a subset of political science or at least its offspring, a formalized process of government, and even a subject looking for a discipline. Public administration is a process that has existed as long as there have been governments. As a field of study, it is mostly an American idea that came from the movement for government reform in the late 1800s and the scientific management theories of Frederick Taylor and others. It has deep roots in the way public policy is made and used.

Waldo (1955) says that public administration is the organization and management of people and resources to achieve government goals. (Public administration is the art and science of management applied to state affairs.)

On the other hand, the meaning of art has changed over time and depends on the situation. Anything can be art, and the term continues to change. Art has been defined as a way to express or communicate emotions and ideas, as a way to explore and appreciate formal elements for their own sake, and as a form of mimesis or representation. On the other hand, the Science Council defines science as the pursuit and application of knowledge and understanding of the natural and social world using a systematic method based on evidence.

After defining the key ideas, the paper has set up a solid basis for figuring out if public administration is a science or an art. There are many authors who argue and defend strongly that public administration is, in fact, a science. Lorenz von Stein and Woodrow Wilson, who had been president of the United States, were the first. Frederick Taylor and the well-known scholar W.F. Willoughby both

said that public administration is a science because it has basic rules that can be used in many situations (Ekeh, 1989).

The fact that the scientific method is used in public administration is one reason to say that it is a science. Any field can be called a science if it can be studied using the scientific method. The scientific method can be used to study public administration because its "facts" can be studied scientifically. The scientific method is based on building a hypothesis and gathering facts to test it. This method can also be used in public administration. Its facts can be seen, analyzed, connected, and put together. Hypotheses can be made, and facts can be changed to prove them.

Critical examination is another reason to say that public administration is a science. Evidence needs to be looked at and analyzed critically for any scientific study to be valid, and this can be done in public administration. Cohen says, "The man who has an eye for facts, whether about people or rocks or anything else, asks." "Is that so? And the question "Can it be proven?" is the heart of science, as long as the scientist follows the critical methods of proof and verification.

As a science, public administration also has a body of knowledge or theories that can explain or predict things that happen or change. Theories and ideas in public administration are based on empirical research that is done in a systematic way. Not only can these theories be used to explain the art and practice of public administration, but they can also be used to improve it (Bautista, 1990).

As was said before, science is, at its most basic, the systematic study of knowledge. People who think of public administration as a science point out that the day-to-day running and managing of states is based on a set of very clear and specific rules. They say that these principles are very sound, make sense, and can be found and looked at in the same way. Pfiffner said that "specialists in public administration have reached a high level of agreement in how they think about problems in administration that tend to be the same no matter what kind of service is being done." So, it is said that public administration has gotten good enough to belong in the same family as the physical sciences. This is because it has a clear field and enough data that can be used to find facts. There is also a fair amount of certainty in public administration principles. For example, all countries have constitutions, which are sets of rules, laws, and basic rights that govern how things work. Almost everywhere in the world, the idea behind all of these laws is the same, so it can be said that the study of Public Administration has scientific elements.

After making the case that public administration is a science, we will now talk about the art side of the field. An artist or poet who is born to be one is not a gifted artist. You can learn art. The best natural talents can be shown off best through training. Without training, even the best artist would die unknown. Public administration is also a skill that can be learned. With the right training, the smartest people become the best leaders. A true artist is someone who can do amazing things by putting together and combining things that are already there in a way that makes them look good and is useful. In the same way, public administrators have done great things for their countries. For example, Bismarck and Machaiveli were both skilled public administrators who changed the course of their countries because of their skills (Stein, 1952). So, it is true that the skill of the public administrator determines the success of any government program.

Art is the practical use of systematic knowledge. It's not just a bunch of theories, just like public administration isn't just a bunch of theories. A public administrator can't be successful just by reading about things, because the best way to learn is by doing. Urwick has said, "You can't buy administrative skill. There are no tips, shortcuts, or hints. It must be paid for with the only currency available on the market: hard study and hard thinking, mastery of intellectual principles, and real problems that the individual is responsible for. So, running a government is both an art and a fine art. As an art, public administration requires creativity, leadership, and a good sense of the things that can't be seen. In the

end, public administration is a detailed and organized way to apply the law (Prof. Wilson, 1997). Waldo (1980) says that it is the part of government that is always doing business and is in charge of putting the law into action, as made by legislative bodies or other authoritative agents and interpreted by the courts. This is done through the organization and management process. The paper explained in detail why public administration is both an art and a science. Based on these points, the paper came to the conclusion that public administration is a science in theory and an art in practice.

We can also look at how different authors have defined public administration:

L.D. White says that public administration is all the things that are done to make sure that public policy is carried out or enforced. Woodrow Wilson, on the other hand, said that public administration is a detailed and organized way to carry out the law. One could also say that public administration is just the policies, practices, rules, and regulations in action. Now, can public administration be separated from social and political systems? No, and so F.A. Nigro came up with another definition: public administration is basically a group effort in a public setting where people work together. Second, it includes all three parts of the government: the executive, the legislature, and the courts. He also said that since public administration is such an important part of making policies, it is also a part of the political process (for e.g. Bills and Acts). Negro also said that public administration is different from private administration in many ways and that it works with private groups and individuals to help the community. Also, there have been two common ideas about what public administration is and how it works. One is the Integral view, and the other is the Managerial view. The integral view is all-inclusive and includes all managerial, clerical, technical, and manual tasks and all levels of employees. L.D. White and Dimock both agreed with this point of view. It could be different from one agency to the next, depending on what they do. On the other hand, the Managerial view says that public administration is only about management, as the name suggests. Simon, Smithburg, Thompson, and Luther Gulick all agreed with this point of view.

The Basics of Running a Government

Public administration has often looked at questions of formal organization as a way to improve efficiency and make things better. Most people believe that administrative problems can be fixed at least in part by reorganizing. Some organizational ideas came from private business and some from the military. They include, for example: (1) organizing departments, ministries, and agencies based on common or closely related goals, (2) grouping like activities into single units, (3) equating responsibility with authority, (4) ensuring unity of command (only one supervisor for each group of employees), (5) limiting the number of subordinates who report to a single supervisor, (6) separating line (operating or end-purpose) activities from staff (advisory, consultative, etc.) activities. Some critics have said that these and other public administration principles can only be used as rough guidelines for a given organization. They think that organizational problems are different and that rules don't always work the same way in different situations. Even so, and despite the fact that studies of organizational behavior have become much more complex over the years, principles like those listed above still hold true. The way the government is run has also put a lot of pressure on its employees. Civil service reform has been a part of administrative reform in most countries.

Throughout history, the trend has been toward "meritocracy" having the best person for each job, having exams to get in, and choosing and promoting people based on their skills. People are paying more attention to things besides intellectual ability. These things include personal attitudes, incentives, personality, personal relationships, and collective bargaining. The budget has also become a key tool for planning future programs, setting priorities, managing current programs, connecting the executive branch with the legislature, and building control and accountability. The struggle for control over budgets has been going on for hundreds of years, especially in the West. At times, it was the main thing monarchs and their subjects did together. The modern executive budget system, in which the executive

makes suggestions, the legislature decides how much money to spend, and the executive keeps an eye on how the money is spent, started in Britain in the 1800s. During the 20th century in the United States, the budget became the main way that lawmakers kept an eye on the administration, the executive controlled departments, and departments controlled programs below them. It has done the same thing in a lot of developing countries around the world.

Administration, both public and private

Usually, administration happens inside an organization, like a church, mosque, school, university, company, or government department or agency. Even though some of the groups are known to be public organizations. Public organizations are those that work to help the government or the state reach its goals. Some of these groups are ministries, corporations, companies, and government agencies. Most of the time, public sector organizations are set up to help people for free or at a low cost.

People often use the term "private sector" as a catch-all phrase for organizations that are neither owned by the government nor run specifically to help the government reach its goals. Some examples of these are companies like Lever Brothers Plc, Mobil Nigeria Plc, Texaco, United Bank for Africa (UBA), etc. that are privately owned or listed on the stock market. Humanitarian groups and groups called Non-Governmental Organizations are also privately owned organizations (NGOs). Administration in public and private organizations is different in a number of important ways, which we will talk about below:

i. The "Whom Does It Help?" Principle: Public organizations are supposed to work for the good of the whole public. So, the public as a whole is the main beneficiary of any public organization, no matter what it does: for example, National Electric Power Authority (NEPA), Nigerian Telecommunication Plc. (NITEL), or Lagos State Water Corporation. With the exception of humanitarian groups like the Red Cross, the Red Crescent, and advocacy groups like Civil/Human Rights Organizations, the main goal of private administration is to make as much money as possible or reach other goals of the owner(s) or group (s). In the end, the owner or private group is the one who benefits most from the private organization.

ii. Pay attention to service or Profit: Making money is the main goal of for-profit organizations. So, management in these kinds of organizations is about managing people and things to reach private goals, which are usually to make as much money as possible. In public administration, this is not the case. Service to the public is the main goal of public administration. Even when the government sets up businesses that do things like provide electricity, phone service, and transportation, the main goal of these businesses is to provide service. Profit is not the most important thing.

iii. Accountability and how to measure success: Individuals and groups usually start and fund private organizations. When it comes to private organizations, the owners are in charge of the management, and their success or efficiency is usually measured by how much money they make.

Public organizations, on the other hand, are usually set up by laws or orders from the executive branch of government. The organizations' goals should reflect the needs and hopes of the people they serve. Also, public funds are used to help public organizations. Public officials who run public organizations have to answer to the public for these reasons. The parliament, the press, and even regular people have the right to look into what these public officials are doing to make sure the public good is being served and that resources aren't being wasted. It's also important to note that while it's easy to measure how efficient a business is by how much money it makes, this is not the case in most public organizations. In fact, it is not possible to figure out how profitable some of the services public agencies offer are because of how they work. Also, in order to help the public, the government often takes on projects that don't make money or gives services for free.

iv. Complexity: Some people think that public administration is more complicated than private administration. The reason for this point of view is that public agencies have to deal with more different requests from the public than private organizations do. For example, public administration has to meet demands for fair treatment of citizens, representation of different parts of society, and efficient service delivery. There are too many of these requests to handle all at once.

v. Organizational Procedure: The way government organizations handle administration is much slower than the way private organizations do it. This is what people mean when they say that government agencies have too much red tape. For example, in public agencies, it usually takes a long time to hire, promote, and punish employees. People also have to wait longer for public organizations to do what they want. The need to make sure people follow the rules and protect public money is a big reason why procedures take so long.

The similarities between public and private administration

Even though they are different, public and private administration have some important things in common. In both public and private administration, people and things need to be brought together and used well to reach certain goals. Administrators in both the public and private sectors have to regularly look at their goals in light of the resources they have. Even though making money is still the most important thing for private businesses, they are also being told to treat their employees fairly and think about how their work affects the community they serve and the environment in which they operate. For example, oil exploration companies are now being told they need to do more to help the communities where they work grow and improve.

Many private organizations have grown very large, and many businesses get money from the public through the Stock Exchange. These companies are run by professionals who are not the same people who own shares in the company. For example, the UACC, Lever Brothers, and other companies are run by managers who may or may not be shareholders in the companies. Because of these changes, administration in the private sector has become more complicated and is sometimes characterized by "red tape," just like in the public sector.

In recent years, governments have started to use a lot of management techniques that were once only used by private businesses. The government is using private management practices because the world is changing, especially because technology is changing so quickly and the government bureaucracy can't keep up. Some of these changes are also caused by the setting in which public administration happens. Under the "ecology" of administration, we can now look at these environmental factors.

The Leadership and Followership Question from Nigeria's Point of View

We've said that the government's power is used to achieve specific goals set out in a country's constitution. In order to carry out this duty, state governments have found that they need to set policies that help them work toward the country's goals. This is a common thing to do in Nigeria, where policies are made to tell the government what to do. One might wonder how well the government has done in coming up with and putting its policies into action in terms of consistency and results. We'll use two examples to show what we mean.

Nigeria's foreign policy goal is to make Africa the most important part of it, and the country has been working on this goal for a long time. Most African countries, like Namibia, Angola, and post-apartheid South Africa, have won their freedom because of her help in the liberation struggle. Nigeria is also in the lead to help Liberia and Somalia get back to peace and normalcy. So, both what the country says its foreign policy goals are and what it actually does seem to be in line with those goals. On the economic front, section 16 (1) (a) of the 1979 Federal constitution said that "the State shall control the national economy in such a way as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom, and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice and equality of status and opportunity." But we have all seen government policies like regulating, de-regulating, re-regulating, and guided de-regulating exchange rates and economic policies come back together. The supposed desire for better welfare conditions was met with threats of layoffs, salary cuts, "death trap" roads, dry taps, and claims that "telephone services are not for the poor." In the end, the answer to the above question is a value judgment. From what we've talked about so far, it might be clear that we need to change how we think about the question of leadership and followership in Nigeria.

Here, we argue that the root cause of Nigeria's problems needs a new kind of diagnosis. Instead of blaming every problem on the oversight or nearsightedness of the leader at every level, we think it's time for a new way of looking at the problem. People often think that if the chairman of a council, board, or statutory corporation is good or bad, the whole unit is, too. This is a mistake called "displacing or reducing." Even though we shouldn't make fun of any leader, Nigeria needs to see that their leaders are both products of and victims of their country's environment. This environment includes all of the Nigerian public's psychic, actuarial, social, and response tendencies, whether they are shown individually or as a group.

So long as Nigerians don't realize that flattery, cynicism, and reckless persuasion are pushing the raw material of leadership out of shape, in the wrong direction, and against its nature, and until they're ready to fix this problem, it's hard to get them to move from turpitude to glory. If Nigeria's problems are to be fixed on every level, a combined micro-macro therapy must be tried, in which both the behavior of the individual as a unit and the behavior of the group as a system must be treated. Taking one away from the other is like taking a molded block out of a whole building. The survival of one depends on the survival of the other, and the way they are built makes them a single unit.

ANALYZING NIGERIA DEVELOPMENTAL CHALLENGES IN PERSPECTIVE VIEW OF THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT

Scholars like (Makinde, 2005; Babawale, 2007; Nnabuife, 2010; Yunusa, 2009; Itah, 2012; Gberevbie, Shodipo, and Oviasogie, 2013) who have written about Nigeria's development have shown that there are many obstacles to the country's growth. For example, Makinde (2005) says that the biggest problems with Nigeria's development are forcing policies on people, not having enough people or money to carry out plans and policies, being corrupt, and not having leaders who can be trusted. This is based on the idea that Nigeria's problems with national development are caused by policies that aren't carried out well and a lack of reliable human resources. He also said that most of the policies of developing countries are forced on the people. The government makes these policies without taking public opinion or the needs of the target population into account. As a result, the general public does not have a chance to help make policies that affect their well-being. So, Nigeria's development is limited by a lack of human resources or capital to carry out these plans, which is caused by the low quality of human development in the country.

Human development, which is the average quality of life and standard of living, put Nigeria at number 152 out of 187 countries in a 2014 report from the United Nations Development Programme. The Human Development Index for Nigeria is 0.381, which is below the level that should be there. So,

when the terms of certain governments end, there is no continuity in policies. He also said that corruption is a problem all over the world, but Nigeria is caught in the web of corruption. Funds that are supposed to be used to put policies into action are often stolen, which hurts the whole country. Also, development is hard when there isn't trustworthy leadership that can see and talk about the specific needs of the people.

Dike (2010) added to what was said above by saying that leadership has become a problem for development in Nigeria. He thinks that most people who call themselves leaders don't really understand that being a leader means taking responsibility for some important things. Because the leaders aren't doing their jobs well, there aren't enough checks and balances in place to keep government officials and institutions in line. Politics is seen as a "do or die" situation because of this, and ethical politics is pushed to the side. In line with what was said above, Gberevbie, Shodipo, and Oviasogie (2013) said that the poor leadership structure in Nigeria is caused by the lack of accountability and transparency in the way public affairs are run in the country.

The wrong evaluation of policies that have been put in place is also a problem for development (Itah, 2012). Most policymakers don't look at the goal-achievement gap factor. This means that policymakers often don't look at how well certain public policies are working. This is because most leaders come up with plans that are too complicated and hard to carry out in the short time they are in office. Because of this, most plans for national development are usually dropped at the end of these terms, and the next government doesn't pick up where the last one left off. This explains why many projects in these developing countries have been left unfinished. Poor management of public funds and a lack of accountability and transparency, among other things, have also slowed down development.

Using the globalization point of view, Nigerian leaders should look at how other independent and sovereign states in the international system come up with their policies. They should make sure that the people are at the center of plans for national development. People should be involved in the planning process so they can give input on what matters to them and give ideas on how to make those things happen. Politicians should look at how far they are from reaching their goals so they don't make promises that won't come true during their time in office. Policies should be consistent and stay the same so that there aren't always a lot of abandoned projects in Nigeria. So, Nigeria's leaders need to learn to build on projects that are already in place instead of giving up on them to start new ones for political parties and other personal reasons. Nigeria's voting system should be changed so that leaders can be chosen in a free and fair way. Local and new industries should be supported by the government with all of the incentives they need to grow the economy, since they are the key to technological and industrial progress in nation-states.

INFLUENCE OF SEERS DEVELOPMENTAL POSITION ON THE STATE OF NIGERIA

Having looked at the developmental theory, its prepositions, its strengths and weaknesses, its usefulness, and how it explains the situation in Nigeria, we can say the following. The researcher thinks that in order to better understand the social factors that development theorists agree have slowed down development in Third World countries, it is important to use the theory of one of these theorists to understand these factors. In this light, Dudley Seer's theory is looked at as one part of the development theory.

Seers (1969) says that poverty, unemployment, and inequality are signs of development if they go down over time. This means that development has happened if poverty, unemployment, and inequality go down over time. Then, it's likely that people's standard of living has gotten better, so it's clear that economic progress is important. Seers thought that the real goal of development was to get rid of poverty, make more people literate, and improve the health system, not to make more money per

person. He said that there are three important questions that need to be asked before anyone can talk about development.

What's going on with unemployment?

What's going on with inequality?

This means that there is development when all of the above variables are going down, but there is no development when they are going up.

RELATING NIGERIA'S SITUATION WITH DUDLEY SEER INDICATORS OF DEVELOPMENT

Poverty

Seer says that a drop in the number of people living in poverty is one of the most important signs of progress. Poverty is not being able to meet a certain minimum standard of living. Poverty isn't just a lack of basic needs like food, clothing, shelter, and water; it's also a low GNP per capita. (NBS, 2014) says that 65.5% of Nigeria's more than 180 million people live in poverty. This means that one out of every two Nigerians lives in poverty, which has a high chance of becoming absolute poverty. People in absolute poverty have a low standard of living. Food is the most important thing they buy, and they spend about 80% of their income on it, compared to only 20% in developed countries. Dudley Seers' development indicators show that Nigeria is not developing, since 70% of the population is poor and 35% lives in absolute poverty. The physical quality of life index (PQLI) tries to measure a country's quality of life or well-being. The number is the average of the basic literacy rate, the infant mortality rate, and the quality of life expectancy at age one for three states. It was made to fix the problems with using GDP numbers to measure well-being. Nigerians' health is getting worse for a number of reasons, one of which is that more women, babies, and children are dying. This was reported in the 2008 Nigeria National Human Development Report.

Unemployment

Nigeria is a developing country with a high unemployment rate. This is because the industrial sector hasn't grown as fast as the labor force, which has caused urban unemployment to rise. There are educated and active young people looking for jobs, but there aren't any. Information shows that we are in a crisis, with youth unemployment at 60%, university graduates making up 25% of total unemployment, and the formal sector only creating 7% of jobs for all those in the labor force. Also, 66 percent of Nigeria's citizens, especially educated youth, live below the international poverty line, making just \$1.70 a day or \$300,000 a year, compared to Libya's \$12,000 a year or Malaysia's \$8,000 a year.

Nigeria's unemployment seems to be going up every year, which is different from its neighbors, most of which have far fewer "resources." Most of the unemployment is in big cities like Lagos, Abuja, Ibadan, Kano, Port Harcourt, etc. Nigerian unemployment numbers don't just include uneducated people who live in rural areas and lost their jobs because agriculture isn't being mechanized and incomes are going down. They also include some highly educated people, who would normally be the most productive people in a developing country. In other words, even by European and American standards, many unemployed Nigerians who are poor are well educated and skilled, but don't have jobs. A quick look at the UNDP's Human Development Report 2007/2008 shows that Nigeria has an HDI of 0.470 and ranks 158 out of 177 countries that were studied. Using the Dudley seer theory as a measure of development, we can say that Nigeria is not really developing right now because unemployment is still high, the number of people living in extreme poverty has gone up, and the number of poor people has also gone up. Nigeria

Inequality

Nigeria Human Development Report 2009 showed that inequality in Nigeria has stayed high and is one of the highest in the world (0.49). It also showed that 65% of the country's assets are owned by 20% of the population. The UNDP-NHDR also showed that between 1985 and 2004, the gap between rich and poor in Nigeria grew from 0.43 to 0.49, making it one of the countries with the most unequal societies. Even though Nigeria has a lot of resources, many studies have shown that it is one of the most unequal places on earth. Nigeria is one of the most unequal countries in the world because of how poor it is.

Dudley Seer's theory of development doesn't fit with what's going on in Nigeria right now because there is a disconnect between growth, reducing poverty, and human development in Nigeria. High inequality makes it hard for poor people to take advantage of growth. How and what things grow (low employment elasticity, that is, employment not keeping pace with growth expansion of labour force) In contrast to other emerging economies, the structure of the economy hasn't changed (dominance of primary production, weak farm-factory linkage, disconnect between finance and real sector) Changes in social indicators have been slow.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The paper has looked at the elements of government, with a focus on the state and government, characteristics of government, constitution and constitution development, public administration, citizenship education and public opinion, developmental theory, and challenges of development in Nigeria in relation to developmental theory. These problems include people not being involved in making policies, not having enough money or people, corruption, and not having leaders who can be trusted, among others. Also, Nigeria's economy isn't as productive as it could be, given its potential for significant growth. Nigeria's ability to employ its own people also seems to be getting worse, despite the fact that the country can make money from producing and selling oil. Concern about inequality is high in Nigeria, and this has led to a number of redistribution programs that focus on reducing poverty and giving women more power. The paper comes to the conclusion that for development to happen, the challenges listed and anything else that could get in the way of development in the country need to be taken care of. It's important to remember that development isn't just one thing; it's multifaceted and happens over time. To reach what Dudley Seer called "development," Nigeria needs to come up with an economy and development strategy that does the following:

- i. Keep a strong and focused focus on economic growth that benefits everyone;
- ii. To get rid of the problem of underdevelopment in Nigeria, we need the political will, as well as discipline, consistency, and continuity, which will give us an unstoppable push toward development.
- iii. Employment must have no effect on how income is shared or reduce the difference between people's incomes.
- iv. The government should do more to involve the general public in making and carrying out policies. Policymakers are told to use a "bottom-up" method. This can be done by letting a lot of people know what they plan to do, what they are doing, and what they won't do to meet policy goals.
- v. Make sure that the poor, especially, have better access to social services and good infrastructure.
- vi. The government also needs to be more serious about the fight against corruption. That is, the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission and the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission should be given more freedom to do their jobs without being stopped. Also, people who do wrong should be hit with harsher punishments. The government should really focus on creating jobs and wealth. When creating jobs, the quality and number of jobs are very important for development.
- vii. Use policy to protect the poorest or most vulnerable people or groups. All of these things are necessary for growth to lead to a fast reduction in poverty and inequality, but promoting transparent, responsible, and accountable governance is the only thing that is enough.

- viii. Accountability and openness should be the country's main goals in everything it does. There must be economic growth or the average income must keep going up. The government should make it easy for people to invest a lot. Investment is still one of the most important ways to improve people's lives in Nigeria.

REFERENCES

- Abbot, L.D. (1947): *Master Works of Government*, Garden City: Digests of Plato's Republic and Aristotle's politics.
- Achike (1980) *Groundwork of Military Law and Military Rule in Nigeria*. Enugu: fourth Dimension Publishing Company Ltd.
- Ackerman, N. W. (1958). "Social Role and Personality" in *The Psychodynamics of*
- Adeyemo, F.O. (2002) *Dynamics of Nigeria's Foreign Policy, 1993-1998* (Lagos: Franc-Soba Nig. Ltd).
- Adigbuo, R.E. (2005) "Nigeria's National Role Conceptions: The Case of Namibia", a Ph.D Dissertation in the University of Johannesburg, South Africa.
- Adigbuo, R.E. (2007) "Beyond IR Theories: The Case for National Role Conceptions" *Politikon*, 34 (1) pp. 83 – 97.
- Akpan, N. U. (1982) *Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Longman Nigeria Ltd.
- Aluko, O. (1981) *Essays in Nigerian Foreign Policy* (London: George Allen and Unwin)
- Appadorai, A. (1968) *The substance of politics*, London: Oxford University Press, p. 47.
- Azikiwe, N. (1961) *Zik: A Selection from the Speeches of Nnamdi Azikiwe* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press).
- Backman, C.W and Second, P.F (1968) "The Self and Role Selection" in Gordon, C. and Gergen, K.J. (1968) *The Self in Social Interaction* (New York: Wiley).
- Balewa, A.T. (1964) *Nigeria Speaks* (Ikeja: Longman).
- Beasley, R.K., Kaarbo, J., Hermann, C.F. & Hermann, M.G. (2001) *People and Processes in Foreign Policymaking: Insights from Comparative Case Studies* (Malden, MA & Oxford: Blackwell Publishers).
- Belarusian and Ukrainian Compliance with the Nuclear Non-Proliferation
- Black's Law Dictionary (6th edition) St. Paul, Minn: West Publishing House (1891-1991).
- Bryce, J (1901) *Studies in History and Jurisprudence Vol. 1* New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, T.I. (1936): *History of Political Philosophy, Plato to Burke*. New York: The Ronald Press Company.
- Ekpekurede, W. and Umukoro (2010) *Political Science-An Introduction*. Nigeria: AMBIK Press
- Field, G. (1963): *Political theory*, London: University Paper Back, pp.74-75.

- Flechtheim, O. K. (1952): Fundamentals of Political Science. New York: The Ronald Press Company.
- Foster, M.B. (1942): Master's of Political Thoughts, Plato; Aristotle, Cicero, and St. Augustine.
Boston: The University Press.
- Hitchen, D. (1975) Modern Government. New York: Doddy, Mead and Company.
- Hobbes, J. (1914): Laviathan, London: Evergreen Library.
- <http://studylecturenates.com/approaches-to-international-relations-traditional-modern/>
- Laski, HJ. (1935): The State in Theory and Practice Princeton: Allen and Unvin Press.
- Lindblom, C (1968) The Policy Making Process New Jersey: Princeton Hall.
- Maclier, R.M. (1948): The Web of Govnment, London: MacMillan Publishers.
- Mead, M (1953) The concept of culture nnd Psychosomatic Approach in Contribution Toward
Medieval Psychology. Vol. 1. New York: The Ronald Press, pp. 377-378
- Mosher, F.C. (1968): Democracy and the Public Service. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Nwabueze, B. (1992) Military Rule and Constitutionalism,
- Obilade, A. (1979) The Nigerian Legal System. London Street & Maxwell Publishers.
- Ojo, A. O. (1973): Political Science and Government of Nigeria, Oyo: Ilesanmi Press & Sons.
- Olisah, M. (1990) Government for schools, Onitsha: Africana Feb Publishers Ltd.
- Seidman, H. (1975): Politics Position, and Power: The Dynamics of Federal Organization (2nd ed.)
New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ukwu I. Ukwu (1984) Managing Government Bureaucracy, A public lecture series No 1. Anambra
State of Nigeria, August.
- Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1992) Springfield, Mass: G and C. Meviam Company

