

Public Administration Primary Lecture Notes

Definitions of Public Administration

Public Administration is the organization and management of men and materials to achieve the purposes of government. Public administration is the art and science of management as applied to the affairs of the state. (Dwight Waldo)

According to Gerald Calden, Public Administration:

- Public Administration is a cooperative group effort in public setting
- Covers all three branches, executive, legislative and judicial and their interrelationships.
- Has an important role in the formulation of public policy and is thus part of the political process
- Public Administration is more important than, and also different in significant ways from private administration
- As a field of study and practice, has been much influenced in recent years by the human relations approach
- Is closely related with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community

Brian Fry: Public administration is policymaking. But it is not autonomous, exclusive or isolated policy making. It is policy making on a field where mighty forces contend, forces engendered in and by the society. It is policy making subject to still other and various policymakers. Public administration is one of a number of basic political processes by which this people achieves and controls governance.

David Rosenbloom: *Public administration is the action part of government. The means by which the purposes and goals of government are realized. PA as a field is mainly concerned with the means for implementing political values. It can be best identified with the executive branch.*

It differs from political science in its emphasis on bureaucratic structure and behavior and its methodologies. It differs from administrative science in the evaluative techniques used by non profit organizations are considerably less constrained in considering public interest in their decision making structures and the behavior of their administrators.

According to Raul de Guzman: From a very broad perspective, public administration may be viewed to refer not only to those activities in carrying out or implementing the policies and programs of the government but also to the process and contents of these policies and programs. From an even broader perspective, public administration may refer to cooperative human action whether within the public bureaucracy, the private sector or in NGOs aimed at delivering services to the people.

Source: "The Study of Public Administration in Perspective: A Passing Review of the Discipline" by Dr. Danilo Reyes in UPNCPAG Reader

Public administration has experienced constant, almost periodic episodes of re-examination in the course of its struggle for academic acceptance.

Public administration: an eclectic field, interdisciplinary: methodologies and techniques of organization theory, sociology, anthropology, economics, law, business administration and psychology.

Understanding public administration: expansion of the concept-study of institutions limited to the executive branch to the dynamics of administrative processes in the legislative and judicial departments; internal affairs and operations of government to impact of government administration on the public; operations of government to one that has become a distinct field of study.

Definitions of Public Administration: Simon, Smithburg and Thomson (1950): “influenced by the Wilsonian tradition, activities of the bureaucracy and executive branch that includes the implementation of public policy and maintenance of government. Public administration to the activities of the executive branches of national, state, and local governments, independent boards and commissions and other certain agencies of a specialized character”.

Leonard White (Introduction to the Study of Public Administration, 1926) The composite of all laws, regulations, practices, relationships, codes and customs that prevails at any time in any jurisdiction for the fulfillment and execution of public policy.

Waldo: *The art and science of management as applied to the affairs of the state*

Nigro and Nigro: Public administration focus on the client, importance in the role of public policy and is thus part of the political process, interrelationship of the executive, legislative and judicial, providing services to the community.

Integration of various fields of public administration: the use of managerial, political and legal theories and processes to fulfill legislative, executive and judicial governmental mandates for the provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segments of it (Rosenbloom)

Its purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with the society it governs, as well as encourage public policies more responsive to social needs. It seeks to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness, efficiency and fulfillment of deeper human requisites of the citizenry (Henry, Nicholas) – focus on the responsibility of public administration to society, community’s response to social problems which require collective and not individual resolution through some form of public intervention.

There are no core issues but no core theory, justifying itself and to the bigger community in general.

French magistrate Alexander Tocqueville, May 1831 – study of the American penal system. In his work-Democracy in America 1835 and 1840, emphasis on the inner workings of American democracy and its viability of its system of government. Public administration was not taken seriously as a subject for study; public administration is limited to oral and traditional terms.

President Andrew Jackson-democratization of jobs in the civil service, open to all segments of society. Jacksonian democracy-federal positions are regarded as simple operations, public employment as a reward rotated among citizens on the basis of their political loyalties. In 1881 Charles Guiteau failed to secure an appointment for a consulship in Paris and assassinated President James Garfield.

Emergence of the progressive movement-led to the professionalization of the civil service with the passage of the Pendleton Act of 1883-the institution of merit system in the civil service.

1887: Woodrow Wilson “The Study of Administration” – the separation of politics from administration and developing a science on administrative practices

The politics/administration dichotomy was acknowledged by Leonard White’s “Introduction to public administration” in 1926

Frank Goodnow’s “Politics and Administration: A Study of Government” politics is the expression of the will of the state while that of administration with its execution

1930s: the application of scientific process to the administrative process

Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick’s PSODCORB (Planning, Organizing, Staffing, directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting) from “Papers of Public Administration”

Other studies: William Willoughby’s series – “The introduction to the study of government of modern states” (1919); “The reorganization of the administrative branch of government” (1925); and “The principles of public administration” (1927).

Scientific principles to work methods and the one best way approach of doing things by Frederick Taylor: less wastage and inefficiency at the shop room level. The objective is to increase predictive values to account for the fluid nature of the administrative phenomena.

Herbert Simon: “The Proverbs of Administration” advocated a systems theory built by Barnard’s “Functions of the Executive”. According to Simon, decision making was at the heart of the managerial process, POSDCORB did not epitomize the real managerial function. Incisive studies of the decision process, which would later be reincarnated in studies of public policy making.

Gaus: “Reflections in Public Administration” focus on ecological factors, administrative systems cannot limit themselves to the internal perspectives of public organization, but must equally address the environment in which they operate, the theory of public administration means in our times a theory of politics also.

Public administration as political science – focus on the political process

Public administration as an eclectic field

Psychologists began to offer new perspectives in understanding the behavioral dynamics of administration.

Sociology: bureaucracy contains dysfunctions expressed through a reward system that encourages conformity to precision and rules

Public Choice model: adoption of economic theory in decision-making and operations of research based techniques.

Thomas Kuhn: “The structure of scientific revolutions” (1962) – the notion of paradigms: an accepted model or pattern of approaching and explaining phenomena shared by a community of scholars. An accumulation of anomalies would result in the identification of a new paradigm. Affected public

administration in establishing the character of the discipline. It made the discipline self conscious, integration of thoughts accumulated in the order of paradigms.

New Public Administration-1968 Minnowbrook conference at the Syracuse University

Public Administration attention to policy issues and concerns-policy analysis. In the 1980s, through privatization, total quality management and contracting services – reinventing government.

Source: “Paradigms of Public Administration” by Nicholas Henry

The development of each phase may be characterized by locus or focus. Locus is the institutional “where” of the field, e.g. the bureaucracy, while Focus is the specialized “what” of the field, e.g. principles of administration. When one has been relatively sharply defined, the other has been relatively ignored in academic circles.

Paradigm 1: The Politics/Administration Dichotomy 1900-1926

- Goodnow-“Politics has to do with policies or expressions of the will while administration has to do with the execution of these policies”
- Locus-public administration should center in the government’s bureaucracy
- Public administration was a clear and significant sub field of political science and political science departments are places in which public administrations train
- Analytical territory between public administrators and political scientists-emphasis on organizational theory, budgeting and personnel.

Paradigm 2: The Principles of Administration (1927 to 1937)

- Willoughby-Certain principles of administration were there, that they could be discovered and that administrators would be expert in their work if they learned how to apply these principles. Essential expertise in the form of administrative principles.

2.1 The Challenge 1938-1950: Chester Barnard – “The Functions of the Executive”

- Politics and administration could never be dichotomized and principles of administration were logically inconsistent
- Simon- (Administrative Behavior 1947) that for every principle of administration advocated in literature there was a counter principle, then rendering the very idea moot

2.2 The Reaction to the Challenge (1947-1950)

- Simon: Pure science of administration based on social psychology and prescribing for public policy based on political economy both approaches are mutually reinforcing, development side by side
- Public administration is faced of retooling to become a technically oriented pure science that might lose touch with political and social realities in an effort to cultivate an engineering mentality for public administration
- Public administration to retain their linkages with political science, their conceptual connection to the public policy making process, public administration considered the black box of that process, the formulation of public policies within the bureaucracy and their delivery to the polity
- Lyndon Caldwell-called for the intellectualized understanding of the executive branch rather than knowledgeable action on the part of public administrators

Paradigm 3: Public Administration as Political Science (1950-1970)

- Public administration as a field, area of interest of political science
- A survey conducted in 1972 of the five major political science journals of a non-specialized nature that only four percent of all the articles published between 1960 and 1970 could be included in the category of bureaucratic politics

Paradigm 4: Public Administration as Administrative Science (1956-1970)

- As a paradigm, administrative science provides a focus but not a locus. It offers techniques that require expertise and specialization, but in what institutional setting that expertise should be applied is undefined
- Administration was administration; there was no distinction between public, business and institutional
- Henderson-organization theory was the overarching focus of public administration
- Rise of organization development-opening up organizations and self-actualization offered tempting alternative for conducting research
- Public administration is thus a sub field of administrative science rather than political science still no character to speak of
- As a paradigm, administrative science cannot comprehend the value of public interest without a sense of the public interest; administrative science can be used for any purpose

Paradigm 5: Public administration as public administration (1970 onwards)

- Use of organizational theory and managerial science
- Evolving locus and focus – distinction between public and private sphere appears to be waning. Public administration concerned with policy science, political economy, and public policy making process and its analysis and measure of policy outputs
- Public Administration prepared to built an institutionally autonomous educational curriculum
- Public Administration is rearing away from political science
- Public administration must borrow and redefine in its terms the concept with the methodologies and bureaucratic focus in administrative science. This can be achieved only in institutionally autonomous academic units free from the intellectual baggage of political science and administrative science

Source: "The Study of Public Administration in the United States-the eminently practical science" by Richard Stillman

1. Public administration based on the radically anti-statist political tradition
2. No specifics on the function and powers of the civil service in the US Constitution
3. But based on a social contract, Calvinism-human nature is sinful, so that no one can be treated with power for very long
4. Madison: "Ambition must be made to counteract ambition"
5. Anti-statist tradition: protestant moral uplift and democratic idealism, product of its pilgrim tradition, experimentation of variety of local reforms, building the concept from the ground up, any top down rationalized administrative way of thinking was inconceivable, not based on positive law tradition
6. Two most important works- (Politics and Administration 1900 by Goodnow and Principles of Scientific Management 1911 by Frederick Taylor: adoption of rational managerial methodology)

7. Growth of Public Administration related to the rapid expansion of democracy in all phases of public life
8. Public administration seems to transform itself into a new construct every generation

I. POSDCORB Orthodoxy (1926-1946) planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting

- Lead theorists: White and Gulick
- Methods: generalist management and functions of POSDCORB
- Event: The Great Depression and WW2
- Values: POSDCORB principles rooted in economy and efficiency as well as the politics/administration dichotomy
- Dealing with depression and war time issues
- Learning the management functions of POSDCORB
- Contributions: birth of the field, creation of the American Society of Public Administration (ASPA) and Public Administration Review (PAR)

II. Social Science Heterodoxy

- Lead theorists: Dahl, Simon, Mosher and Price
- Methods: applying ideas from economics, politics, history and other social sciences
- Event: cold war and prosperity at home
- Applied rigorous interdisciplinary perspectives promoting institutional effectiveness
- Dealing with national and international issues of the cold war
- Contribution: infusion of social sciences, global influence, expanded views and ideas about the field

III. Reassertion of Democratic Idealism (1968)

- New public administration and Public Choice scholars
- Event: Vietnam, Watergate, fear of bureaucracy
- Methods: training in numerous administrative techniques, concepts and technologies
- Minnowbrook and Ostrom (1968)
- Two Es and 1 L: in addition to economy, efficiency and effectiveness there is ethical and economizing, L stands for legal
- Dealing with ethical, legal, oversight control issues of the bureaucracy
- Contributions: new ideas of law, economics, implementation, analytical methods, growth of the field

Legacies:

- Clashing of moral absolutes between Minnowbrook and public choice thinking
- Cry for relevancy: both Minnowbrook and intellectual crisis-attacking old orthodoxies are irrelevant for addressing the pressing problem of the late 60s and 70s. There were new concepts such as public management, public affairs and public policy
- Decline of generalist Public Administration education and research in major universities, they shifted to becoming policy schools with their professional associations and journals
- Proliferation of sub fields and techniques: as specialization grew, new sub fields emerged, other functional fields came about, e.g. criminal, justice, health, public works
- Field in intellectual crisis: with the combination of declining status, increasing specialization and faddishness in the study of PA, what is defined as public became more problematic
- Widening gap between theory and practice: the academy devoted more of itself on theory with limited response to practice

IV. *The Refounding Movement (1989 to present day)*

1. Event: US as the last global superpower, end of cold war, fall of the Berlin wall
2. Values: in search of new legitimacy, conceptual framework of values
3. Fundamental rethinking of basics like PA's legitimacy and purpose

Six identifiable clusters:

- *The Reinventors*: Osborne and Gaebler (Reinventing Government, 1992) building an entrepreneurial spirit in government, challenge old style bureaucracy, free market methods
- *The Communitarians*: academic sociologists-Selznick, Galston and Chrislip, administrative arrangement to nurture moral ties of family, strengthen bonds in neighborhoods and workplace, encourage wider citizen participation, public service
- *VPI reformers*: Virginia Polytechnic Institution, focus on administrative science, Wamsley, Bacher – a stable place for public administration within a statist society
- *Interpretivists*-emphasis on the study of ontology and phenomenology: explore, interpret values, assumptions, ideas of human existence
- *The Toolmakers*: quantitative, analytical methodologies were applied to the study of public administration and in the understanding and implementation of government programs, e.g. Urban Institute: Beyond Privatization by Solomon which analyzes various tools of service delivery, evaluation of cost and benefits of alternatives
- *New Bureaucratic analysis*: deals on the political issues of PA, relationship between politics and administration, role of ethics in administration, policy process in line with public needs and public interests

Public administration will remain dominated by its unique brand of inductive, experimental reformist mindset closely interconnected to the practicalities of coping with the inadequate needs of democratic governance

US administrative sciences have to steadfastly persist at being open to change, elusive in change, pragmatic in content, servant of democracy

US adaptability to deal with immediate public demand is its greatest strength

Source: Chapter 2 Administrative Traditions. "The Transformation of Governance" by Donald Kettl. Baltimore, Maryland: The John Hopkins University Press.

Administration is about organizing people to do complex jobs. Public administration is about organizing people to do complex jobs in pursuit of a broader, government defined interest. It is in short, about applying the public interest to the management of work. Public administration is paradoxical, caught between citizen's antipathy toward government and their insistence on government services and protection.

The Hamiltonian Tradition: Alexander Hamilton made a forceful case for a strong executive – a case in fact, he often made so strongly that he stirred anger among many political leaders. Three basic principles drove Hamilton's view on public administration: independence, power and responsibility. He recognized that the law as passed by Congress bound the executive branch. He also strongly believed that the executive needed independence in implementing the law. Within its own sphere, the Constitution gave the executive freedom of action.

In essence, Hamilton was making two points; one was the need for separation of powers. And two powerful legislature could thwart the government just as could a too powerful executive. He embraced the notion of balance to counter this danger. The other was the need for delegation. *Once Congress passed a law, Hamilton believed, it needed to allow the executive flexibility in determining how best to administer it. He recognized that one of the most important roles for the executive was concentrating the expertise required to administer the law.* Hamilton's third basic principle, in addition to independence and power, was responsibility. This was his argument about keeping administration accountable and preventing it from becoming too powerful. If the executive were to be empowered to act independently of Congress, it would also ultimately be subject to its oversight.

The Jeffersonian Tradition: The threat of abuse of power – especially executive power, hung heavy for Jefferson. For Jefferson, power came from the land and from the people. Hamilton distrusted popular rule from the land and from the people. Hamilton distrusted popular rule out of its fear that it would retard commerce and industry. When Hamilton proposed the creation of a national bank, Jefferson fought it by thinking that the bank would encourage speculation and undermine agriculture. Jefferson was a staunch advocate of the limitations on federal power embodied in the Tenth Amendment. Jefferson venerated the nation's agrarian roots.

Jefferson believed in local government, a strong legislature and popular control. Jefferson argued for limited government. He wanted to keep as much power in the people's hands as possible. If government needed to exercise power, it ought to be state and local governments, he argued, not the federal government. He championed federalism because it established the predominance of state governments in the American system. The foundation of society he believed ought to be individual liberty. Government's foremost responsibility was to promote that liberty. Accountability in the system had to come from the bottom up.

The Madisonian Tradition: Madison was the architect of America's balance of power system and thus a designer of tactics that Americans used for centuries to keep an uneasy peace between the conflicting Hamiltonian and Jeffersonian forces. Madison argued that it is evident that each department ought to have a will of its own. To prevent a gradual concentration of the several powers in the same department he contended that the key lies in giving to those who administer each department, the necessary constitutional means and personal motives, to resist encroachments of the others. The provision for defense must in this, as in other cases, be made commensurate to the danger of attack.

Ambition must be made to counteract ambition. You must first enable the government to control the governed; and in the next place, oblige it to control itself. Separating government powers provided dual checks, through the legislative and judicial branches, on executive power. The basic political features of the system – the institution created to exercise government power and how to balance power among them.

The Wilsonian Tradition: It is getting harder to run a constitution than to frame one. Wilson argued that there should be science of administration, which shall seek to strengthen the paths of government, to make its business less unbusinesslike, to strengthen and purify its organization and to crown its duties with dutifulness. Wilson believed that administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics, administrative traditions are not political questions.

He argued that public administration could be made stronger and more effective by borrowing the best practices from administrators around the world. It could be made more accountable by separating administration from politics, empowering administration to follow political direction and making administrators ultimately responsible policy makers. In making this argument he sought to resolve the field's dilemma. Separating administration from politics could free administrators from political interference in their work and thus enhance administrative efficiency. Separating politics from administration could strengthen the ability of elected officials to oversee administration and thus enhance accountability.

	Wilsonian Bureaucracy centered	Madisonian Balance of Power centered
Hamiltonian Strong executive/top down	Centered on executive Principle: Strong executive function Top-down accountability Hierarchical authority	Centered on non-bureaucratic institutions Principle: separation of powers Focus on political power Top-down accountability
Jeffersonian Weak executive/ bottom up	Centered on local control Principle: weak executive with devolved power Bottom-up accountability Responsiveness to citizens	Centered on non-bureaucratic institutions Principle: Federalism Focus on local control Bottom up responsiveness

Classical and Neo Classical Public Administration:

Theory of bureaucracy: Max Weber's Ideal type of bureaucracy or rational legal bureaucracy

The Bureaucratic Model: Max Weber

- He was one of the founders of modern sociology and as a significant contributor to economic, social and administrative thought
- Rational legal authority: right to exercise authority based on position
- Weber viewed the bureaucracy as the most efficient form, that which could be used most effectively for complex organizations-business, government, military for example arising out of the needs of society.
- Weber and his bureaucratic model have provided the theoretical framework and the point of departure for much of the current theory and empirical research on complex organizations.
- Bureaucratic mechanisms develop certain forms of autocratic leadership and control that may have dysfunctional consequences for the organization.

The modern view is to utilize the Weberian model as a point of departure to recognize the limitations and dysfunctional consequences of this highly structured approach.

The bureaucratic form is most appropriate for routine organizational activities where productivity is the major objective and this form is not appropriate for the highly flexible organization that faces many non-

routine activities in which creativity and innovation are important. Many modern writers stress the view in a dynamic society the innovative, creative organization is becoming the rule rather than the exception.

Characteristics of the Bureaucratic Model:

1. Fixed and official jurisdictional areas/specialization and division of labor: regular and fixed duties, there are rules on authorities to give commands, only qualified persons are employed.
2. Hierarchical positions: system of super and subordination, where there is a supervision of lower office by higher ones-unity of command; authority, serves as a formal system of communication
3. System of Abstract Rules: rules persist whereas personnel change
4. Impersonal relationship: separates the private (personal life) from the public office, official activity demands the full working capacity of the individual
5. Merit principle: promotion and selection, special examinations are a prerequisite to employment, presupposes thorough and expert training.

Key concepts on the bureaucracy:

1. Technical advantages of the bureaucratic organization-precision, speed, knowledge of the files, continuity, discretion, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and material and personal costs (as compared to collegial, honorific and avocational forms of administrations)
2. Permanent character-once established it is hard to destroy
3. Concentration of the material means of administration in the hands of the master

Dysfunctions of the bureaucracy:

1. *Lack of flexibility:* As a result of their day to day routines, people may develop social preferences, antipathies, discriminations and emphasis. Structure tends to produce the same results, and the resulting esprit de corps leads them to defend entrenched interests, rather than assist their clientele or elected higher officials. Trained incapacity-one adopts measures in keeping with ones past training, under new conditions it may lead adoption of the wrong procedure. Security of tenure is without regard for extraneous and environmental pressures
2. *Dysfunction of impersonality:* gives rise to charges of arrogance and haughtiness; source of conflict is the pressure for formal and impersonal treatment when personalized consideration is desired by the client.
3. *Dysfunction of specialization:* conflict between specialized units to the detriment of overall goals, highly specialized jobs can lead to boredom and burnout
4. *Dysfunction of hierarchy:* initiative and participation are blocked, upward communication is impeded, no formal recognition of horizontal communication.
5. *Dysfunction of rules:* red tape, becomes an end in itself rather than means for goal, it slows the organization to adjust.

Weber: "The Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism"

Capitalism has the capacity to calculate in formal terms the most rational efficient organization of the productive mechanism

Ideal type bureaucracy based three pure types of legitimate authority

1. *Legal authority:* patterns of rules and regulations is the right of those in authority to issue commands
2. *Traditional authority:* importance of enduring traditions and those who rule with such traditions
3. *Charismatic authority:* emotional attachment or devotion to a specific individual

Legal authority is bound by the legal system is exercised through bureaucratic administrative staff which outlines the central characteristics of bureaucratic organization

The Beginnings of Public Administrative Theories:

Alexander Hamilton-expressed in the Federalist Papers-strong national government with considerable powers in the executive, for an action to be effective it must only come in one direction, a unified executive.

Jefferson in contrast: argued on behalf of strict legal and constitutional limits on the power of the executive branch, limits that would ensure the responsibility of officials

Politics and Administration Dichotomy

Woodrow Wilson: business like approach-before too much emphasis on constitutional questions and ignored government operations.

- “It is harder to run a constitution than to frame one”
- In order to achieve some measures of efficiency in the operations of government, one should look into the private sector for models of administrative management
- Administrative responsibility would be enhanced through the establishment of single centers of power controlling basically hierarchical structures

Wilson: Politics/Administration: “Administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics, administrative questions are not political questions, although politics sets the task for administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices”.

Frank Goodnow (Policy and Administration 1900): critique against the formalist view of government, focus on the study of the constitution and legal matters to understand the operations of government. Politics is concerned with the expression of the will of the state in policies; administration is concerned with the expression of that will.

W.F. Willoughby (The Government of Modern States, 1936): recognition of five branches of government, executive, legislative, judiciary, electorate and administrative branch. The executive function is essentially political; the administrative function is concerned with putting into effect policies as determined by other organs.

Leonard White (The Study of Public Administration, 1948) trend towards executive initiative in public policy, administrative personnel are utilized in policy formulation because of their impartiality and technical skill. Administrators would be implementing less vague legislation because they are consulted.

Paul Appleby: Public administration is policy-making, administrators are significant policy actors in the exercise of administrative discretion, administrators are continually laying down rules of the future and administrators are continually determining what the law is, what it means in terms of action. Administrators influence policy through recommendations to the legislature.

The Scientific Management School

Frederick Taylor: There is one best way of performing, a way that could be discovered. Investigate various components of work, make results known to the workers so that all workers could use what had previously been the method of only a few. Detailed studies of the time and motion in task, improve the efficiency of the productive process.

Every single act of every workman can be reduced to a science. *Role of managers:* to design and to conduct experiments, to plan the work process, to discover efficient techniques and to train workers on the techniques.

Mutuality of interests: workers and managers should know why they are there? Through the price rate pay systems and rationally designed and supervised production techniques, industry would tap worker's primary motivation-to make more money. Managers and workers-higher profits and higher income for those who worked hard.

Key concepts:

- Identification of the ideal worker
- Time and motion study-broke each job according to its components and designed the quickest and best method for performing each component.
- Work standards-established how much workers should be able to do with equipment and materials at hand.
- Differential rate system-encourages employers to pay productive workers at higher rates than others using scientifically correct rates that would benefit both employers and workers.

Taylor's methods were applied more in the shop floor level. Therefore it addresses the needs of the first line managers. What it addresses are the technical skills expected of managers.

The following are the basic steps to follow in time and motion studies:

1. Define the task to be studied and inform the worker to be studied
2. Determine the number of cycles to observe
3. Time the job and rate the worker's performance
4. Compute the standard time

Limitations:

1. Workers feared that working harder/faster would exhaust whatever work was available, leading to layoffs
2. Sped up conditions placed undue stress on employees to work faster and faster
3. Emphasis on productivity and profitability led some manager to exploit both workers and customers
4. Many managers resisted this approach because it seemed like it was undermining their discretion and better judgment.

Motion studies: systematic study of human motions used to perform an operation, principles for the use of the body, the arrangement of the workplace and for the design and use of tools and equipment or ergonomics. Objectives include the elimination of unnecessary motion, combine activities, improvement in the arrangement of the workplace, and improve the design of tools and equipment.

Administrative Management:

Lead theorist-Henry Fayol: Manager at an iron and steel plant. Managers plan, organize, command, coordinate and control, Fayol believed that as one moves up, the demands on management capability increases and technical capability decreases. There are six operational activities in business organizations:

1. Technical-production and manufacturing
2. Commercial-buying raw materials and selling
3. Financial-acquisition and use of capital
4. Security-of personnel and management
5. Accounting
6. Managerial-Planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling

Fayol's fourteen principles of administrative management:

1. *Division of Labor:* the worker and manager concerned and working on the same matters, acquire ability, sureness and accuracy and become more efficient
2. *Authority and responsibility:* authority to give orders and power to exact obedience
3. *Discipline:* be exacted thru good leaders at all levels, applying clear and fair rules/agreements that are judiciously and consistently applied.
4. *Unity of Command:* for any action whatsoever, an employee should receive orders from only one superior
5. *Unity of Direction:* there should be one head and one plan for a group of activities serving the same objective.
6. *Subordination of individual interests to the general interests*
7. *Remuneration:* should be fair and as far as possible afford satisfaction to both personnel and firm
8. *Centralization:* may vary according to different cases. The apt share of initiative left to intermediaries depends on the personal character of the manager, the reliability of the personnel, and the condition of the organization among others.
9. *Scalar chain:* chain of superiors ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks. It is an error to depart needlessly from the line of authority, but it is an even greater one to keep to it when the detriment of the organization arises.
10. *Order:* there must be an appointed place for every employee and every employee must be in his appointed place.
11. *Equity:* results from kindness and justice
12. *Stability of tenure of personnel:* time is required for employees to get used to new work and succeed assuming he has the requisite abilities
13. *Initiative:* thinking out a plan and executing it
14. *Esprit de corps:* harmony and union of personnel

Management Science School: approaching management problems through the use of mathematical techniques for their modeling, analysis and solution.

Systems Approach: views the organization as a unified, purposeful system composed of interrelated parts. The activity of any part of the organization affects in varying degrees the activity of every segment. Manager cannot function wholly within the confines of the traditional organizational chart. They must make their departments work towards the goal of the larger enterprise. Systems theory: calls into attention the dynamic and interrelated nature of organizations and management tasks, a framework from which we can plan our actions and anticipate consequences. It is a convergence of management science, scientific management and behavioral science.

Administrative Management and Organizational Structure

James Mooney and Allan Reiley (General Motors) Organizational design for public and private organizations.

1. Coordination through the unity of command, importance of strong executive leadership exercised through a hierarchical chain of command
2. Scalar principle-the vertical division of labor e.g. general and private
3. Functional principle-horizontal division of labor e.g. infantry and artillery
4. Relationship between line and staff-direct chain of command to which authority flows, staff advise the chief executive but no direct authority over line offices.

Contrasting views of Leonard White: against increased centralization

1. Certain matters may indeed be handled at the local level
2. Administrative officials may act in an arbitrary and capricious manner
3. Centralization will not permit citizens to gain experience in assuming civic responsibility

Willoughby: Administrative authority should be vested in the Chief Executive who should be given appropriate duties and powers to carry out the work assigned. Integrate various departments and activities within the executive branch so that groups with similar missions and frequent working relations are grouped closely together, it ensures simplicity and avoids conflicts of jurisdiction.

Luther Gullick: to achieve proper division of labor and means of coordination and control. In designing new programs the following should be considered: 1) define the job to be carried out; 2) to select a director; 3) to determine the nature and number of units required; and, 4) establish a structure of authority through which the director can coordinate activities.

*The Principle of Departmentalization-*1) purpose-focus served by the agency; 2) process-basis of major process employed; 3) person or things-target client served by the unit; and, 4) place- according to the geographical location served by the agency.

Work of the chief executive encapsulated in POSDCORB

The elected executive should be the administrative leader as well-accountability of performance and unity of command. Administrative structure along hierarchical lines. Members of departments reporting directly to the Chief Executive should be small enough to have a manageable span of control. Overall coordination should be maintained through executive control over the budget. Staff units should be given line authority. Administrative functions should be departmentalized.

The Rational Model of Organization

The Rational Model of Organization: science based on the philosophical perspective of logical positivism, human behavior could be determined by objective observation.

The Proverbs of Administration by Herbert Simon: critique against specialization, unity of command, span of control in the organization.

The rational model of administration-the theory of administration is concerned with how organizations should be constructed and operated in order to accomplish its work efficiently. Administrative

description has focused too closely to the mechanism of authority; it did not study the actual allocation of decision-making functions. Positivist perspective: examination of actual propositions based on observation of manifest behavior.

The rational individual is and must be an organized and institutional individual. Humans group together because they are limited on their own to respond to complex problems.

Rationality is equated with efficiency. To behave in a rational manner is to behave in such a way that one contributes to the accomplishment of the organization's objectives, to be rational; the individual must follow the design of the organization's leaders, its controlling group. It can be accomplished where individuals begin to make choices that are guided by the interests of the organization; the key to individual behavior is the decision to act. The organization as a decision-making system, to include attention directing or intelligence processes that determine the occasion of decisions, processes of discovering and designing possible courses of action and processes for evaluating alternatives and choosing among them.

The administrative man seeks to be a satisficer (to find satisfactory solutions) rather than maximize. To understand the decision making process, is to understand organizational behavior.

Decision making consist of three processes: 1) Intelligence: scans the environment and arrives to make a decision; 2) Design: finding alternative courses of action; and, 3) Choice: selection of alternatives with the best chance of success.

Effects: it highlighted the tension between rational behavior and real behavior in human systems and it moved the focus of decision-making studies from the policy to the operational level. Incremental method: little aspects sacrificed for the good of the majority. Cooptation: process of absorbing new elements into the leadership or policy determining structure of an organization as a means of averting threats to its stability.

Robert Dahl: contended that while the field of Public administration claims to be value free, it is actually based on a preference for particular values, most notably the value of efficiency. He held that efficiency itself was a value and as such had to compete with other values, such as individual responsibility and democratic morality. In such competition, efficiency did not always fare so well. The study of public administration must be based on the study of human behavior. Criticized the mechanistic perspective of the administrative man.

Elton Mayo: The Hawthorne Experiments

1. Relay room: attempted to examine the relationship between lighting intensity and employee productivity
2. Studied the relationship between working conditions and worker productivity
3. The expected relationships were not observed – the Hawthorne Effect
4. Turned to informal or social factors – changes in supervisory practice influenced productivity more than physical conditions.
5. Called for a balance satisfaction and cooperation
6. The limits of human collaboration are determined far more by the informal than the formal organization. The behavior of individual workers is the key to organizational work and that securing the cooperation of the employees is the central problem of organization.

The experiments were initially concerned with the relationship between working conditions such as lighting, temperature and humidity, on the one hand, and aspects of worker productivity such as fatigue and monotony, on the other. In the conduct of the research certain groups of workers were treated as an experimental group, isolated from others in the plant and asked to work under varying conditions. Yet as the experiment proceeded, the expected relationships between working conditions and productivity failed to materialize. Despite all the variations in conditions, productivity generally continued to increase.

The researchers at this point turned to the informal or social factors that might be affecting the worker's motivation. The special attention accorded the test group, particularly the changes in supervisory practice required in the experiments, was apparently influencing productivity more than changes in physical conditions. The form of supervision that utilizes effective human relations will be most effective.

Douglas McGregor (Theory X and Y): Successful management depends on the ability to predict and control human behavior and that development in the social sciences are providing the basis of a new approach to a more effective management. Based on these theory X assumptions, an approach to management has developed that relies on rewards and punishments, incentives and threats, coercion and control. But McGregor holds that such an approach to management is ineffective, even in its softest versions, for it neglects the social and egoistic needs of individuals. A recognition of these needs by modern social science results in an alternative set of assumptions about human behavior and leads to an alternative approach to management.

Theory X: 1) People do not like to work and try to avoid it; 2) People do not like to work so managers have to control, direct, coerce and threaten employees to get them to work towards organizational goals; and, 3) People prefer to be directed to avoid responsibility to want security, they have little ambition

Theory Y: 1) People do not naturally dislike work; work is a natural part of their lives; 2) People are internally motivated to reach objectives to which they are committed; 3) People are committed to goals to the degree that they receive personal rewards when they reach their objectives; 4) People will both seek and accept responsibility under favorable conditions; 5) People have the capacity to be innovative in solving organizational problems; and, 6) People are bright, but under most organizational conditions their potentials are underutilized.

Chris Argyris: A healthier approach, both for management and for the worker, would begin with an understanding of the basic tendencies of individuals toward growth and development and would then seek to fuse these tendencies with the demands of the organization's task. The role of the interventionist-Assist organizations and individuals to inquire into their own capacities to learn effectively, the interventionist then becomes a change agent. This role belongs to the manager. The manager is not a disinterested party but rather has personal interest in the life of the organization. The manager has a stake in the status quo. The manager must choose either to act authoritatively to preserve the organization as it is or to act democratically to assist in altering the group's norms.

Chester Barnard: The functions of the Executive

1. Advanced the acceptance theory of authority
2. The maintenance of the organization, which is the chief function of the executive, depends less on design of formal structures of authority than on understanding of human motivation.

3. Authority is defined not in terms of hierarchical position but as a form of communication or order capable of guiding the behavior of the individual.
4. Formal organizations create and require informal organizations
5. Urges executive to understand the dialectical nature of human cooperation
6. The executive bears a moral responsibility to expand the field of cooperation and choice and to enhance the development of the individual. Search for the most effective techniques in human relations – those that would increase worker satisfaction, but more important, increase the productivity of the organization.

Chester Barnard: A system of consciously coordinated personal activities of two or more persons held together by its capacity to generate a common purpose, by a willingness on the part of its members to contribute to its processes and by effective communications. Function through equilibrium of contributions and inducements-satisfaction of ideals, monetary incentives and prestige and power.

Frederick Herzberg: The Motivation Hygiene Theory

1. Advanced the idea of job enrichment
2. Hygiene factors versus motivators
3. Motivation
4. Maintenance level: achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility
5. Hygiene factors: Advancement, company policies, salary and working conditions
6. De-motivation: absence of hygiene factors

New Public Administration

Introduced in 1968 at Syracuse University Minnowbrook conference center. Contained in Frank Marini's work "Toward new public administration". No single approach to understanding public organizations emerged to challenge existing pattern of agreement within the field

Rejection of politics-administration dichotomy: Administrators should make policy, too much emphasis given on administrative management that they lost track of the primary problem, administrators should take matters into their hands, understanding the policy process, an open system perspective.

Recognition of values: Whereas before that too much focus is given on data collection and statistical manipulation, more normative in its approach, advocates of change, values and norms occupy a premier role that guides direction

Social Equity: Benefits must be greater to those who are disadvantaged, before public administration is concerned with efficiency and economy, three Rs-responsible, responsive and relative.

Hierarchy to participation: Participation of clients in the operation of agency affairs or the involvement of lower level organizational participants, finding non hierarchical meanings for democracy and a substitution of cooperation for competition

Adaptive to change: Organizational structuring, tends to be radical, emphasis on the need rather than the organization, not static, pro-active

New Public Management

1. New institutional economics-NPM as a marriage of two different streams of ideas built on post WW2, development of public choice and principal agent theory. Generated a set of administrative reform doctrines built on contestability, user choice, and transparency and incentive structures.
2. Business type managerialism-in the tradition of international scientific management movement, generated administrative reform doctrine based on technical expertise, requiring discretionary power to achieve results and better performance through the development of appropriate cultures and active measurement and adjustments of organizational output
3. Management culture that emphasizes the centrality of the citizen as customer, as well as accountability for results
4. It suggests structural or organizational choices that promote decentralized control through a wide variety of alternative service delivery mechanisms

Reengineering Government by Michael Hammer and James Champy:

1. Fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical contemporary measures of performance such as cost, quality service and speed
2. Abandoning long established procedures and principles and inventing new approaches to process structure
3. Starting all over from scratch
4. Seeks breakthroughs by breaking away from ineffective antiquated ways of conducting business

Forces that encourage reengineering: customers take charge, competition intensifies and changes become constant. Kinds of organizations that apply reengineering: Those in deep trouble, those not yet but management anticipates that it is coming and those at the peak of success that want more innovation

Key themes of reengineering: Process orientation-look at the entire process, Ambition-aim for breakthroughs, Rule breaking-specializations, sequence and timing are deliberately abandoned, Creative use of information technology (IT)-IT allows organizations to do work in radical ways.

Characteristics of the Reengineering Process:

1. Several jobs are combined into one
2. Workers make decisions
3. Steps in the process are performed in a natural order
4. Processes have multiple versions
5. Work is performed where it makes the most sense
6. Checks and controls are reduced
7. Reconciliation is minimized
8. A manager provides a single point of contact
9. Hybrid centralized/decentralized operations are prevalent

Changes that occur in reengineering:

1. Work unit changes-from functional departments to process teams
2. Job changes-from simple tasks to multi dimensional work
3. People's roles changes-from controlled to empowered
4. Job preparation changes-from training to education
5. Focus on performance measure and compensation shifts from activities to results
6. Advancement criteria change from performance to ability

7. Values change from protective to productive
8. Managers change from supervisors to coaches
9. Organizational change from hierarchical to flat
10. Executives change from scorekeepers to leaders

Reinventing Government by David Osborne and Ted Gaebler

1. Calls for an entrepreneurial form of government that is driven by innovative and creative energies in finding solutions to problems
2. Suggests that government must act in entrepreneurial ways
3. Involves changing the ways and means or using resources to achieve the goals of the government and maximize productivity, efficiency and effectiveness since old ways of dealing with present problems are no longer effective

Premises/beliefs in reinventing government:

1. Belief in government
2. Civilized society cannot function effectively without effective government
3. People who work in government are not the problem; the systems in which worked are the problem
4. Conventional or standard approaches are not that relevant to the challenges faced up by government today
5. Belief in equity or equal opportunity for all

Ten Principles of Reinventing Government:

1. Catalytic government: steering rather than rowing

Government acts as catalyst or facilitator in bringing together private business organizations, non-profit organizations, volunteer organizations and groups and members of the community to address a public or social need. Government sees to it that public problems are solved not necessarily by directly engaging in the provision or production of goods and services (rowing) but by seeking solutions and mobilizing resources outside public sector (steering). Steering government has more time to concentrate on policy matters and actively direct and shape the future of the country. Policy managers steer other service providers, within and outside of government, using competition to determine the most effective and efficient providers.

2. Community owned government: Empowering rather than serving

Involves the community in governance since they better understand and can define their needs and problems. Make communities more concerned and committed to perform civic responsibilities. Advantages of involving communities in governance process-have more commitment to their members, understand their problems better, help solve their problems and more flexible and creative in problem solving.

3. Competitive Government: injecting competition into service delivery

Institutionalization of a competitive government in the delivery of services, looking for service providers who can do the job better than the regular government offices and departments and promotes competition among private sector entities and even among public organizations to improve the quality of service

4. Mission driven government: transforming rule driven organizations

Public organizations are provided with discretion and flexibility to use creative and innovative methods and strategies to accomplish their missions. Rules are there to help not to hinder government institutions to perform and accomplish their purpose.

5. Results oriented government: funding outcomes not inputs

Uses performance measures and indicators to assess their performance and how well they have used their budget to fulfill their mission. Entrepreneurial government looks at what public institutions have accomplished or what they have done

6. Customer driven Government: meeting the needs of the customers not the bureaucracy

Seeks out its clients, listens to them and know what exactly they need to be responsive to their needs and provide appropriate programs and services. Consumers are given control of resources. Provides flexibility to customers to choose which service providers can best suit or give their needs.

7. Enterprising government: Earning rather than spending

Transforms programs and projects into opportunities to generate revenues or profits for government. Searches for creative and innovative strategies to fund a project or activity at less or no cost and at the same time earn revenues for government. Earnings generated can consequently be used for other public projects.

8. Anticipatory government: prevention rather than cure

Government incorporates foresight in its planning and decision-making activities and tries to foresee its costs and possible consequences. Preventive measures are easier, more effective and less costly to administer in the long run.

9. Decentralized government: from hierarchy to participation and teamwork

By decentralizing organization, public institutions can respond more quickly to the changing environment and needs of the public they serve. Decentralized government empowers employees and frontline workers.

10. Market oriented government: leveraging change through the market

Government resort to market mechanism to provide the needed services to the people. Incentives serve as catalyst in affecting behavior and decisions of people in the direction of solving the problem and achieving communal goal.

Critiques:

1. Reengineering approach has gained less ground in public sector
2. Efforts entail large budgetary/economic cost
3. Unions anticipate/assume that this is a ploy for downsizing the bureaucracy
4. Employees are displaced or laid off
5. Disrupt the overall governmental process
6. Entails political risks which may be too high for our leaders and public managers
7. There is a danger of having a government that will become less responsible to citizens

Reengineering:

1. The fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical contemporary measures of performance

2. Viewed as a comprehensive and effective way for organizations to reduce cycle times, surpass customer expectations, enhance productivity, increase sales and profits
3. Call for major change as opposed to process modification or process incremental improvement
4. Means not movement along the existing productivity curve but movement to a higher curve of doing things differently rather than doing the old routine pattern

Reinventing government

Re forge how agencies were organized, decide what they need to do and design the best structure to do it. Advocate sweeping changes in a quest to reform the federal bureaucracy through reconstructing and revitalization of government procedures. Recommendations include: how work is done; reexamining program and processes; abandoning the obsolete and eliminating duplication; embracing advanced technology to cut cost

Source: "Paradigm Shifts in the Intellectual Discourse of Public Administration: From New Public Management to New Public Service"

Public Administration as a social science discipline has undergone numerous transformations in terms of its paradigms. As Thomas Kuhn stated, paradigms are sets of ideas utilized by a community of scholars in explaining and predicting a specific phenomena. Shifts in the prevailing paradigm ensue as anomalies accumulate over time or as questions are forwarded pertaining to the relevance and validity of the current paradigm. Public Administration traces its roots to the bureaucratic model of Max Weber and the Politics – Administration Dichotomy of Woodrow Wilson. The Scientific Management, Organizational Humanism and Administrative Sciences all of which had direct influences on the evolving character of Public Administration followed these paradigms. New Public Management and New Public Service are relatively recent paradigms to have come out in the discipline's intellectual discourses. This paper examines the basic tenets of New Public Management and New Public Service amidst the backdrop of dynamism exemplified by the theoretical debates in Public Administration.

New Public Management (NPM) places emphasis on economic norms and values. This ideological dominance, wherein conventional, accepted norms and values in the public sector are regarded in economic terms, has resulted to conflicts and tensions between different norms and values more evident. In NPM this dominance is likewise connected to strong and not always well founded, opinions about how economic norms and values have certain effects on other considerations, for instance that emphasizing efficiency implies changes in the formal organization of the public sector, in procedures, in the expertise needed and in its relationship to the private sector. Even if NPM adheres to economic values and objectives, the concept is perceived as loose and multifaceted and offers a kind of shopping basket of different elements for reformer of public administration. The main components of NPM include hands-on professional management, which allows for active, visible, discretionary control of an organization by people who are free to manage; explicit standards of performance; a greater emphasis on output control; increased competition; contracts; devolution; disaggregation of units; and private sector techniques. (Christensen and Legreid, 2002: 18-19)

NPM generally relies on a combination of micro economic theory and managerialism and many of the most important and problematic reform elements, such as the relationship between public managers and elected officials, reflect the potential tensions in the way these are combined. Through devolution and contracting NPM has sought to separate policy making more clearly from policy administration and implementation to managers and hold them accountable by contract. (Christensen and Legreid, 2002: 21)

New Public Management characterizes a global public management reform movement that has redefined the relationships between government and society. Although this management reform movement has numerous variations across and even within nation states, it has several universal themes. (Frederickson, 2003)

In a wide-ranging overview of this reform movement, based on *“The Global Public Management Revolution: A Report on the Transformation of Governance”* by Donald Kettl indicated that it is predicated on six core values. First, productivity – the reform effort is a serious attempt to assess how governments can do “more with less” by sustaining, or even expanding public services with lower resource investments. Second, marketization – the reform movement is predicated on government leveraging the market mechanisms to overcome the pathologies of traditional bureaucracy. Third, service orientation – one of the common objects of reforms is to better connect government with citizens and to improve customer satisfaction with public services. Fourth, decentralization – this is not just a simple devolution of decision making power to lower levels in the political or bureaucratic hierarchy but also a conscious effort to put those who make policy decisions as close as possible to the people affected by those decisions. Fifth, policy – the reform movement seeks to improve government’s capacities to create, to implement and to administer public policy. Lastly, accountability – the reform movement is an effort to make government deliver on what it promises.

Kettl stated that although there are many variants of NPM, the majority of these are predicated on two models. The first is the Westminster model, which originated in New Zealand in the late 1970s and quickly spread to other parliamentary democracies such as Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom. The second is the reinventing government model, which is equated with the United States. Kettl noted that the Westminster model is defined by sweeping privatization of state controlled industries, the separation of government operations into functional units and the delegation of decision-making power to actors within those areas. In contrast, there is less initiative to privatize in the United States. Kettl reiterated that due to the fact that local, state, and national governments in the United States share responsibility in most policy arenas and are subject to different political motivation, there is no central agent powerful enough to enforce functional reorganizations on the scale pursued by the Westminster model.

There are two dominant stands of New Public Management aside from the models mentioned; these are the reengineering and reinventing approaches. James Champy and Michael Hammer lead the reengineering approach while David Osborne and Ted Gaebler led the reinventors.

According to David Osborne and Ted Gaebler’s influential work entitled *“Reinventing Government”* there is a need for a catalytic government, a government that is more concerned with steering (providing policy directions) rather than rowing (actual involvement in the delivery of goods and services). There should be institutions that empower citizens rather than simply serving them, institutions that are flexible and adaptable to the changes of the times. As a steering organization, the government can shop around to provide more comprehensive solutions; it can provide specialized service with unique skills to deal with difficult population or problems; and it can promote experimentation and learn from successful new ideas from customers. By adopting a steering approach, government has more time to concentrate on policy matters and actively direct and shape the future of the country.

Osborne and Gaebler proposed an entrepreneurial government through partnerships between the public and private sector in developing more viable and efficient alternative means of service delivery.

With it there would be competition between service providers and new budget systems are established. It is a government that emphasizes earning rather than spending; it transforms programs and projects into opportunities to generate revenues or profits for government. Searches for creative and innovative strategies to fund a project or activity at less or no cost and at the same time earn revenues for government. Reinventing government is directed towards a customer driven government. It seeks out its clients, listens to them and knows what exactly they need to be responsive to their needs and provide appropriate programs and services. Earnings generated can consequently be used for other public projects.

According to *“Reengineering the Corporation”* by Michael Hammer and James Champy, “re-engineering is the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service and speed”.

Re-engineering offers an approach for improving the performance, effectiveness and efficiency of organizations regardless of the sector in which they operate. Re-engineering is viewed as a comprehensive and effective way for organizations to reduce cycle times, surpass customer expectations, enhance productivity, increase sales and reap higher profits. (Kruger, 1993: 31)

In a study by Arie Halamichi entitled *“Re-engineering and Public Management”* he stated that re-engineering is a relatively new concept as it is still being redefined and elaborated as a result of the cumulative experience of its applications by different kinds of organizations and under a variety of conditions. He outlined the salient tenets of reengineering by summarizing and elaborating on the works of Hammer and Champy 1993, Davenport and Short, 1990, and Davenport, 1993 to include the following. 1) Searching for radical improvement in business processes through information technology. 2) Breaking away from the antiquated ways and processes of business operations and starting with a clean slate. 3) Viewing and reviewing the fundamental business processes from a cross functional perspective to ensure that each step in the process adds value. 4) Questioning whether the process is necessary and what it is intended to achieve, in line with the overall mission of the organization. When the connection between elements of the process and the ultimate goal is not clear but the process has not been challenged in the past, there may be a need to refocus or redefine the organizational mission or the leadership vision. 5) Systematic searching for radical changes for the purpose of effecting major improvements or breakthroughs in business processes when an incremental approach will not work anymore. 6) Reducing, if not eliminating, paper documentation that enters the process at different stages with an attempt to capture data once at the source. 7) Focusing on and developing around processes and outcomes, not tasks or organizational functions. Re-engineering prefers to see one person (or the equally qualified members of a small team) perform all tasks in the process whenever feasible. 8) Focusing on the customer or client, utilizing a results-oriented and team based approach. Re-engineering requires rigorous measurement of performance and close analysis of change and the rate of change for assessing performance as a function of defined work processes. It demands the total commitment of all employees and a substantive involvement of top management at all times.

New Public Service poses a challenge to the doctrine forwarded by New Public Management. In *“The New Public Service Serving not Steering”* by Janet Dernhardt and Robert Dernhardt proposed a reconfiguration several tenets of New Public Management that paved the way for enhancing the government’s responsiveness in meeting the immediate and long term needs of its constituents. The authors discussed the following seven basic tenets of New Public Service.

First, New Public Service aims at serving citizens, not customers. Citizens are described as bearers of rights and duties within the context of wider community while customers are different in that they do not share common purposes but rather seek to optimize their own individual benefits. The New Public Service suggest instead that people acting as citizens must demonstrate their concern for the larger community, their commitment to matters that go beyond short term interests and their willingness to assume personal responsibility for what happens in their neighborhoods and the community.

Second, New Public Service seeks the public interest. The government should contribute in building a collective, shared notion of the public interest. In New Public Service, government plays an important and active role in creating arenas in which citizens, through discourse can articulate shared values and develop a collective sense of public interest. Rather than simply respond to disparate voices by forming a compromise, public administrators will engage citizens with one another so that they come to understand each other's interests and ultimately adopt a longer and broader sense of community and societal interests.

Third, New Public Service places value citizenship over entrepreneurship. It contends that public interest is better advanced by public servants and citizens committed to making meaningful contributions to society than by entrepreneurial managers acting as if public money were their own. The New Public Service suggests that officials and public managers should respond to the requests of citizens not just by saying yes or no, but by saying such things as "Let's work together to figure out what we're going to do, then make it happen. In a world of active citizenship, the role of the public servant changes. Public administrators will increasingly play more than a service-delivery role – they will play a conciliating, a mediating or even an adjudicating role. And they will no longer rely on the skills of management control but rather on the skills of facilitating, brokering, negotiating and of conflict resolution.

Fourth, New Public Service proposes to think strategically and act democratically. Government programs are effectively realized when done through collective efforts and collaborative processes. In the New Public Service, the idea is not merely to establish the vision and then leave the implementation process to those in government; rather it is to join together all parties in the process of both designing and carrying out programs of civic education and by helping to develop a broad range of civic leaders, government can stimulate a renewed sense of pride and responsibility. This can be accomplished through the political leadership, which would lay the groundwork for effective and responsible citizen action. People must come to recognize that government is open and accessible – and that it won't happen unless government is open and accessible, both in the process of policy formulation and in program administration, government creates opportunities for citizenship in all phases of the policy process.

Fifth, New Public Service recognizes that accountability is not simple. It acknowledges both the centrality of accountability in democratic governance and the reality of administrative responsibilities. It rejects the idea that simple measures of efficiency or market-based standards can adequately measure or encourage responsible behavior. Instead, it argues that accountability in the public sector should be based on the idea that public administrators can and should serve citizens in the public interests, even in situations involving complicated value judgments and overlapping norms. To do so, public administrators must not make these judgments by themselves. Rather these issues must be resolved based not only on dialogue within organizations, but also on citizen empowerment and broad based civic engagement. While public servants remain responsible for assuring that solutions to public problems are consistent with laws, democratic norms and other constraints, it is not a matter of their simply judging the appropriateness of community based ideas and proposals after the fact. Rather, it is

the role of public administrators to make these conflicts and parameters known to citizens so that these realities become a part of the process of discourse. Doing so not only makes for realistic solutions, it also builds citizenship and accountability.

Sixth, New Public Service is geared to serve rather than steer. Towards this end, a new perspective on leadership is needed. Leadership is not just reserved for the presidents, governors, mayors or department heads; rather it is something that everyone throughout the organization and society will become involved in. There will be more instances of what is termed as shared leadership in public organizations, both within public organizations and as administrators relate to their many external constituencies. Through the process of leadership, people work together to make choices about the directions that they want to take. Such choices cannot be made simply on the basis of a rational calculation of cost and benefits. They require a careful balancing of human values, especially as citizens and governmental officials work together in the development of public policies. Leadership can play a transformational role in this process, helping people to confront important values and to grow and develop individually and collectively.

Seventh, New Public Service places value on people, not just productivity. New Public Service emphasizes the importance of managing people. Systems of productivity improvement, process reengineering and performance measurement are seen as important tools in designing management systems. But the New Public Service suggests that such rational attempts to control human behavior are likely to fail in the long term if, at the same time, insufficient attention is paid to the values and interests of individual members of an organization. Moreover, while these approaches may get results, they do not build responsible, engaged and civic-minded citizens. Public sector managers have a special responsibility and a unique opportunity to capitalize on the “heart” of public service. People are attracted to the public service because they are motivated by public service values. These values – to serve others and to make democracy work – represent the best of what it means to be a citizen in the service of the community.

Conclusion:

New Public Management and New Public Service as relatively young intellectual frameworks in Public Administration has affected the manner in which government functions. It is evident that government with the operationalization of the two paradigms could not decide unilaterally given a specific matter at hand as it is required to seek the participation of the citizens through venues that enhance their ability to articulate their respective concerns and protect their interest. The government as seen in the context of NPM and NPS has definitely been geared towards the grassroots levels, that of listening genuinely on the true needs of its constituents. People are treated as important stakeholders as government goes about in performing its business. NPM and NPS focus on the development human capital within the government and with the people it is mandated to serve. People are at the forefront of the two paradigms, as it intends to find better procedures and humanized methodologies to substantially increase its responsiveness and pro-active stance on problems.

The government seeks to increase its linkages to the private sector by making said sector as a partner in providing much needed services which are deemed as more efficient primarily because the private sector has the necessary technical and logistical capacity to do so. It is a realization that the government could not function as the sole service provider in society. In addition, government’s relation to civil society is important as civil society is seen as the government’s ally in policy dissemination as well as

impart inputs in the policy formulation stage. Close linkages with civil society makes the government closer to the people and in effect resulting to increased legitimacy of its implemented programs.

Both paradigms are predicated on reform, a rethinking approach that must be realized to institutionalize long-term productivity and efficiency. NPM and NPS confront the usual complacent and indifferent culture of people working in government. Changes in the ways things are done in government are met with opposition as this threatens the security of tenure of their respective posts. This is aggravated by the prevalent practice of treating government office as a form of political reward, the chronic problem of inadequate funds brought about by long term fiscal mismanagement, the encroachment of politics in the implementation stage and the absence of clear cut direction and agenda setting from leaders. In my view, the tenets of both paradigms can be achieved through leadership that has a critical mass based character and an unbridled will to see through an unpopular policy so long as it is considered right.

The emergence of NPS to provide an alternative to NPM is an effort to stimulate new ideas and support by refining the doctrines of NPM. It is apparent that New Public Service is considered a more people oriented paradigm with its emphasis on what constitutes public interest and by treating people as citizens not as customers. New Public Service is a manifestation of the growing clamor of delegating some its decision-making powers to semi-autonomous units composed of an aggregate of societal stakeholders from the public and private sector.

At the core of NPS is prioritizing public interest, an offshoot of the utilitarian approach of pursuing what its best for the majority. It is however difficult in practice and reality to determine public interest as government inevitably uses the concept to further increased the acceptability of its program. NPS contends that public interest can be determined by soliciting the participation of the people coupled with highly advanced democratic leadership. Transcending any devolution and decentralization, NPS engages the social capital or the civic character of the populace by making them an active player of the government process; their recommendations are not simply heard they are in the end-applied real time.

Future intellectual discourses in Public Administration would be built around the results on the application of New Public Management and New Public Service. The challenges posed by a new paradigm are premised on the idea that the present paradigm is rendered obsolete in terms of its relevance and utility. It is obvious however that the study of Public Administration has shifted from the institutional, policymaking and implementation aspect to that of government with co-managed by legitimate leaders and responsible citizens both working within the context of the common good.

Theories of Public Institutions

Institutionalism is not a theory in the formal sense, instead a framework to guide empirical research. Modern institutionalism is not limited to the study of government bureaucracy and has then moved well beyond the traditional study of jurisdictional public administration. Important works-March and Olsen's Reinventing Institutions and Weber's Bureaucracy

Institutional theory: emphasis on the organization and management of contained and bonded public institutions. It covers the relationship between organizational structure, its associated rules and norms and the organizational process, behaviors, outcomes and accountability of public agencies. Institutions refer to social constructs of rules and norms that constrain individual and group behavior. Institutionalism incorporates ideas of performance and purposefulness. It focuses on how structure and organization shape the behavior of public actors, particularly how variation in structure affects decision

making, implementation and outcomes. *Change an institution, alter its rules or norms and you change behavioral predispositions and agency outcomes.*

Institutions are studied in the following conceptual frameworks (Big Tent Approach of Institutionalism): 1) structural; 2) organizational design; 3) democratic control; 4) bureaucratic/administrative behavior; 5) managerialist/new public management; 6) performance, outcomes, program evaluation; and 7) privatization, politics of bureaucracy scholars

Characteristics of Institutionalism:

1. Assumes the centrality of leadership, management and professionalism
2. Assumes that policy preferences are neither exogenous nor stable but are molded through collective experience, education and profession
3. Recognizes the salience of action and choice and defines choice as expressions of expectations and consequences
4. Based on the patterns of politics, order and shared meaning found in governmental and non governmental institutions
5. Emphasizes the logic of appropriateness based on institutional structures, roles and identities. The logic of appropriateness is based on the assumption that institutional life is organized by sets of shared memories and practices that come to be taken as given. Moreover, it is based on matched patterns of roles, rules, practices and structures on one hand and a situation on the other.
6. Appropriateness is influenced by laws and constitution and other authenticated expressions of collective preferences.
7. Importance to the idea of community and the common good. Intuitionists tend to focus on order and particularly on structures that impose order

Institutions as a synthesized concept – in the anthropological sense: broadly agreed upon customs, practices and allegiances, on the other side would refer to public organizations that stand in a special relationship to the people they serve.

Institutionalism-importance of hierarchy, work is organized by task and tasks are increasingly complex and tend to separate into discrete categories of increasing complexity and the mental work of management increases in complexity and also separates into discrete categories.

Public institutions-High Reliability Systems based on the works of Landau, Consolini, Sills, Weick) e.g. nuclear plants and aircraft carriers

Features of high reliability systems

1. The physical technologies of these systems are tightly coupled; breakdown anywhere along the production process may cause the entire system to fail
2. Characterized by fixed and relatively rigid standard operating procedures and protocol
3. Personnel require extensive technological training and constant retraining
4. Systems are highly redundant, back systems ready to take over if primary system fails
5. Systems are networked; many organizations are involved in the production process
6. Systems are composed of government, non-government and commercial organizations
7. Error reporting is encouraged and initiatives to identify flaws in procedure
8. Ordinarily such systems are hierarchical

These systems, which are failure free, reveal how remarkably effective modern public and private organizations can be if they have adequate resources and are well managed. These systems usually fail because of human fallibility

Mayhew and Fiorina “Argue that divided governments are likely as unified governments to produce important legislation because the credibility of legislation is increased when enacted under divided rather than unified government. The problems, of course, are in carrying out policy under the conditions of divided government and here the arguments run the other way. *Divided government makes it considerably more difficult to carry out public policy effectively.*”

“Reallocating power and changing institutional behavior was accomplished by changing the institutional rules and altering institutional roles”

Systems fragmentation-uses the individual and family choices as measures of rational preferences and institutional effectiveness. It tends to use the logic of bureaucratic preferences to explain institutional choices.

Logic of the garbage can-“In the absence of structural constraints, simultaneity, not means-end consequences determines the linkages between problems and solutions and between institutional answers and questions” Institutional reform and reorganization are ad hoc, guided by a kind of pragmatic simultaneity.

The diffusion of innovation-core body of research in institutional theory

Paths of diffusion were influenced by state variations in transportation and communication capacities, wealth and urbanization. Innovations spread in diffusions exhibit the S curve pattern. “At first the adoption of change is slow, once a few others adopt reform successfully, there tends to be a steep climb in adoption, followed by a leveling off.

Hypotheses on the patterns of diffusion:

1. Presence of a perceived crisis and the propensity to adopt to change
2. Importance of compatibility between the purposes of a change or reform and the dominant values in a social system
3. Spatial proximity is important in diffusion
4. Mass media play a crucial role in amplifying and editing the diffusion of collaborative action
5. Change agents and their doctrines are often the carriers of change-community of experts provide venues for discussions and conferences, consultancy firms suggest change
6. Individuals and institutions tend to change so as to acquire prestige, status and social standing

Concept of Iron Cages: Weber argued that in the modern world, the organizational and managerial characteristics of bureaucracy are so universal and compelling that these bureaucracies can become iron cages that are hard to change”

Critiques: It lacks a center of gravity, a simplifying assumption. Institutional theory highlights the unique properties and characteristics of public institutions and their problems and promises. It lacks parsimony, includes dozens of variables, hypotheses and a singular lack of a simplifying core premise.

Postmodern Theory

Postmodern theory rejects the possibility that any given paradigm is capable of producing universal truths about social phenomena. Postmodernists are not surprised that, having decisively rejected the politics-administration dichotomy as its theoretical touchstone, public administration has failed to generate a universal replacement. Postmodernists would suggest that no universal replacement, at least in the positivist sense is really possible. Postmodern theory is a subjective approach to studying social phenomena that focuses heavily on language, the context of human interactions and social construction of reality.

Postmodernists believe that there are no absolute truths; therefore any given question will have several possible answers, all of which may be equally valid. As authors such as Farmer (1995) and Fox and Miller (1995) apply the postmodern lens to the study of public administration, what emerges is the belief that there is no best or universal method of organization or of understanding administrative processes. Moreover, and despite its theoretical pluralism, post modernist in public administration see the existing choices of intellectual frameworks as too constraining; that is too confined not only geographically but also by the boundaries of the scientific method. Postmodernist question the scientific method's claim to produce a steady accumulation of knowledge, and with these doubts comes questions about the research that underpins empirical research in public administration.

Core ideas in postmodern public administration:

1. Public administrators and public agencies are not and cannot be either neutral or objective
2. Technology is often dehumanizing
3. Bureaucratic hierarchy is often ineffective as an organizational strategy
4. Bureaucracies tend toward goal displacement and survival
5. Cooperation, consensus and democratic administration are more likely than the simple exercise of administrative authority to result in organizational effectiveness
6. Modern concepts of public administration must be built on post behavioral and post positivist logic – more adaptable, more democratic, more responsive to changing social, economic and political circumstances

Applications of post positivism to public administration were informed by phenomenology, the philosophical argument that reliable scientific inquiry cannot be based on external observation by outside researchers. The actions of persons in collective settings can be understood only from the standpoint of the actors themselves. The phenomenological approach seeks to determine how actors interpret their circumstances, the meaning they attach to those circumstances, and the patterns of interpretations between actors in collective settings. In this perspective, the meaning and the interpretation of meaning are at the core of administrative behavior.

Action Theory: The epistemological between values and facts, however useful it may be for instrumental purposes, reflects an artificial reconstruction of the process by which the social world is constituted, maintained and contested. These social processes are characterized initially by the fusion of what we have come to call values and facts. Thus, the fundamental differences between the actions and decision perspective are explainable by their differing stances regarding the epistemological priority of distinction. Social processes are principally processes of collective sense making through which social facts are produced by negotiation. By extension, organizations are chiefly structured contexts for sense making and only secondary decisionmaking arrangements.

In the action rhetoric perspective, organizational purpose and values can only emerge from social processes based on interactive patterns of action and the values attached to them. The good and the

extent to which the good is being organizationally furthered, is a process of conscious interpretation on the part of those organizations. It is also a process whereby researchers seeking to understand administrative behavior and interpret actions and their meanings.

Critical Theory: would examine the technical basis of bureaucratic domination and the ideological justifications for this condition, and would ask in what ways members and clients of public bureaucracies might better understand the resultant limitations placed on their actions and in turn develop new modes of administrative praxis.

Despite all the proposed alternatives to hierarchy and despite the pathology of hierarchy, we have not been able to invent an equally reliable way to divide work, coordinate that work and fix responsibility for it.

Postmodern perspectives in PA: Modern public administration based on enlightenment logic is simply misguided. In the first place, facts can neither speak or write and cannot therefore, speak for themselves. Facts represent propositions or hypothesis derived from observation. In the telling of facts, therefore, the observer is not only an active shaper of the message sent but also an active shaper of the likely image received. In the second place, the view that social science is a matter of cumulative accretion of knowledge through the work of the human subject neutrally observing the action and interaction of the objects – letting the facts speak for themselves is untenable. It is difficult to cling to the view that the mind is some kind of possessive receptor of outside activities such as impressions and ideas. Because the observer of facts is the teller of those facts, for postmodernist the language of that telling is important.

The social construction of reality is language based and language is at the core of the postmodern argument. Therefore, postmodern public administration is all about semantics and as postmodernists put it, text. Hermeneutics (the study of relationship between reason, language and knowledge) concerns texts; it is concerned with interpreting, with specifying significance, with achieving intelligibility. Texts in this case, can be written texts or texts in the form of social practices, institutions or other arrangements or activities.

Postmodernist describe modern life as hyper reality, a blurring of the real and the unreal. Mass media, information systems and technology are new forms of control that change politics and life. Boundaries between information and entertainment are imploding, as are boundaries between images and politics. Postmodernist is more concerned with values and the search for truth than in characterization of knowledge.

Modernity as Farmer describes it refers to expressions of the limits of particularism, scientism, technologism and enterprise. Particularism in post modernity is overly preoccupied with efficiency, leadership, management and organization. In the postmodernist perspective, scientific or positivist ideas are privileged in the sense that, if derived in accordance with scientific procedures, they are considered to give greater assurance of truth. Postmodernist rightly point out that the search for technological answers to social, economic and political questions tend to be faddish. Post modernists, like social observers generally worry about the dehumanizing aspect of both low tech bureaucratic functioning and high tech systems.

From the postmodern perspective, criticisms of modernist public administration include: 1) its over reliance on the logic and epistemology of objective rational social science; 2) the implicit support it gives

to authoritarian, unfair and unjust regimes 3) its bias toward American particularism; 4) the too great an attachment it has to functional management and organization technologies; and, 5) its willingness to be overly influenced by the capitalist logic of enterprise.

Postmodern public administration theory can be understood to include dialectic, a return to imagination, the deconstruction of meaning, deterritorialization and alterity. As a postmodern perspective, dialectic has to do with distinctions and the absence of distinctions. Post modernity for example, denies the distinction between appearance and reality. The postmodern state is, therefore, one hyper reality, a merging of the real with appearances, stimulation, and illusion. The dividing lines between objects and pictures, descriptions, impressions or simulations of that object have imploded to such an extent that we no longer have a direct understanding of the object. In a state of hyper reality everything is virtual and simulation becomes more real than real. In its most extreme view, postmodernist argue that humans have dropped out of history and have left reality behind.

The postmodernist might approach the subject of efficiency by taking efficiency to be part of a master or grand narrative and then deconstructing that narrative, and with it, both the concept of efficiency such as cost benefit analysis or performance measurement.

Imagination is important to postmodern public administration theory because of the view that the metaphor, images, allegory, stories and parables play a central role in how people think. Gareth Morgan refers to imagination as the art of creative management. Creative management resembles the standard humanist management training/interventionist menu of improving abilities to see things differently, now popularly and tritely referred to as thinking outside the box, finding new ways to organize, encouraging personal empowerment, finding new ways to self organize. When connected to theory and research methodology, this could be described as essentially the action learning model or ethnographic research in which the analyst/interventionist only engages in research but also presumes to help the organization learn to improve itself. A second version of the postmodern imagination perspective is associated with leadership and strategic management. This is the call for public administration to improve their capacities to see around the corner, to have greater vision and take risks.

Postmodern perspective tends to be anti-authoritarian and anti-state. The postmodernists are most attuned to the weaknesses of the nation state and to an open and direct criticism of the state. Because of this postmodern PA theory comes the closest to thoughtful perspectives on one of the most important contemporary issues facing the field: the declining salience of the state. Politics in the modern nation state is deeply challenged by postmodern circumstances. In the age of networks, the relationship of citizens to the body politic is in competition with the infinity of connections they establish outside of it. So, politics, far from being the organizing principle of life in society, appears as secondary activity, if not an artificial construct poorly suited to the resolution of the practical problems of the modern world. Once there is no longer a natural place for solidarity and for the general good, the well ordered hierarchy of a society organized in a pyramid disappears.

Postmodern PA will all be about process, procedure and the search for rules. The role of agents of the state as being engaged with the agents of other states in a collective search for the invisible chains that can bind people together.

Postmodern PA theory emphasizes teamwork and although it is seldom admitted, conformity. The objective is to reduce the need for structural hierarchy and the exercise of power, to put in their place a multitude of precautionary micro adjustments. Because there will be no institutional center, the

emphasis will be on the management of social, religious, ethnic and cultural differences. When this is done well, there will be an emphasis on modesty and prudence in administrative action. Nation building as a goal will gradually diminish as the primary purpose of the nation state, to be replaced by societies that find meaning in connections and associations. The network will become as important as the individual and networks always extract some level of individual conformity for their functioning.

The postmodern condition is described as increasingly fragmented jurisdictionally, more and more small jurisdictions emerging. At the same time, vehicles for effective regional multi-state policies are absent. In the absence of effective regional polities, there are no orderly patterns of regional politics. Instead regional power and politics tend to be in the hands of networked technicians, public administrators, specialist representing states and networked non-state actors representing NGOs and global business.

Deterritorialization is an analytic approach that seeks to break down the structural territories found in all organizations. These territories are reflected in rigid departmental and bureau categories, in reified accounting categories, in the special professions and educational processes that prepare people for public service and in all other ways that work is divided. The postmodern methodological perspective also includes the logic of alterity, or a forthright concern for the moral other on the part of public administrators. Postmodernists rightly claim that all administrative acts directly or indirectly affect others and that traditional public administration hides, overlooks, generalizes or rationalizes these effects. In public administration, according to postmodernists, the concern for others needs to be shifted from the abstract idea of non-specific "others" to concrete, live, actual "others". Therefore, the postmodernist research agenda has often to do with ground level considerations of bureaucratic functioning and the consequences of that functioning to others.

Questioning the traditional approaches in PA such as authority and hierarchy have given postmodernists a set of unique vantage points for examining administration. These have created opportunities for a wide range of new scholarly directions in PA. Perhaps the biggest problem with the postmodern theory is that its attachment to relativism makes it a more of a way of thinking about the world rather than a tool to explain it.

Rational Choice Theory

Also known as public choice, is premised on the belief that the central behavioral assumption of neoclassical economics is universal, that is, that rational self-interest is the primary motivator of purposive action. More specifically, rational choice has two central assumptions: 1) Individual utility maximization. This assumes that individuals know their preferences, can rank those preferences and where choices are available, will pick the option that fulfills their preferences at least cost. 2) Methodological individualism. This assumes that all collective decisions and actions are the aggregation of individual decisions and actions, that collectives have no unique properties of their own. From these remarkably simple premises, rational choice scholars have constructed deductive portraits of bureaucratic behavior that are unparalleled in public administration for their internal logical consistency and formal theoretical elegance.

Through its prescriptive implications, rational choice theory has also had an enormous applied impact on the practice of public administration. The self-maximizing bureaucrat is an actor driven by self-interested motivations and because he lacks complete information, is largely incapable of effectively pursuing the public interest even if these selfish motivations include an altruistic streak. The

implications for bureaucracy is alarming – there will be organizations more interested in self aggrandizement than in serving the public interest.

Rational choice portrays the traditional executive branch agency as a monopoly public service provider bidding its wares to monopsonist buyers in the legislature and suffering from all pathologies and inefficiencies associated with private sector monopolies. The rational choice conception of bureaucracy suggests the need for sweeping reforms in the public sector to avoid concentrating power in non-elected institutions, to forge a stronger link between citizen preference and government action and to bring the political system generally into a closer embrace of democratic values. Rational choice argues that such reforms should rely on the introduction of market forces into the arena of public service provision.

Competition and choice in a market for public services, according to rational choice theory, should improve the quality of public goods, reduce their costs, and increase citizen satisfaction. Although the scope and impact of rational choice is hard to underestimate its lofty ambitions to provide a central positive and normative theoretical paradigm for public administration remain unrealized. As a theory in the positivist sense, rational choice is hampered by doubts about its core assumptions and the mixed empirical confirmation of the hypotheses generated by these assumptions. Rational choice is deductively tied to the concepts of rational utility maximization and methodological individualism. These core assumptions provide the theory with parsimony and predictive capacities.

Rational choice is a neoclassical economic theory applied to the public sector. It seeks to build a bridge between microeconomics and politics by viewing the actions of citizens, politicians and public servants as analogous to the actions of self-interested producers and consumers. The intellectual roots of rational choice originated from Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*. *The insight was that people acting in pursuit of their own self-interest could, through the mechanism of the invisible hand, produce collective benefits that profited all society. For example, businessmen might be motivated only by a desire to enrich themselves, but their ability to turn a profit depends upon producing cheaper, better quality goods than their competitors. Higher quality goods at lower prices benefit everyone.*

Rational Choice theory is thus anchored to the belief that the central behavioral assumption of the neo-classical economic paradigm is universal: Self-interest drives our decisions and actions.

The Rational Self-Maximizing Bureaucrat: Tullock explained that a rational self-interested bureaucrat maximized utility through career advancement and that advancement in the merit-based systems of public bureaucracies often depends upon the favorable recommendations of superiors. *If this is so, Tullock reasoned, the rational bureaucrat would seek to please superiors and put himself in as favorable a light as possible.*

Thus, a rational bureaucrat will highlight information that reflects favorably upon himself and repress or perhaps even suppress information that does not. Distorting information this way will create a host of problems. Lacking accurate and/or complete information, agency leaders and external political actors will form skewed expectations about an agency's performance and capabilities.

The same lack of information will concurrently diminish their ability to hold the bureaucracy accountable. Downs argued that a set of behavioral biases should be common to all bureaucrats 1) Like Tullock, Downs stated that bureaucrats would be motivated to distort information as it passed upward in the hierarchy to reflect favorably on themselves and their individual goals, 2) Bureaucrats will favor policies that fit with their own interest and goals, 3) How bureaucrats react to directives from superiors will

depend on how those directives serve the bureaucrats self interest. If they favor individual interests, the degree of compliance will be high, if not, it will be low, 4) individual goals will determine the extent to which bureaucrats seeks out responsibility and power.

Typologies of bureaucratic personalities: Climbers are bureaucrats likely to pursue responsibility aggressively, especially in the sense of creating new functions for agencies. Conservers are bureaucrats who want to maximize security and convenience and they will more likely defend existing prerogatives and functions rather than try to invent new ones. Zealots are bureaucrats motivated to pursue particular policies, even in the face of obstacles. Zealots are unlikely to make good administrators. Advocates like zealots, aggressive pursue favored policies but are more open to influence from peers and superiors. Statesmen are bureaucrats seeking to promote the public interest through the promotion of broad policy goals.

Niskanen recognized that not all bureaucrats are motivated by financial bottom lines or career advancement and was willing to acknowledge that some bureaucrats genuinely seek to serve and advance the public interest. In other words, bureaucrats have different ideas about what constitutes public interest and no individual has all the information required to make a definitive claim that his or her conception of the civic good is the correct one. In contrast, the rational bureaucrat is well positioned to act on behalf of his own interests. All he needs to know are his own preferences. Niskanen added that bureaucrats tend to maximize their discretionary budgets rather than their overall budgets. It means that bureaucrats are seeking to maximize control over their budgets rather than the absolute size of their budgets.

The Self-Maximizing Citizen and the Tiebout Hypothesis: Rather than centralized bureaucracies providing public goods and services, they could be better supplied by a competitive market arrangement. Charles Tiebout – a competitive market for public services could be created if mobile citizens could shop across local jurisdictions for the package of public services and attendant tax burden that best suited their preferences.

The central hypothesis of the Tiebout model and its various extensions is that many agencies competing horizontally (across jurisdiction) and vertically (within jurisdiction) will provide a higher quality service at a lower price and be more attuned to citizens' preferences, than large bureaucracies in centralized jurisdictions. According to the Tiebout hypothesis, fragmentation stimulates competition, creates incentives for efficiency and responsiveness and should therefore lower spending. The more realistic micro level expectations implied by the Tiebout model are that citizens in fragmented government settings; will be more likely to exit if they are dissatisfied with those services and given that they can make choices about tax service packages, will be more satisfied with the service they do receive.

Opponents of the rational choice argue that faith in the markets is naïve and ignores the reality that competition produces losers as well as winners. Such loses are acceptable in the private sector. Regardless of the theoretical payoffs to deregulating the public sector, critics of rational choice argue that in reality there are too few informed consumers to drive a competitive market for public services. The 1990s movement to reinvent government through decentralizing authority and encouraging competition popularized the key arguments underlying Tiebout's model.

Rational Choice as the New Orthodoxy: Rational Choice is not simply an economic framework that can be adopted to help understand bureaucratic behavior and the production of public services but also as a normative, democratic theory of administration in its own right. Vincent Ostrom (The Intellectual Crisis in

Public Administration) argued that public administration scholars had concentrated on the technical superiority of the bureaucratic organization – its abilities to produce public goods efficiently while ignoring the potential implications for the democratic process.

Ostrom noted that rational choice could not only provide an intellectual lifeboat but also provide the discipline with its theoretical ship of state. *Ostrom suggested that a democratic theory of administration along the lines considered and dismissed by Weber is, in fact, possible, and that rational choice provides the obvious means to achieve it. If markets can efficiently match supply and demand for private goods and services with little in the way of centralized power centers or jurisdictional consolidation, why can they not do the same for public goods and services? Similarly, we expect consumers to know enough to abandon producers who fail to satisfy those preferences, thus allowing the market to weed out those who are inefficient or fail to respond to consumer demand.*

Ostrom argued that rebuilding the intellectual enterprise of public administration on rational choice foundations was compatible with the democratic principles articulated by the Constitution. *Hague contends that pro-market values unavoidably embedded in rational choice theory threaten the credibility and existence of public administration as an independent scholarly discipline. He suggested that the public and private sectors are different and at least in democratic systems, operate on different principles. What gets lost when viewing the public sector through the lens of rational choice is that market values and democratic values are not just different but probably incompatible. For example, markets may efficiently distribute goods and services, but they do not distribute them equitably and markets strive to connect supply and demand, even if the good or service is patently offensive to democratic ideals.*

**The Political Environment: The Concept of Administrative Power
“Power and Administration” by Norton Long**

Norton Long-“The lifeblood of administration is power. Its attainment, maintenance, increase and losses are subjects the practitioner and students can ill afford to neglect and yet it is the most overlooked in theory and the most dangerous to overlook in practice”

Power in this chaotic terrain is everywhere, flowing in from the sides of an organization, as it were; it also flows up to the organization to the center from the constituent parts. This fluid situation arises partly, in Long’s view from the failure of the American Party system to protect administrators from political pressures and to provide adequate direction and support for government bureaus and agencies. The American party system fails to develop a consensus on a leadership and a program that makes possible administration on the basis of acceptable decisional premises. Left to their own devices and discretion, public agencies are forced to enter the business of building, maintaining and increasing their political support.

Administrators seek to build strong public relations and mobilize political support by developing a wide range of activities designed to secure enough customer acceptance to survive and if fortunate, develop a consensus adequate to program formulation and execution. If public servants are to succeed, they must understand the political environment in which they operate and the political resources at their disposal.

To varying degrees, dependent on the breadth of acceptance of their programs, officials at every level of significant discretion must take their estimate of the situation, take stock of their resources and plan

accordingly. A keen appreciation of the real components of their organization is the beginning of wisdom. Coordination of government agencies involves far more than changing the behavior and offices of officials. It involves the publics that are implicated in their normal functioning to coordinate fiscal policy, agricultural policy, labor policy, foreign policy and military policy, moves beyond the range of government charts and the habitat of the bureaucrats to the marketplace and to where the people live and work. This suggests that the reason why government reorganization is so difficult is that far more than government in the formal sense is involved in the reorganization.

The fixed character of presidential tenure makes it necessary that subordinates be politically expendable. The President's men must be willing to accept the blame for failures not their own. Machiavelli's teaching on how princes must keep the faith bears rereading. Collective responsibility is incompatible with a fixed term of office.

Administrative Communication: The Concept of Professional Centrality
"Administrative Communication (Or How to Make All the Rest Work): The Concept of Professional Centrality" by James Garnett

In arriving at even the most routine policy decisions, the typical public administrator is a prisoner of a seemingly endless communications network that defies the problem at hand and the possible alternatives. Administrators are normally pressed from many sides with informational and data sources flowing into their offices from their superiors, subordinates, other agencies, citizen groups and the general public. Sometimes the information arrives through routine formal channels; at other times it wells up and trickles down to the administrator via unsolicited routes. Whatever the source, the public decision maker must selectively sort out this information, and in turn, dispense a substantial quantity of information to people within and outside the organizational structure; this is done by memoranda, reports, conferences, phone conversations and informal encounters that touch off a new chain of communications and decisions by others.

One of the major vehicles for achieving coordination and compromise is the communications network. According to Simon, Smithburg and Thomson, the communications network is a process whereby decisional premises are transmitted from one member of an organization to another. The communications network acts principally as an integrating device for bringing together frequently conflicting elements of an organization to secure cooperative group effort.

Three steps are involved in the communications process, first, someone must initiate the communication, second, the command must be transmitted from its source to its destination and third, the communication must impact on the recipient. The information travels in two ways: 1) the formal or planned channels such as memoranda, reports and written communications; and 2) the unplanned or informal ways such as face to face contacts, conferences or phone calls to friends. Simon, Smithburg and Thomson place considerable emphasis on the informal lines of communications that many refer to as the grapevine. In most organizations, the greater part of the information that is used in decision making is informally transmitted.

The central problems in communications are the blockages that occur. Blockages in the communication system constitute one of the most serious problems in public administration. They may occur in any one of the three steps in the communication process: initiation, transmission or reception. Those who have information may fail to those who need the information as a basis of action; those who should transmit

the information may fail to do so; those who receive the information may be unwilling or unable to assimilate it.

Seven critical types of communications blockages in public organizations are enumerated: 1) barriers to language-words are frequently misinterpreted or understood differently as messages pass from one individual to another within an organization. 2) frames of reference-differ so that the perception of information varies among individuals. Personal mental sets thus often prevent accurate comprehension of the problem at hand. 3) status distance-can block communications because as information moves upward or downward through the various hierarchical levels of an organization "a considerable filtering and distorting occurs. 4) geographical distance-impedes the communications process, a far flung department with many field offices spread over the county or the world has great difficulty in ensuring prompt and accurate information exchange among its component units, 5) self protection of the individual who reports actions plays a role in the informational links. Often, information that will evoke a favorable reaction will be played up and the mistakes and fumbles tend to be glossed over. Sometimes the deception is conscious and at other times unconscious, but this activity always serves to distort objective reality. 6) the pressures of work tend to leave important matters overlooked or unreported. 7) the censorship inherent in many governmental activities such as foreign intelligence or military operations limits the accurate flow of information in many public offices.

Selection of the appropriate place for decision making directly depends on how effectively and easily information can be transmitted from its source to a decisional center and how effectively and easily the decision can be transmitted from the decision maker to the point where action will occur. The ease and difficulty of communications may sometimes be a central consideration in determining how far down the administrative line the function of making a particular decision should be located. The authors thus view the communication process not only as determining the outcome of particular decisions but as a prime influence on the structure of decision making within organizations. Extreme decentralization may achieve flexibility and initiative at the local level but may exact costs in terms of uniformity and control of response; organizational responsiveness. Ultimately, the costs associated with delegating such decisional authority within an organizational hierarchy are always relative and are determined by the values and objectives of the organization.

The news making process: The concept of administrative communication typically centers on the news making process. Traditional press relations, now termed as media relations to reflect the broader efforts to report news through television, radio, the Internet and other channels has dominated both the practice and scholarship on government communication – the detriment of our understanding of other key communication processes. Because of its historically central role, however, news making provides a good point of departure. Several trends have begun to revolutionize the news making process. The public increasingly demands direct communication with public officials rather than have interactions filter through reporters, editors, commentators and others.

While public servants at every level have an essential role as communicators, our specialized oriented society has singled out some as professional communicators, whether called press secretary, public information officer, public affairs specialist. Such specialists, as indicated earlier, have traditionally had backgrounds in journalism and were principally involved in media relations role.

Communication Professional can help public administrators with: Strategic planning, policy and program implementation, boundary/environmental scanning, stakeholder analysis, issue marketing, agenda setting, conflict management, communication/information auditing and outcomes assessment.

What is clear is that we now live in a world where virtually every policy decision about personal lifestyle involves more than one organization or has implications for multiple organizations. Three factors contribute to the rise of the inter organizational dimension in public management: 1) economic interdependence, both globally and locally, stimulates interaction among organizations. 2) issue or policy networks through which national policy decisions are made have tended to become larger and more diverse. The shift from primarily direct government provision of public services to provision by more complex more diverse networks of private, public and non profit organizations has profound implications for communication as well as governance. Since this trend is so powerful and will likely continue, the term public sector or public interest, rather than government service is used to refer to these diverse networks of service providers. 3) greater access to information/communication technology and the liberalizing of many political economic and service institutions have enabled looser coupling among traditional hierarchies and recoupling in various ways, many of them inter organizational.

The confidence gap between government and the governed arises because governments have traditionally employed communication practices that have been either unilateral or, if bilateral, more oriented to government's sending messages than to receiving them.

There are several reasons attributed to the failure of unilateral communication approaches. The track record of most governments (and businesses) for generally communicating messages favorable to them and playing down or ignoring unfavorable messages has conditioned citizens to reject or discount what they regard as the same old propaganda. Government's publics, usually without thinking about it, reflect a general finding of communication research that shows people, especially more educated people, tend to reject messages they perceive to be extreme or implausible. People therefore tend to be suspicious of one sided arguments or claims they think are beyond the realm of plausibility. Often lacking true reciprocity in communicating with their governments to voice their preferences or raise the questions, many citizens have taken the most cautious course or the only course open to them- disbelieving the government's message or discounting it. In an era of call in or talk back radio, interactive television and interactive computer communication, where citizens are accustomed to taking an active role, many resent the passive role relegated to them by basically one way communication from government and other public sector organization that maintain a press agency or public information model.

In making decisions about what technologies to utilize, the inherent strengths and weaknesses of various media need to be considered along with the compensating advantages of using multiple media. Reaching hard to reach audiences is another issue that deserves and is getting more attention. Access constitutes another critical issue for determining appropriate communication technologies. The widespread availability of public information on the Internet has increased access for numerous organizations and individuals making it easier, cheaper and faster to acquire information or to do business with government. When utilizing communication technologies, public administrators also need to recognize the ways that people obtain and process information. Because of their potential for richness and interest, stories have always been an integral means to transmit values and heritage in a society.

Effective Management: The Concept of Effective Public Organizations

"Gallopig Elephants: Developing Elements of a Theory of Effective Government Organizations" by Hal Rainey and Paula Steinbauer

A principal cause of the considerable divergence of opinion about organizations thus stems from the specialized vantage points from which observers come to examine human institutions. The economist has a different view than the philosopher, so also the insider versus the outsider and the worker versus the manager. These ideas are not right or wrong; rather, a number of approaches exist for reaching the truth about complex formal organizations.

Public agencies are more likely to perform effectively when there are higher levels of the following conditions:

1. Relations with oversight authorities (legislative, executive, judicial) that are attentive to agency mission accomplishment, supportive and delegative.
2. Relations with other stakeholders characterized by-favorable public opinion and general public support, multiple, influential, modifiable constituent and client groups, effective relations with partners and suppliers (effective management of contracting and contractors, effective utilization of technology and other resources, effective negotiation of networks)
3. Autonomy in operationalization and pursuit of agency mission, but not extremely high levels of autonomy (a curvilinear relationship between autonomy and agency effectiveness)
4. Mission valence (the attractiveness of the mission)-difficult but feasible, reasonable clear and understandable, worthy, worthwhile, legitimate, interesting, exciting, important, influential and distinctive.
5. Strong organizational culture, linked to mission
6. Leadership characterized by-stability (a curvilinear relationship between leadership stability and agency effectiveness), multiplicity-a cadre of leaders, teams of leaders at multiple levels, commitment to mission, effective goal setting in relation to task and mission accomplishment, and effective coping with political and administrative constraints.
7. Task design characterized by-intrinsic motivation (interest, growth, responsibility, service and mission accomplishment) Extrinsic rewards (pay, benefits, promotions, working conditions)
8. Utilization of technology
9. Development of human resources-effective recruitment, selection, placement, training and development; and values preferences among recruits and members that support task and mission motivation.
10. Professionalism among members-special knowledge and skills related to task and mission accomplishment, commitment to task and mission accomplishment
11. Motivation among members-public service motivation, mission motivation and task motivation

The concept of effectiveness refers to whether the agency does well that which it is supposed to do, whether people in the agency work hard and well, whether the actions and procedures of the agency and its members are well suited to achieving their mission and whether the agency actually achieves its mission.

An agency is better able to obtain resources and autonomy of operations when it has interest groups that, in addition to being attentive and interested, are geographically dispersed, diverse along various dimensions (such as demographic makeup), mobilizable and multiple. Agencies will also tend to be more effective when they have favorable public support. More effective agencies also manage well their relations with allies and partners.

Public service motivation can be defined as a general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind. Major social scientists recently have referred to

evolutionary developments that have fostered human beings motives and attitudes conducive to communal and collective behaviors including trust, reciprocity and identification with organizations.

Seeking to refine the conception of public service motives, Perry and Wise (1990) suggest that public service motives can fall into three categories: instrumental motives-including participation in policy formulation, commitment to a public program because of personal identification and advocacy for a special or private interest; normative based motives-including a desire to serve the public interest, loyalty to duty and to government and social equity; and affective motives-including commitment to a program based on a conviction about its social importance and the patriotism of benevolence.

The concept of mission motivation-asserts that members have perceptions of the mission of the agency and may be highly motivated to contribute to the achievement of the mission. When so motivated, an individual will extend effort and seek to perform well in ways that he or she perceives to be related to accomplishing the mission.

Public Personnel Motivation: The Concept of the Public Service Culture
“The Public Service Culture” by Lois Recascino Wise

Public service motivation is more prevalent in government than in business or industry because of the nature and mission of government organizations. Public service motives are important because they provide a value basis for governance especially in three ways: 1) by fostering citizenry educated in the issues and processes of government; 2) incorporating values and not merely facts or analytical techniques, into administrative decision making and 3) encouraging commitment and responsibility for the work of government and its consequences. Wise concludes by suggesting that public managers should make conscious effort to develop a culture of public service throughout the work place for if managers do nothing to promote and reward people who display public service motives we should not expect motives to be important in the organizations they lead.

Public service motivation pertains to the process that causes individuals to perform acts that contribute to the public good as a way of satisfying their personal needs. Acts rooted in the desire to fulfill a public service need can involve the decision to pursue public administration as a field of study and the decision to join an organization that provides opportunities to fulfill public service needs as well as the performance of a set of responsibilities and tasks related to one’s status as an employee or volunteer in an organization. As a form of intrinsic motivation, the potential gain from public service motivation is a function of how individuals expect to feel as a consequence of performing acts of public service.

Human behavior is based on a mix of motives and motives vary over time in their salience to individuals and to society as a whole. By extension, the motives for public service employment should vary among countries and geographic regions and also among units of government that have separate purposes and client groups. Not only can individuals switch among the categories of public service motives altogether as their needs are fulfilled, as their beliefs are proven wrong or as other needs become dominant. Individuals with public service motives are not by definition devoid of other motives and human needs. Worries about job security may pre occupy public service oriented workers during a reduction in force.

Public Service Motivation more prevalent in the public sector-One reason would be that by the nature of their mission and purpose, government organizations overall provide more opportunities for individuals to fulfill public service needs and thus would attract more of those individuals who prioritize their public service motives than would business or industry. Public organizations have separate value orientation.

Education of the citizenry contributes to the bureaucracy's responsibility for engaging the public in the democratic and administrative process and achievement of an enriched sense of community. Education empowers the citizenry. It balances bureaucratic values and engagement as inputs in the administrative process because an educated citizenry is an empowered partner in governance.

Shared values may be the cornerstone of a cohesive public organization. (Meier 1997: 73-74). To the extent that shared values facilitate achieving a common goal among members of an organization, they may be associated with greater commitment to organizational purposes and consequently higher levels of motivation and performance related to achieving those goals. Individuals with congruent values are more likely to have the same assessments regarding which workplace behavior is important.

Engagement means that public servants should not take a passive role in the policy implementation process, for example, but should be fully engaged in the event and able to identify pitfalls and problems that can undermine program success. Engagement according to Frederickson means changing those policies and structures that inhibit social equity. Engagement also means that public servants should think what ought to be done instead of merely doing that which must be done.

Public service motivation does not occur in a vacuum. We have argued that contextual factors related to individual actors, situations, events and the organizations in which behavior occurs influence the strength of public service motivation. This means that to some significant degree both organizations and societies can enhance or reduce the prevalence of public service motivation and in turn, the performance of acts that serve the public good and represent the public interest.

Philippine Administrative Systems

Source: Philippine Administrative System by Ma. Concepcion P Alfiler. UP Open University. Reference material for PA 208

The Philippine administrative system refers to a network of organizations with specific rules and goals, policies, structures, resources and programs. It includes the internal processes of and the interaction between and among, public organizations, which are constituted to implement, help formulate, monitor or assess public policies. This system covers the PA relationship with its immediate public in contact, as well as the PA's reactions to or how it is affected by the greater socio-political and economic environment within which it operates.

Components of the Philippine Administrative System:

1. *Public Organization:* have legal mandates, their major functions and structures through which they implement these major programs and projects are self contained sub systems in themselves.
2. *Internal procedures and interactive efforts:* perform their public functions through defined rules and procedures that are internal to the organization. They have policies that govern their working relationship with other government offices.
3. *PAs responsible for implementing public policies:* formulated jointly by the legislative and executive branches. It is in the course of the day-to-day operations that the soundness of some policies is actually tested. Some unanticipated problems that emerge when policies are carried out are helpful in the revision of these laws or in the formulation of new ones.
4. *PAs must be conscious of the different kinds of public or clientele that it deals with.*

5. *Socio-political Economic Environment:* PAs is part of a bigger social system where there are competing claims to limited resources and institutions play a role in determining how these resources will be utilized. This environment is the source of demands and pressures on the state for services, information or enforcement of existing laws.

Sources of power of the PAs:

1. *Instrument of the state:* PAs in the machinery through which the functions of government are exercised legitimately and are fully supported by enabling state policies, which confer authority on its action.
2. *Enforcer and implementor of public policy:* most laws stipulate how they are to be enforced, specify sanctions, and even establish behavioral norms that must be observed by enforcers. PAs has discretion as to how it carries out policies and enforces the law.
3. *PAs as a service delivery system:* it utilizes its authority, structure and resources to produce specific services that it extends to a clientele group. PAs exercises discretion as it determines the quantity, quality, adequacy and timeliness of the service it provides.
4. *Participant in policy formulation:* the knowledge that it has acquired as implementor and its expertise in highly technical areas are the primary reasons why the PAs advice is sought in legislation and other forms of policy making.
5. *Technical Expertise of the PAs:* most civil servants were hired for their professional training in their respective areas of competence; they must deal with highly technical questions linked to policy issues.
6. *Nationwide presence of PAs:* it has an expansive reach through which it can mobilize support for its programs from all over the country. This network also provides the PAs with a wide base for its operations that can be utilized for any interagency effort. It is crucial that the PAs consciously acknowledge the people as the ultimate source of its power.

Capability building – refers to the building of people based structures and institutions which is the real essence of the concept. Capability building means enabling the people to organize themselves around common needs and to work together towards common ends. It is addressed to policy makers, to the program implementor and to the program beneficiary of development programs. The model can serve as a common frame of reference among those engaged in development work, reduce the gaps between planner and implementor, and hasten the pace of things. The model is an educational one. The change agent's primary role is that of a trainer or a non formal educator whose main task is to equip his learners with basic tools in change management so that they can readily adapt to changing needs. The model cannot work unless the larger system to which the client community belongs fully endorses and supports its implementation. Since the model is essentially a learning by doing exercise, the principle of reinforcement must be reckoned with.

Stages of the Capability Building Process:

1. Problem identification
2. Objective setting
3. Program planning
4. Structure building

Output of the capability building process:

1. Effective self-sustaining community organizations
2. Installation of community self management process

3. Partnership/linkage with outside structures
4. Community problem solving capability

Utilizing PAs to empower the people: 1) institutionalizes access to PAs services, 2) decentralizes and makes operations transparent, 3) it listens and works with the people, and 4) procedures should be made simple and the local language should be used.

Political and Administrative Accountability

Accountability is defined as a condition in which individuals who exercise power are constrained by external means and by internal norms. Accountability refers to the institution of checks and balances in an organization through which an administrator accounts for his stewardship of resources or authority. The political administrative continuum-means that elected officials are politically accountable to the electorate or their constituencies who voted them to their positions. These elected officials are held responsible through regular elections and other means such as recall and referendum. Appointive public officials answer to the people through the elected officials who appointed them and directly to the public whom they serve.

Four types of accountability:

1. *Individual accountability*-public employees are answerable for the responsible, efficient and effective performance of their tasks
2. *Accountability of administrators*-administrators are accountable for their stewardship of the administrative authority, resources and information placed at their disposal as leaders of public organization.
3. *Political accountability*-accountability of institutions that must answer for their organizational mandate and functions, particularly as they form part of the incumbent government's strategy for national development
4. *Accountability of national leaders*-national leadership, specifically elected national officials, must answer for the performance in pursuing their programs of government and their use of national resources, given the authority, power and resources vested in them by their constituency.

Code of Ethics for Public Officials: RA 6713 Code of Conduct and Ethical Standards for Public Officials and Employees

Conflict of Interests-arises when a public official or employee is a member of a board, an officer, or a substantial stockholder of a private corporation, owner, or one who has substantial interest in a business and the interest of such corporation or business may be opposed to or affected by the faithful performance of official duty. The Code incorporates the following standards: commitment to public interests, professionalism, justness and sincerity, political neutrality, responsiveness to the public, nationalism and patriotism, commitment to democracy and simple living.

PAs structure

1. Constitutional bodies-Civil Service Commission, Commission of Audit, Commission of Elections are constitutional commission, while the Commission of Human Rights and Ombudsman are considered as constitutionally mandated special bodies.
2. Executive Departments
3. Government Owned and Controlled Corporations-refers to any agency organized as a stock or non stock corporation vested with functions relating to public needs whether governmental or

proprietary in nature and owned by the government directly or through its instrumentalities either wholly or where applicable as the case or stock corporations, to the extent of at least 51% of its capital stock; provided that government owned and controlled corporations may be further categorized by the Department of Budget and Management, the Civil Service and Commission of Audit for purposes of the exercise and discharge of their respective powers, function and responsibilities with respect to such corporations.

4. Chartered Institutions-refers to nay agency organized or operating under a special charter and vested by law with functions relating to specific constitutional policies and objectives. This term includes the state universities and colleges and the monetary authority of the state
5. Local Government Units (see separate section for a more detailed discussion on LGUs)

Administrative relationships-when an office is under the supervision and control of another unit, it means that the higher office 1) has authority to act directly, whenever the specific function is entrusted by law or regulation to a subordinate; 2) directs the performance of duty; 3) restrains the commission of acts; 4) reviews, approves, reverse or modifies acts or decisions of subordinate officials and units; 5) determines priorities in the execution of plans and programs; and 6) prescribes standards, guidelines plans and programs.

Administrative supervision-1) to oversee the operations of such agencies and to insure that they are managed effectively, efficiently and economically but without interference with day to day activities; 2) require the submission of reports and cause the conduct of management audit, performance evaluation and inspection to determine rectification of violations, abuses and other forms of administration; and 3) review and pass upon budget proposal of such agencies but may not increase or add to them. The LTFRB is a regulatory body that is part of the DOTC. The LTFRB exercises quasi-judicial power and functions with regards to land transportation. This body is under the administrative supervision of the DOTC.

Attachment-1) having the department represented in the governing board of the attached agency or corporation either as chairman or as a member, with or without voting rights, if permitted by the charter; 2) having the attached corporation or agency comply with a system of period reporting, which shall reflect the progress of programs and projects; and 3) having the department or its equivalent provide general policies through its representative in the board, which shall serve as the framework for the internal policies of the attached corporation or agency. The DA has a number of attached agencies that include-the Fertilizer and Pesticide Authority; the National Dairy Administration; the Sugar Regulatory Administration and the National Irrigation Administration.

Government reorganization: are planned deliberate efforts to systematically alter the existing organizational structure usually for the purpose of achieving government objectives with more economy, efficiency and effectiveness.

Pre-planning of organization: 1) how the reorganization is initiated; 2) who is the authority vested with reorganization; 3) setting goals and tasks; 4) defining the powers to reorganize and outline the scope; and 5) setting resources.

Preparation of reorganization proposals: 1) constituting the reorganization body; 2) preparing the reorganization proposals; 3) recruiting support and staff; and creating the information base for preparation of their proposal.

The final stage is the passage of a law that grants the authority to implement the reorganization process.

Budget preparation

Determining budgetary parameters through the Development Budget Coordination Committee composed of the DBM, DOF, NEDA, BSP and OP. The committee 1) recommends the level of annual government expenditure program and ceiling of government spending for economic and social development, national defense, general government and debt service; 2) the proper allocation of expenditures for each development activity between current operating expenditures and capital outlay; and 3) the amount set to be allocated for capital outlay under each development activity for the various capital or infrastructure projects. The DBCC sets the budget ceilings consistent with macroeconomic targets as presented in the MTDP.

Once the budget parameters are approved the DBM issues the budget call, which defines the budget framework. The call is issued in the form of a National Budget Circular. Budget hearings-upon receipt of the budget call, agencies then issue their own internal office guidelines to prepare budgetary estimates along the broad framework established by the policy guidelines.

Budget review and consolidation-after the agency hearings, modifications and revisions of the agency budget proposals may be made. The DBM then consolidates the results of these changes and clears with the President through the DBCC, the policy issues arising from these hearings. After these issues are resolved, the President may then authorize the DBM to estimate total expenditures and reconcile these with revenue estimates.

Budget validation and confirmation-after consolidation of the agencies' budget proposal into the national budget, this is subjected further to evaluation and validation within the DBM, which undertakes a comprehensive policy review of all agency and special purpose fund budgets. The results are then sent to the DBCC for examination.

Approval by the President and Cabinet, then the approved budget is forwarded to Congress. Aside from the President's budget message, other documents submitted to Congress include the Budget of Expenditure and Sources of Financing (BESF), the National Expenditure Program and the Regional Expenditure Program.

The second phase of the budget process entails the conversion of the President's budget proposal into law. The approved law is then referred to as the General Appropriations Act (GAA).

Budget Execution: 1) formulation of allotment and cash release program-based on the approved appropriations act, the government prepares the allotment and cash release program and calls for the agencies to submit their agency budget matrix; 2) Agency Budget Matrix Preparation-spells out their financial requirements in relation to their program of activities; 3) Agency Budget Matrix Validation and Confirmation-the DBM reviews the agencies' budget matrix with their agency's annual budget and the requirements of their programs and projects; 4) SARO/NCA releases-using the ABMs submitted by the various agencies as their basis, the DBM then issues the Special Allotment Release Order (SARO) and the corresponding Notice of Cash Allocation (NCA) to the agencies. The NCAs are released based on a) the financial requirements indicated in the ABM; b) the amount indicated in the SARO; c) a summary list of checks issued and cancelled; and d) the cash available at the Bureau of Treasury; and 5) Program/project implementation-upon receipt of the funds, the agencies then use these to carry out their regular

programs and projects. It involves monitoring and control of the level of cash disbursement and balances to prevent undesirable levels of cash floats.

The final phase of the budget process is designed to establish accountability of the government agencies that have received public funds. This is done largely through a system of monitoring the agencies performance and evaluating this vis-à-vis initially set and approved work targets. Agencies are required to submit financial and physical reports on their operations, which provide information on their actual accomplishments in relation to the expenses they incurred. Moreover, the DBM and the Commission on Audit also conducted performance reviews and audit of the agencies financial records.

The Philippine Civil Service

As of 1998, the Philippine civil service had 1.4 million public officers or 1.98% of the total population. Statistics show that the country employs one civil servant to attend to the needs to 51 Filipinos or a ratio of 19:1,000. This proportion is much lower than Singapore's 23:1,000. Principles of the civil service 1) equality of opportunity; 2) open competition for positions; 3) standardized compensation; 4) career advancement. Political neutrality-no officer or employee in the civil service engages, directly or indirectly in any electioneering or partisan political campaign.

Source: "Stability and Change: The Civil Service in the Philippines" by Jose Endriga in UPNCPAG Reader

The civil service in the Philippines as we know today is a creation of the American regime in the country.

The Spanish colonial regime: There were two conventional ways of disposing of public offices: by appointment and by purchase. Belonging to the first group were positions that had judicial functions. The highest colonial positions of viceroy, governor-general, members of the Audiencia and provincial executives were supposed to be filled by appointment. In practice though, many of them were acquired by purchase. Criticisms against the system of sale single out two things: the incompetence of the office holders and their capacity. The first one resulted from the fact that although one of the requirements for a bidder was to be qualified for the position, in practice an office was generally awarded to the highest bidder. The necessity of raising revenue, which after all was the original purpose of the practice, almost always prevailed over other consideration.

Being a colonial bureaucracy, the Spanish regime in the Philippines was a subordinate government. As such the colonial government was dependent in all things upon the home government. This set-up was conducive to the emergence of continuing administrative problems. On the one hand, the distance of the colony, aggravated of course at the time by the slow means of transportation, made constant supervision and control a practical impossibility. Hence colonial officials were given ample grants of power and discretion.

Two specific devices were utilized to emphasize the subordinate position of the colonies and to constitute checks on the behavior of colonial bureaucrats. One of this was the institution of the visitador-general; an official sent out by the Council of the Indies in Spain and vested with investigatory, judicial and executory powers. He had authority to conduct a visita or investigation of the highest officials of the colonies. The latter were answerable for the state of government, justice, finance, defense, religion, and the condition of the Indios in their jurisdictions.

The other device was the residencia, which required bureaucrats to render, at the end of their terms, an account of their conduct while in office. At the end of an official's term, his superiors, colleagues as well private person, can file charges against him. Another characteristic of the Spanish regime that contributed to its weakness was its highly centralized organization. The centralization was, first of all, on a formal institutional level, personalized in the powerful position of the Governor General.

The lowest level of Filipino participation in the colonial bureaucracy was the position of cabeza de barangay. He was a member of the native principalia from whose ranks were drawn the Filipino bureaucrats. *The cabeza's main responsibility was to look after the peace and order of his barangay, to see to the enforcement of the polos y servicios and to collect the tributes of the inhabitants of his jurisdiction.* In his capacity as tribute-collector, he was an agent of the Royal Hacienda, which required him to post a bond, in the form of goods or property, which will be confiscated in case he failed to remit his collections within the allotted time. As compensation for his responsibility, the cabeza was entitled to one and one half of his tribute collection.

The American colonial regime: The administration of the colony was placed in the hands of a non-political civil service. The passage of the Civil Service Act in September 1900-establishment of the Civil Service Board, which had administrative control of the system, was an independent office under the immediate supervision and control of the Governor General.

Competitive examinations were required for original entrance into the Civil Service, as well as promotions. The Civil Service Act prohibited any inquiry into the political or religious views and affiliations of examinees and employees, whether for appointment or promotion. Moreover, direct or indirect solicitation, collection or receipt of political contributions by and from employees were strictly prohibited. Persons appointed contrary to the Civil Service Act were not entitled to receive salary and appointing officers involved were personally responsible for compensating them. Competent and qualified employees, if available within the service, were to be promoted to the positions of chief or assistant chief of bureau.

The Filipinization of the civil service: Filipino participation in the civil service was going to increase even further after 1913 when political conditions would usher the Democrats into power, who would there after pursue a policy that would hasten even further the tendencies towards Filipinization. This particular approach was seen in the administrations of Democrats that include Francis Burton Harrison and Leonard Wood.

The constitutional provision was followed up by specific pieces of legislation that further strengthened the civil service. One of these passed in 1936, elevated the Bureau of Civil Service from a second class to a first class bureau. The office of the Director of Civil Service was changed to Commissioner of Civil Service, with the rank of Undersecretary of Department.

There were two other important initiatives undertaken during the Commonwealth period that have proven their worth. One of these was the creation of the Government Service and Insurance System in November 1936. Prior to the organization of the GSIS, there was no retirement law worthy of the name. *The other was the setting up of a Government Survey board to assess the government's administrative and organizational resources.* The board discovered serious faults in the recruitment and position classification systems.

The emergence of the two party system (Nacionalista and Liberal) led to the vulnerability of the bureaucracy to partisan politics. In the late 1940s, politicians respected the security of tenure of civil servants, but vacancies in the newly created Department of Foreign Affairs and temporary positions in the Department of Public Works and Communications became the outlet of the spoil system.

Concerned over the general state of the country, the Philippine government in 1950 requested the United States government to send a mission to survey Philippine conditions and to recommend measures that will enable the Philippines to become and to remain self-supporting. Known as the Bell Mission, the survey group rendered a dismal report on the condition of the country. Initiatives undertaken the Bell Mission-established in 1952 in the University of the Philippines under joint contract between the State University and the University of Michigan, the Institute of Public Administration carried on a four fold program which included an academic curriculum, in-service training, research and consultation services.

Another initiative of the Bell Mission-the organization of the Government Survey and Reorganization Committee (GSRC) in 1954. The GSRC was given the broad mandate to 1) promote the better execution of the laws and the more effective management of the government and the expeditious administration of the public business, and 2) to increase the efficiency of the operations of the government to the fullest extent as possible. Among the GSRC plans implemented with far reaching consequences for the civil service were on: 1) position classification, 2) standard pay plan, and 3) the creation of the Wage and Position Classification Office (WAPCO).

The Civil Service Act of 1959-provisions of the Act: 1) Changed the Bureau of Civil Service into the Civil Service Commission; 2) created a full time Civil Service Board to act as appellate body in administrative cases decided by the Civil Service Commissioner; 3) provided for the creation of personnel offices and personnel officer positions in various branches of the government; 4) authorized agencies to have appropriate training staff and to establish their own in-service training programs in accordance with standards laid down by the Commission; 5) provided an improved performance rating system as well as an improved promotion system; 6) considered immorality and improper solicitation of contributions from subordinates and school children as grounds for disciplinary action.

The 50-50 Plan: violations of civil service rules and regulations, such as the 50-50 Plan demonstrate do not, however, cover the full range of graft and corruption that came to characterize the 1950s and 1960s. It can be said to describe as permeating all levels of society. In 1960, the Anti-Graft and Corrupt Practices Act was passed after rough sailing in Congress. It was considered a more comprehensive and potent piece of legislation. The law listed eleven acts of public officials as constituting corrupt acts, aside from those already prohibited by existing laws.

The Martial Law Regime: The Integrated Reorganization Plan (IRP)-a reorganization plan implemented under the term of President Marcos. Features of the IRP: 1) decentralizes the national government to the extent necessary for improved administration by reducing the number of agencies directly under the supervision of the Office of the President and establishing eleven uniform regional districts; 2) standardized the organization and common operational activities of departments. Staff services were standardized into four: planning, finance and management, administrative and technical services; 3) facilitated the preparation and execution of national development programs by merging the National Economic Council and the Presidential Economic Staff into a single planning entity, which became the National Economic and Development Authority; and 4) generated savings through methods as the abolition, transfer of functions and mergers of agencies.

Reinforcing the innovative thrusts of the IRP, as well as the numerous presidential issuances that followed in its wake, was the three-year "Civil Service Development Plan" issued in 1975. Called an integrated approach in the government, it stresses the supportive role of the personnel system in program administration. It has identified five priority areas: career and personnel development, performance evaluation, administrative discipline, recruitment and examination and review of policies. The Plan supplies a detailed work program with specific targets.

The CSC instituted the *JET (Junior Executive Training)* aims to promote managerial effectiveness, professionalism, dedication to public service and awareness of the central role of the civil service in national development. The perceived success of the JET program has inspired the design and implementation of a follow up program, the STREAM (Supervisory Training for Effective Administrative Management). In the area of evaluation, the CSC initiated the organization of *Performance Evaluation Committees (PECS)* that in 1976 undertook an extensive assessment of the entire civil service.

Interventions made to mitigate graft and corruption during the Martial Law regime-establishment of the Tanod Bayan (Ombudsman) and a special court, the Sandigan Bayan. Both are independent of the President and are assured of organizational stability by Constitutional provisions, which make them different from previous anti-graft agencies.

Source: "Public Administration in the Philippines Heritage, History and Hubris" by Dr. Danilo Reyes

Institutional and behavioral characteristics of both western and non-western administrative systems. PA development similar to that of the US-economic dislocation brought about by war, strife and unrest, rigors and challenges of having reform the civil service and public administration practices

Emergence of the sultanate in the 15th century, there are formal structures during the pre-colonial era
Spanish colonial regime

1. The Spanish bureaucracy: colonies were divided into las indias governed by viceroys or governor general. The clergy exacted much influence on the civilian and unitary authorities in secular affairs. Introduced a process of system revenues and public expenditures.
2. Privileged class of bureaucrats (predominantly Spanish) public offices regarded as grants and favors based on their contribution and loyalty
3. Practice of filling appointments as basis of purchase where offices were sold to the highest bidder, regarded as opportunities of making money, purchase of offices are treated as private investments

Advent of the new Constitution in 1848, Mabini espoused merit, careerism and principle of accountability in civil service

American colonial regime: 1900 Philippine Commission-separated the affairs of the state and church, political neutrality, security of tenure and profesionalization

Filipinization of the civil service became the basic administrative policy-establishment of an educational system, brought prestige-their positions demanded strict qualifications, educated class, Americans introduced a civil service that replicated their own system

Philippine Commonwealth: 1935 Constitution-the Bureau of Civil Service in Article 5 was given increased powers, full and exclusive authority to conduct formal investigations against civil service personnel. Civil service-implementation of social justice program and economic development.

Japanese occupation-administrative personnel in the Civil Service demanded collaboration with the Japanese, non compliance with the Japanese is seen as a form of nationalism

Rehabilitation: after the war, Senator Tydings sponsored by the Philippine Rehabilitation law, the Philippines is regarded as a large market and trading partner, an ally in Asia for their political interest

1950: US Economic and survey mission-Daniel Bell “that public administration be improved and recognized so as to ensure honesty and efficiency in the government, that the civil service be placed on a merit basis and civil service salaries raised to provide a decent standard of living”.

Counterpart mission by Jose Yulo-requested the American government to provide technical assistance for projects to stabilize the economy and strengthen public service-the establishment of Institute of Public Administration was proposed

Public administration as a discipline was thus shaped at a time of crisis and transition

1952: University of Michigan-James Pollock and John Ledule assigned to evaluate the feasibility of IPA.
1954: Dean Jose Velmonte (UP College of Business Administration) IPA director funds came from the bilateral aid agreement between the US and Philippines.

Building a public administration library, educational program (In service training program for government workers and undergraduate and graduate programs), research and publication of PA literature.

Public administration did not evolve out of some disciplinary diaspora from the fields in social sciences, did not have a firm and definitive tradition. PA is confronted with problems obtaining in the practice of the profession, as a discipline to address administrative weaknesses and inadequacies of the republic, PA focus on the internal structure, management functions. PA never competed with political science.

Structures of PA: 1) Administrative management design; 2) Decentralization and local administration movement; 3) Challenge of National Development and Development Administration Model; 4) Administrative Reform and Accountability; and, 5) Social Reform Movement

Source: “The Nature and State of Local Government” by Prosperina Domingo Tapales in UPNCPAG Reader

Although a distinctive element of local government is territorial boundary of operation, local governments should not be confused with field units of the national governments. Field offices perform specific governmental functions in designated areas and the nature of their delegated functions is administrative. (Fesler 1949) Local governments perform a number of services and the authority they exercise is political in nature. LGU political powers include the power of legislation through locally elected or selected councils, which also exercise the power of taxation. Field offices perform functions and exercise supervision through the issuance of administrative orders.

The heads of field offices are appointed, generally by the head of the national agency or ministry. To them are delegated certain powers, like the appointment of subordinate field employees and budget accountability. On the other hand, local government officials make political decisions, like earmarking revenues for different projects for the public good. These decisions generally take the form of ordinances.

Local governments may be distinguished from special purpose authorities in terms of functions. Special purpose authorities perform only one (or limited) function. Some have elective members like the School Boards in the US, while others have appointive members, like the police operating in local areas. Local governments, on the other hand, perform multiple functions. Most of them have elective Councils while others have appointive representatives of the central government.

Local governments are municipal corporations. A municipal corporation in its strict and proper sense, is the body of politic and corporate constituted by the incorporation of the inhabitants of a city or town for the purpose of local government. Municipal corporations are established by law partly as an agent of the state to assist in the civil government of the country but chiefly to regulate and administer the local internal affairs of the city, town or district incorporated. The power to create municipal corporations is inherently in sovereignty. The Constitution generally provides for the manner of creation of municipal corporations, but that power is usually vested in the legislature, which in turn has no power to delegate its authority, but it usually recognizes the existence of communities' existing corporate power.

Local governments are to act as the vehicle of local democracy, providing services responsive to local needs and conditions. On the other hand, local governments must constitute the local branch of the nation state administrative apparatus, executing state policies in key policy areas. Thus local governments exist for the dual purposes of providing for greater people's participation as they provide services consistent with national policies. *Local governments also provide a better understanding of the relationship between the desired project objectives and the resources available to implement them.* In the process of mobilizing local resources they also promote participation of the people. (Siedentopf 1987:27). Local government is a means of dividing functions, powers and services by area. It is also a means by which people identify themselves individually and with each other, especially in ethnically homogenous communities.

According to Siedentopf, deconcentration means the redistribution of administrative responsibilities only within the central government "agency", while devolution "is the strengthening or creation of independent levels and units of government". In devolution, local governments are perceived to be separate levels over which central authorities exercise less or no direct control.

The extent of local autonomy varies according to the policies of the central government units as well as to the capability of respective local government units to exercise devolved powers. For instance, the central government may authorize local units to levy certain taxes, but the ability of the local units to tap these services and to fund activities from these new sources depends on their availability in the community. Thus, national development is a goal achieved through an effective partnership between the central and local governments, each one performing a service as an aspect of a function, which it can adequately perform.

Tiers of local government: In the Philippines there are several levels of local authority. The province is the intermediate unit, providing supervision to the municipalities and component cities under it and

performing services for the national government. The basic units of local government or those performing services for the people who live together in a community are the cities and municipalities. The Philippines is one of the few countries with a submunicipal unit, the barangay, which provides the opportunity for face-to-face interaction among the people.

Local governments are authorized by law to impose certain taxes to support their activities. However, their main source of revenue is the internal revenue tax, which is shared by the national government with them. The Code raises their share of these taxes from 20% to 40%. It also modifies the sharing scheme by providing for the following: 34% to the municipalities; 23% to the cities; 23% to the provinces; and, 20% to the barangays.

Internal Revenue Allotments (IRA) are also divided according to the following criteria: 50% by population, 25% by area, and 25% in terms of equal sharing. Barangays did not share from the IRA before. Local units impose the real property tax and much depends on their assessment and collection efficiency. Assessments depend on the type of land. They also tax business. Cities and municipalities impose the amusement tax. Barangay clearance is now needed before permits can be given by the cities and municipalities for business.

Major human resources concerns for LGUs: 1) the clamor by local employees for salaries comparable to those being received by their counterpart employees from national government, particularly the health workers; 2) Ceilings on budget for personal services; 3) lack of human resource management and development office that shall spearhead HR planning and implementation in the LG; 4) lack of adequate career development plans and capability building programs including management development; 5) outdated job designs and performance review systems; and 6) need for changes in recruitment and promotion policies and processes.

Criteria for the creation of LGUs based on the 1991 LG Code

LGUs	Population	Land Area	Income
Province	250,000	2,000 sq. km.	P20M
City	150,000	100 sq. km	P20M
Municipality	25,000	50 sq. km.	P2.5M
Barangay	2,000		
Highly Urbanized Centers (HUCs)	200,000		P50M

Source: “Decentralized Democratic Governance Under the Local Government Code: A Governmental Perspective” by Alex Brillantes Jr.

Decentralization according to Raul De Guzman “generally refers to the systematic and rational dispersal of power, authority and responsibility from the center to the periphery, from top to lower levels or from the national to local governments. There are two major reasons why governments decentralize. First decentralization hastens decision-making process by decongesting central government and reducing red tape and more important it increases citizen participation and empowers them thereby leading to a more open and democratic government.

Decentralization may take three major forms: deconcentration, devolution and debureaucratization.

Deconcentration involves the transfer of functions to lower level administrative units designated by the central office. It is essentially a management tool to decongest the central office and spare it from having to act on matters including routine and administrative matters, that may be best addressed at local levels. However, final and substantive authority still rests in the central authorities. Deconcentration is administrative in nature.

Devolution involves the transfer of powers and authorities to lower level political or local government units. A local government essentially has the following major features: it has an elected local executive; it has an elected local legislative that passes local laws/ordinances; it has specific taxing powers and it has jurisdiction over a certain defined geographical area. The notion of devolution has always been related to local autonomy. Devolution is political in nature.

Debureaucratization involves the transfer of powers and authorities to units not within the purview of government. This involves the transfer of such powers and authorities to non-governmental organizations and people's organizations, including the private sector, all of which are collectively called civil society. Debureaucratization also harnesses the energies of the private sector to bring about good governance.

The Local Government Code

It devolves to the local government units the responsibility for the delivery of various aspects of basic services that earlier were the responsibility of the national government. These basic services include the following: health (field health and hospital services and other tertiary services); environment (community based forestry projects), agriculture (agricultural extension and on side research); public works (funded by local funds); education (school building program); tourism (facilities, promotion and development); telecommunications services and housing projects (for provinces and cities) and other services such as investment support.

It devolves to local governments the responsibility for the enforcement of certain regulatory powers. These include the following: the reclassification of agricultural lands; enforcement of environmental laws; inspection of food products and quarantine; enforcement of national building code; operation of tricycles; processing and approval of subdivision plans; and establishment of cockpits and holding of cockfights.

The devolution of local governments of the responsibility for the delivery of the basic services, including the enforcement of some regulatory and licensing functions has indeed transformed the very operations and nature of the local government units. The devolution entailed not only the transfer of powers and responsibilities, but also equipment, assets and personnel. To a certain extent, this has led to some kind of administrative shock on the part of some local governments giving rise to the proposal that the implementation of devolution should somehow be phased or gradually implemented in some kind of pilot fashion.

The Code also provides the legal and institutional infrastructure for the participation of civil society in local governance. More specifically, it allocates to POs and NGOs specific seats in local special bodies as mandatory. These special bodies include the local development council, the local school board. Because of their ability to organize and mobilize people, one door wide open for NGO and PO participation in governance is in the area of promoting local accountability and answerability, specifically through the recall and people's initiative provisions.

The Code increases financial resources available to local government units (LGUs). Specifically, the Code: a) broadens their taxing powers; b) provides them with a specific share from the national wealth exploited in their area, e.g. mining, fishery, and forestry charges; and, c) increases their share from the national taxes. i.e. from a previous low 11% to as much as 40% share in the Internal Revenue Allotment. The Code also increases the elbowroom of local governments to generate revenues from local fees and charges. Indeed the local financial resources available to LGUs after increasing their share from the IRA have increased significantly.

The Code laid the foundation for the development and evolution of more entrepreneurial oriented local government. It provided the foundation for local governments to enter into build operate transfer arrangements with the private sector, float bonds, obtain loans from local private institutions, etc., all within the context of encouraging them to be more business like and competitive in their operations in contradistinction to traditional government norms and operations.

Local autonomy would mean less reliance upon the national government, including allotments made by the national government and more independence upon internally generated resources jointly generated with other institutions, be they other local government units, private institutions, etc. It is within this context that the Code encourages LGUs to be more aggressive and entrepreneurial. Going into business with the private sector and where appropriate, adapting private sector strategies, techniques and technologies to generate resources and thereby enable them to deliver the much-needed basic service to the people are encouraged by the Code

Experience has shown that implementing the provisions of the Local Government Code has not been exactly smooth sailing, considering there were a number of intervening factors (anticipated and unanticipated that hampered its implementation.

These included the conduct of simultaneous local and national elections in 1992, the resistance of certain devolved agencies to devolution (mostly the Department of Health) and the subsequent moves to recentralize the health sector as advocated by certain members of Congress; the unequal distribution of financial resources (specifically the IRA) as a result of a not-so studied distribution formula among the various levels of local governments with the cities gaining a windfall and municipalities and provinces not being able to afford the cost of devolution; lags in the release of the IRA shares of LGUs, hence the proposal that these should be automatically appropriated to the LGUs; operationalizing devolution; the continuing need to define and clarify intergovernmental relations, i.e. national-local, local-local, all within the framework of subsidiarity; hesitation among NGOs and POs to participate in local governance due to continuing distrust between the government and non government sectors; and general lack of information about the Code among various stakeholders.

It is important not to lose sight of the fact that we come from a tradition of over centralization. This has been manifested in the long entrenched bureaucratic structures, processes and procedures. Thus in the face of the Local Government Code of 1991, it is urgent that we remain cognizant of the fact that that there continue to be lags in the implementation processes. These include bureaucratic institutions, systems, procedures and mindsets suffering from the inertia of excessive centralization.

In operationalizing reforms, it is imperative that we learn from the implementers themselves, the frontline local officials who are in the trenches, so to speak. This means learning from the innovative and creative practices developed at the local level.

It is important to understand that the IRA is not equivalent to the national budget but only a small percentage of the same. The IRA increased the budgets of local governments.

Earlier studies conducted for the Local Development Assistance Program (LDAP) concluded that provinces and municipalities essentially lost out in the process: despite devolution and in spite of the increased shares of local governments from national taxes, the amounts transferred to them through the IRA have not been sufficient to cover the cost of devolution, the bulk of which went to salaries of personnel devolved to them. The other (more contemporary) issue pertains to the relative size of the IRA compared to the national budget.

Source: “Participatory Governance: The Philippine Experience” by Prosperina Domingo Tapales in UPNCPAG Reader

People’s participation in governance is achieved through the expansion of membership of the Local Development Councils (LDCs) and the creation of other special bodies, which include representatives from the NGOs/POs and the private sector. The Local Development Councils plan and prioritize local programs and projects. They exist at the lowest level (barangay), the basic level (city and municipality) and the provincial level.

The LDCs are mandated to include members from accredited NGOs to comprise as many one fourth of the membership. Other special bodies where people through NGOs and the private sector are involved are the Local School Board, the Local Health Board, the Prequalification of Bids and Awards Committee, and the Peace and Order Council. In the local legislatures, the Presidents of the Barangay Association and the Youth from the women, workers and other sectors identified by the local council has not been institutionalized.

Thus people participate in local governance in many ways. At the village level people have direct access to inexpensive and less tedious justice, where conciliation is effected by their peers. Village people also gather in general assemblies to discuss issues and approve barangay budgets and reports. People participate in governance through the political exercises of voting, sectoral representation of the village and the exercise of initiative and recall, however limited, in the referendums affecting the status of their community. In local special bodies, people participate through their accredited organizations. Of course, the degree of people’s participation depends on the area-the local political leaders who encourage participation and embark on programs which promote government-people partnership, and the active leadership of the NGOs and POs. When government and the community achieve an active partnership, local programs and projects become successful at the local level abound.

Aware of the powers provided by the Local Government Code to allow local government officials to be creative and innovative in the formulation and implementation of programs and projects, several governmental and non-governmental bodies have initiated awards to encourage local governments and communities to exercise full use of those powers. Among the more prestigious awards are the Galing Pook (Good Local Area), HAMIS (Health and Management Information System), Clean and Green, Konrad Adenauer Medal of Excellence (KAME) and Pamana ng Lahi (Heritage)

Source: “Reforming the government: New Concepts and Practices in Local Public Administration in the Philippines” by Mila A Reforma in UPNCPAG Reader

Decentralization

With respect to financial management, the financial aspect of the devolved functions was, likewise, decentralized to local government units. In addition, local units were given the power to enhance their financial resources by allowing them to increase their rates of tax impositions. Aside from these, their share of the IRA, which represents the shares of provinces, cities and municipalities and barangays from the total collection of national taxes, was increased from 20 to 40% but on a staggered basis, that is, 30% on the first year of the implementation of the New Code (1992), 35% on the second year (1993) and 40% on the succeeding year and onwards (1994 and beyond). All these measures are supposed to lead to fiscal autonomy of the LGUs.

Planning and goal setting is another aspect devolved to local governments. In the past, local development planning had always been subjected to central controls but, with the enactment of the new Code, local units were given a free hand in charting their own development paths. Thus, the requirements that local government submits to the central government, particularly the Department of Interior and Local Governments, their development plans for review has been scrapped. In order to emphasize the importance of local planning, the new Code mandates the creation of the Planning and Development Coordinator position for every local government unit. This officer is responsible for preparing comprehensive plans to be submitted to the local development councils for review; conducting studies, researches and training programs related to planning and implementing local development programs; analyzing income and expenditure patterns and formulating fiscal plans.

Privatization:

Since 1986, the target privatization policy was the 296 government corporations and their subsidiaries and more or less, the same number of non performing assets. The implementation of the privatization policy was lodged in two government agencies: the Committee on Privatization (COP) an interagency committee which is the policy making body which approves and decides the sale, abolition, merger, regularization, privatization and retention of government corporations and their subsidiaries and the disposition of the non performing assets and the Asset Privatization Fund (APF), the marketing arm of the COP concerned with the actual sale/disposition of the non-performing assets or the government corporations approved for sale/disposition by the COP.

The APF was given five years to dispose of non performing assets. In 1992 the life of the APF was extended. While the sale/disposition of assets was substantial during the six year period, there were difficulties in the sale of other assets. Furthermore, the government suffered substantial losses in the sale of these assets because the liabilities/transfer price/book value of the assets far exceeded the market value.

Behest loans of these non-performing assets were estimated at P147 billion. Most sales recovered only about 30 to 50% of transfer value to the government. Moreover, the government still had to service the liabilities of the behest loans. While some government corporations and their subsidiaries are slated for privatization, the capital market is very limited and there are limited takers. Also very few government corporations are profit generating and so only few corporations have been privatized.

The Built Operate and Transfer Law: it allows the private sector to construct, own, maintain, operate and manage infrastructure projects. This opens the doors to active participation by the private sector in

development/infrastructure projects of the government such as roads, highways, expressways, ports, harbors, airports, industrial estates, solid waste management and telecommunications. Contracting out through the BOT has also been set as a policy for power generation projects. The most advantageous aspect of contracting out through BOT is that the private sector contractor is wholly responsible for the financing, construction, maintenance and operation/management of the project. The project will be owned by the private contractor for a period not exceeding 50 years, after which it shall be transferred to the government according to the terms and conditions of the BOT contract.

Alternative mechanisms for service delivery

The private sector, including the NGOs, are considered the partners of government in pushing its development agenda and in implementing the same, particularly with regard to social service delivery and in economic and trade enterprises. Within this context, the implementation of programs/projects is pursued by government through the private sector, the NGOs and the QUANGOs.

The inadequacy and to a certain extent, the ineffectiveness of government in delivering basic services to the people have altogether led to the opening up of service delivery functions to NGOs and Quasi NGOs. The absence of structural or bureaucratic constraints in the operation of many NGOs and QUANGOs makes them more reliable and efficient implementing mechanisms of basic services because many of them are flexible in managing the operation and implementation of projects. In some cases, services have been contracted out by government to the private sector for more effectiveness and better results.

Future projections:

Major reform measures in government will veer towards strengthening the capability of local government officials now being extended substantial responsibilities in the development process. Capability building exercises will consider both the improvement of technical capacity and the importance of developing their value commitments for more responsive, people centered and people powered development efforts.

The upgrade of the skills and administrative leadership capabilities of local executives is an urgent, yet, of long term value to local government reforms. This will have to be an important target of government to enhance its internal capacities for administration. Improvements in the monitoring and evaluation systems at the lowest sub national level of the barangay will be forged since this is the basis for ascertaining the performance of provincial elective officials.

Improvement in the development of a sound and reliable management information system requires the procurement and setting up of computer-based data at the lowest sub national levels. A sound information system is crucial to policy and decision-making and governance.

Procurement of more modern facilities to support the delivery of services is of utmost importance. In the area of health, refrigeration of drugs and vaccines to assure the health and safety of the community has to be taken into consideration. Refrigeration, in turn hinges on rural electrification. While efforts to introduce modern technology can assure more rations and efficient methodologies in the delivery of services, attempts to examine indigenous resources that are responsive, less costly and more culturally sensitive can be explored.

In the grassroots arena, a more aggressive move to organize the citizenry to make the citizens a part of the development process will be encouraged. Initiatives for community mobilization and citizen participation in development efforts have been undertaken in various sectoral departments in the past. Strong linkages with NGOs committed to community mobilization and citizen participation can be further enhanced to collaborate with local implementers in forging strategies. Community organizations will band together with similar groups in other localities through a federation. A federation can assure a stronger posture especially if policy advocacy is to be undertaken. Furthermore, federations can strengthen inter local linkages to respond to local concerns.

Source: “The Enabling Role of Local Governments” by Perla E Legaspi in UPNCPAG Reader

Local government is an enabler if its role goes beyond the traditional role of direct service provider; if it contracts out services, if it decides to privatize certain services and makes use of market mechanisms in service delivery or if it develops different ways of doing things in order to meet the varied demands of the community

Clark and Stewart (1989) define enabling as strengthening the capacity for self governance within a local community, using whatever resources and channels (internal or external) seem most appropriate. This definition implies that local government has to start from identifying the needs of the community and use its resources and powers to respond and meet those needs. Given its power and authority, it can select which option to take in order to best serve community interest. It can decide to be a direct service provider, it can network with public and private organizations for service delivery, it can stimulate more economic activities in the community through the grant of a package of incentives to investors or local businessmen, it can provide a regulatory framework for private and voluntary sector or civil society participation in policy formulation and implementation of programs

Strategic Orientation: Local government should have a grasp of the issues and concerns affecting the community to be able to develop certain strategies to respond to such issues and problems. These strategies should be integrated such that they take into consideration all the traditional, functional and geographical boundaries. It could mean that the local government would develop an approach which would require an inter local government collaboration, a collaborative working with the private sector, NGOs or voluntary groups and with national government agencies. This strategic orientation ensures that the activities of the different agencies in the policy arena are not fragmented. It also ensures that all local viewpoints are taken into account within a wider policy context. This then requires a well-developed policy process where opportunities and approaches are identified and selected and a strategic action is spelled out.

Focus on determining an effective response:

1. Collaborating with other agencies in the implementation of new programs or in providing new services
2. Providing financial assistance or grants
3. Creating new structures or bodies for service delivery
4. Providing public information about services and programs
5. Providing a forum for discussion of community issues and concerns

Setting standards and performance: The setting of standards and performance would ensure the achievement of goals and objectives. Openness about standards and the attainment of performance targets would help improve public accountability. Local government should involve the public in directly

defining standards of service and the criteria of performance by which local government could be evaluated.

Developing partnerships: Local governments have increasingly recognized the fact that it has to work collaboratively with other existing public, private and voluntary organizations or agencies. Such collaborative mechanisms take various forms depending on the kind of service or on the resource capacity of the local government. But what is important is the development of more enduring kind of work relationships between local government and the other organizations. In other words, this requires a definition of specific roles of each body or organization which would lead to the building up of long term relationships with and among agencies.

Influencing, Interpreting and Implementing the Regulatory Framework: Although local government works within a wide legislative framework, it can ensure that the framework is oriented towards local or community interests. Local government can influence the structure of regulation at the policy formulation stage. It can lobby with national government and act in collaboration with other agencies in the shaping up of policy structures. Once the policy is decided and the regulatory framework determined, it can exercise a key role in disseminating the policy and in explaining the effects of the regulatory requirements to the community. In enforcing regulation, the primary concern of the local government is to ensure that local regulatory standards are consistently applied. It also has to carry out enforcement activities such as inspections and see to it that performance standards are met.

Encouraging Access and Involvement: Recognizing the nature of the population it serves, local government has to provide access mechanisms to those individuals and groups who are under privileged and are at a disadvantage due to poverty, unemployment and other factors. There is also the value of involving users of services in decisions which directly affects them. Attendant to the emphasis on citizen participation is the introduction of participatory mechanisms where citizens can be involved in the formulation of policies directly affecting them.

Source: “Metropolitanization within a Decentralized System: The Philippine Dilemma” by Elena Panganiban in UPNCPAG Reader

The first metropolitan government was named Metropolitan Manila Commission (MMC). It was established in April 1976 during the martial law administration by virtue of PD 824 nine months after a referendum. It existed for fifteen years until it was abolished and replaced by the Metro Manila Authority (MMA) under EO 392 in January 1990. The MMA operated as an interim body until Congress passed RA 7924 in February 1995 converting it into the Metropolitan Manila Development Authority (MMDA)

The presence of a metro government has not been able to provide the vision and direction for controlling and supervising the growth of Metro Manila, which has always been dictated by private sector investment decisions. A formula for a strong and competent urban leadership that can steer a metro scale institutional base has not been discovered so far.

A strengthened political leadership at the metro level, however, can only worsen a potentially explosive competition with local mayors. What is needed is an objective metropolitan vision, which a professional metropolitan manager can better provide to counteract the subjective parochial outlook of local officials and win their respect.

An emerging pattern is the lack of financial self sufficiency on the part of the metro government and its dependence on both the central government and the component local government units. The revenue instruments that are available are not all adequate and responsive to the development nature and large volume of metro wide services. Developmental and infrastructure financing such as loans and bonds have not been properly maximized or utilized. Uncertainty if available revenue sources are also evident in the fiscal pattern of the overall metro governance.

At the metropolitan level there is a strong interplay between forces of centralization and decentralization. Therefore, the symbiotic linkages and mediation processes between the metro organization and the local government system should be part of the design and operation of the metropolitan government. The most important institutional requirements of metro governance involve performance in areas and services that individual local government units cannot provide by themselves. Similarly, there are metropolitan management demands that cannot be effectively and efficiently met by the metropolitan government structure alone.

The nature and scope of metropolitan responsibilities call for economies of scale, containment of interjurisdictional spillovers. Agglomeration of economies and the like. Linkages and mechanisms should therefore emphasize the development of technology information systems, technical/production efficiency; inter local government cooperation and networking. All of these can best be addressed by a large scale metropolitan organization. Unfortunately, metro governance in Metropolitan Manila is not adequately organized, managed and financed to serve these ends.

The institution itself suffered some basic weaknesses. Overall, the mandate and vision were not clear for metropolitan governance. It was reflected in the organizational fluidity, financial inadequacy, dispersal of functions, unresponsive personnel/staffing pattern, and one sided metro local relations that slowly evolved from the major organizational reforms implemented so far.