Ministry of Higher Education and scientific Research
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Faculty of Political Sciences and International Relations

Administrative Development Module

Lectures directed to Third-Year students in Political and Administrative Organization

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Introduction :

In recent years it has become increasingly obvious that administrative reforms and the development of management capability are necessary in developing countries for the carrying out of social and economic policies and the achievement of socio-economic goals of development.

Furthermore, it has been recognized that the administrative and management capability which are necessary must be different from the conventional organizational reforms. Thus, western concepts applied in the interest of development of administrative and management capability in the less developed countries would tend, of necessity.

General objectives :

This module is an introduction to the administrative development and provides an overview of some of the key theoretical frameworks, concepts, and analytical methods of this field of study, as applied to the developing world. We particularly examine bureaucratic problems (e.g., corruption, cronyism, nepotism), asking why and how bureaucratic problems persist and what the origins of corruption are. Other topics covered in depth include the administrative reform, the nexus between administrative development and development administration.

After that the student will Be able to :

1. Define admiistrative development, and to identify its principal concerns.

2. Understand the similarities and differences between administrative development and development administration.

3. Learn the managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration and the tensions among them.

4. Identify the causes and consequences of administrative corruption .

5. Understand the main pillars of administrative reforms.

6. Understand the nature of administrative development.

7. Compare between administrative development and development administration.

Lecture 1 : the context of Administrative Development

After the second World War a number of countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America emerged as independent States out of their dark colonial experience. Although these countries became politically independent, they have been facing immense problems of poverty, illiteracy, poor health, low agricultural productivity, lack of industrial development and socio-political instability.

Obviously, the immediate task before these countries is to bring about speedy socio-economic transformation and nation-building through planned change. In order to achieve these objectives the developing countries have undertaken various developmental activities in the economic and social spheres of life.

The term **administrative development i**s used to refer to the directly government led effort to intervene in the process of socio-economic transformation.
This new administration that is required for the government of developing countries is both quantitatively and qualitatively different from the traditional administration[1].

Decolonization :

The term **decolonization** was used by the **German economist Moritz Julius Bonn** in the 1930s to describe the process through which colonies had attained self–governance. Decolonization, which is the process by which colonies acquire their independence from the colonizing nation, symbolized not only the transfer of legal sovereignty but also the struggle for political and moral justice against imperialism [2].
In short, the main reasons for the birth and growth of the concept of Development administration are:
The **emergence of new decolonized states** in Asia, Africa, and Latin America after the second World War.

The emergence of **international and the U.S. economic and technical plans** for assistance to developing nations, to put it differently, the emergence of international and bilateral plans for technical assistance to developing nations has been a main reason for increased attention to Development administration. In the developing nations, during the 1950s and 1960s, many developmental schemes were undertaken with the assistance of

[1] S. P. Naidu, **Public Administration: Concepts And Theories,** New Delhi : New Age International Publishers, 2005, p 147.
[2] Lauren Berck and Grace Gomashie**, Decolonizing Our Names in the 21st Century: Place**, Identity,Routledge : Routledge Publishers, 2026, p 60.

the U.N. sponsored and the U.S. foreign aid economic and technical assistance programmes[1].

Technical assistance ;

is a key instrument for improving policies and project design, enhancing skills, and strengthening implementation capacity, and for institutional development in general.

Point four program ;

Harry Truman introduced the **idea of Point Four** during his 1949 inaugural address, because he was convinced that America's future depended upon the development of the underdeveloped world and he was certain that that development could not happen without U.S. assistance. Poor nations anywhere threatened America's influence everywhere, he said" for the first time , humanity possesses knowledge and skill to relieve the suffering of these people ".

Aspects of the Program including :

Increased Production:

Truman believed that "greater production is the key to prosperity and peace". The program sought to help countries produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens**".**

Sharing Knowledge and Expertise:

The aid was intended to come primarily through spreading knowledge and expertise, rather than just money. This included technical, scientific, and managerial knowledge in fields such as medicine, education, sanitation, communications,

Encouraging Private Investment:

Truman also recommended an experimental program to encourage the outflow of private investment beneficial to economic development, with the possibility of the Export-Import Bank guaranteeing private capital against specific risks[2].

Cooperation:

The program emphasised cooperation with the United Nations and its specialised agencies, the American government, and private businesses and corporations.

These studies have also shown that in order to handle the foreign technical assistance programmes the administrative systems and practice of the developing nations need

[1] S. P. Naidu, **Opcit,** p 148.

[2] Amanda Kay Mc Vetyn , **Enlighted aid : US Development as Foreign aid policy in Ethiopia,** Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2012,p 48.

alteration. This led to a search for a new administrative model which meets the developmental needs of the developing countries .But these schemes failed to produce the desired results[1].
This explains the sustained interest shown by the American scholars in the administrative systems of the developing countries.

During the 1960s the members of the comparative Administrative group of the American Society for Public administration undertook research in the field of Development administration. Their research and findings revealed that the Western developmental models and concepts of Public administration may not be appropriate or feasible in developing nations.
Since 1960s the idea of planned change to bring about rapid socio-economic transformation has become a kind of administrative ideology in the developing states.
the establishment of the C.A.G. and the interest shown by its members in developing nations and their administrative systems .

Comparative Administration Group (CAG)

CAG was founded in 1960 as a committee of the American Society for Public Administration. The committee was headed by Fred W. Riggs for a very long time. In 1962 it received financial support from the Ford Foundation. The primary interest of the Ford Foundation was on administrative problems faced by developing countries. CAG was expected to study these problems in the context of the socio-economic environmental factors that existed in developing countries.

The Ford Foundation had a strong development administration focus and was interested in transferring knowledge to these countries through technical assistance projects and domestically-based development within targeted countries. This group developed a programme **with three objects**:

1. **encouraging research;**
2. **encouraging teaching; and**
3. **contributing to more effective public policy formulation in the area of development administration[2].**

The focus of the CAG research has been (1) on the development of governmental administrative institutions an and capabilities, emphasizing the structure and behavior of bureaucracy, and (2) on administration, more broadly defined as the activities performed by government executives, particularly the formulation of policy and the implementation of plans and_'programs related to developmental tasks and objectives.

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[1] Williams, Roger, **Enlightened Aid : US Development as Foreign Policy in Ethiopia**, Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2012, p38

[2] Sahni, Pardeep and Vayunandan, Etakula, **Administrative Theory**, New Delhi : Phi learning PrivateLimited, 2010, p 58.

Administrative problems of newly independent countries ;

(a) **lack of sufficiently** experienced administrators able to cope with independence;

(b) **overhaul of the administrative** system bequeathed by the colonial power, more especially in the public sector;

(c) **distrust of administrators** who embraced the colonial culture and whose experience ma y not be appropriate or adequate for promotion purposes ;

(d) **demands that sweeping plans**, ideological goals, national aspirations and ambitious laws be implemented;

(e) **public distrust of exaggerated** public authority, coupled with mutual distrust between public officials and citizens;

(f) **weak administrative infrastructure**, deficient in technical skills, and exposed to intrigue

(g) **politicization of administration,** involving ascriptive rather than achievement criteria in appointments, particularistic rather than universalistic criteria in working relationships, and self-orientation rather than sense of collectivism in decision-making;

(h) **transition pains**, ranging from haphazard transfer of power to civil war and foreign invasion[1].

(I) **Developing countries also have unique features which include Mixed Values**, Public administration in most developing countries exhibits values of its past colonial legacy and modern values acquired after independence. However, bureaucrats manifest traits of authoritarianism, paternalism, aloofness, and elitism Old value-sets are super-imposed with the new value patterns such as extension motivation, sympathy, and empathy.

(J) **Weak Vigilance System**: Corruption continues to putrid the administrative system in developing countries despite the low ratings based on public integrity from Transparency International.

The safeguarding body needs to be strengthened in these countries. Furthermore, for effective control of misconduct and bribery in public life, the judicial and legal system needs to be more efficient. According to Fred Rigg's, "bureaucrats is preferred for personal expediency as opposed to public-principled interest" in developing countries. Suitable control training and mechanism are needed to revert preference needs[2].

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[1] Gerald Caiden, **Development Administration and Administrative Reform**, International Social Science, Vol XXL, N°1, 1969, P12.

[2] Nyaburi Nyadera and Gershon Dagba , **Public Administration Features in Developed and Developing Countries**, in Murat Önder and Nyaburi Nyadera, **The Palgrave Handbook of Comparative Public Administration : Concepts and Cases**, New York : Palgrave Macmillan, 2022, P 92.

Lecture 2 : The Theoretical Foundations of Administrative Development

The term administrative development appeared in the modern writings of public administration, as a partial result of the development attempts that are currently taking place in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America.

Administrative development meaning :

It is a term that expresses the efforts made by these countries in addressing the administrative problems they face in attempts to accelerate their agricultural, industrial, educational, and social progress, through the development of regulations, administrative systems, and bureaucratic practices to achieve this progress[1] .

Donald Stone states that The primary obstacles to development are administrative rather than economic'[2] for that Administration development would tackle head on the 'lack [of] administrative capability for implementing plans and programmes [through] the transfer of administrative techniques to improve the central machinery of national government'[3] .

Administrative development can be defined as the process that seeks to improve and advance the level of administrative work, by relying on modern mechanisms that depend on it in controlling and organizing work and intensifying efforts in order to address problems and obstacles.

it is a pattern that aims to invest well in administrative means very effectively, in order to achieve the desired goals. Administrative development tries to combat crises that may confront establishments such as financial crises and others.

The process of administrative development is an important and essential part of comprehensive development, as the strategy applied by administrative development is an integral part of the strategies adopted by comprehensive development with all its aspects and dimensions[4].

Another thinker, who is one of the officials and researchers in public administration, believes that administrative development is the effort that must be made continuously to develop the administrative apparatus in the state in an effort to raise the level of administrative capacity by setting up organizational structures appropriate to development

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[1] O.P.Dwivedi, **Development Administration : From Underdevelopment to Sustainable Development**, , New York : Palgrave Macmillan, 1994. P1.

[2] Donald Stone, "**Government Machinery Necessary for Development'**, in M. Kriesberg , Public Administration in Developing Countries ,Washington D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1965, p 53

[3] Ibid, p53.

[4] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Introducing administrative development**, Psychology and Education, Vol 60, N°2, 2023, P900.

needs, simplifying work systems and procedures, and trying to develop behavior Employees are positive towards their devices, and those who cooperate with them, Improving the work environment that affects and is affected by the administrative apparatus, In order to achieve the goals of economic development plans with high efficiency and the lowest costs .

"It is the process of upgrading the current situation in administrative work in various fields, by relying on modern mechanisms that depend on controlling and organizing work and making efforts to solve various crises".

In developing countries, it is defined as "a pattern of increased effectiveness in the use of the administrative means available to achieve the general goals of the state apparatus." Or at the educational level, it means "those activities and efforts that are made in order to get rid of the reasons for the inability of the administrative apparatus to perform its function in leading social development." With energy, enthusiasm and competence.

Administrative development can be viewed as the growing capability of the administrative system to cope continuosly with problems created by social change towards the goals of achieving political,economic and social progress. It reflects the capacity of administrative system to make choices and to exercise discretion to bring about environmental changes by deliberate programmes and self conscious decisions[1].

Administrative development is defined as the accretion and extension of a bureaucratic organization as the core tool for program implementation. Bureaucracy plays a major role in policy implementation. Judiciary, legislature, political parties, electorates, and interest groups have a significant duty in political development. However, roles played by the judiciary, legislature, political parties, electorates, and interest groups cannot be disregarded[2].

Fred Riggs definition

Riggs emphasized that administrative development may be seen as a pattern of increasing effectiveness in the utilization of available means to achieve prescribed goals.

Administrative development may be thought of in terms of efficiency (qualitative transformation) and output (quantitative transformation). We may speak of administrative

[1] Mohammed Mohabbat Khan, **Administrative Reform**, in Chaturvedi, Development Administration, New Delhi : Indian Institution of Public Administration, 1984, p 171.
[2]Nyaburi Nyadera and Gershon Dagba, **Opcit**, P 91.

development in terms of structural differentiation, which involves the emergence of distinctive functions for the bureaucracy within society[1].
Riggs defines administrative development as the process of strenthening the capabilities of public administration to achieve the prescribed socio-economic development goals[2]

Riggs mentioned Two variables : effectiveness and efficiency, are related to administrative development. Effectiveness refers to the extent to which actions by participants conform to the role expectations of others in the same social system.

Efficiency :
refers to the extent to which actions reflect the predispositions of personnel, so as not to produce consequences which negate or frustrate the intended action[3].
Effectiveness :

It is also defined as the ratio of outcomes (and outputs) to inputs (O/I). It describes the cost per activity to achieve given outcomes, for example, the number of counseled clients per counselor who find employment or the number of graduating students per teacher.[4]

Effectiveness :
is defined as the level of results; for example, the number of arrests made by police officers, the number of welfare clients who find employment after being counseled by case workers, or the amount of money raised through fund-raisers.

Measures of effectiveness are further distinguished between outputs and outcomes. Outputs are defined as the immediate results of agency activities or efforts, such as the number of students graduating from schools and colleges, or the number of fully completed inspections of a work crew. Outcomes are measures of the extent that organizations attain their goals[5].

In the same fashion, **Leonard Binder** concludes that administrative development, permits an expansion of the scope of governmental activity[6].

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[1] Jamal Khan, **Administrative change and Development in Barbados**, International Review of Administrative Sciences, vol 41,Issue2, 1975,p 149.
[2]Polinaudu, **Public Administration**,New Delhi, Galgotia Publications, 2004, P 579.
[3]Jamal Khan,**Opcit,** p150
[4] Evan M. Berman and Imane Hijal-Moghrabi, **Performance and Innovation in the Public Sector : Managing for Results**, New York : Routledge Publishers, 2023, p 4.
[5] Ibid, p 3-4.
[6] Leonard Binder, **Iran** :**Political Development in Changing Society**, Berkeley : University of California Press, 1962, p.57.

Administrative development appears in "increases in size, in specialisation and division of tasks, and in the professionalisation of its personnel"[1].

Riggs outlines that adiministrative development appears to be a requisite of political development. He considers administrative development "as a pattern of increasing effectiveness in the utilisation of available means to achieve prescribed goals", and political development as "an enhanced ability to make organizational decisions involving value choices"[2].

Western concepts of Administrative development :

Western thinkers have been trying to conceptualize and operationalize administrative development. The effort is, ultimately, to discover neutral or culture-free concepts and variables.

Joseph LaPalombra tries to explore dimensions along which basic changes in political systems - in any political system - might usefully be measured .

Lucian W. Pye expresses the hope that ; we can surmount the difficulty of the clash between evolutionary theory and cultural relativism . **Fred Riggs** tries to identify key variables in administrative development[3].

Magnitude: One of the supposedly neutral measures of political and administrative development is magnitude. LaPalombra says that by it he means essentially the ratio of political activity to all of the other activity that takes place in society[4]

Lucian Pye is more explicit and says clearly that according to one view; political development consists of the organization of political life and the performance of political functions in accordance with the standards expected of a modem nation state . The national state has a large size and its activities naturally have greater magnitude than, say, those of city states.

The Western World has had the national state together with the attendant centralization since the sixteenth century and must live with it. The question it as an ideal without question or modification. Mahatma Gandhi favoured instead a decentralized political system : this would avoid the concentration of political power in a small group at the top, and do away with vast standing armies and civil bureaucracies.

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[1] J.N.Khosla,**Development Administration : New Dimensions**, Indian Journal of Public Administration, Vol 13, N°1,1967, p 19 .

[2] Ibid, p 19.

[3] Satya Deva, **Western Conceptualization of Administrative Development: A Critique and an Alternative**, In Comparative Public Administration, Vol15,2006, p 233.

[4] Ibid, p233.

The national state is hardly an ideal to be striven for. It is idle to build it up all the time and talk of its withering away. One of the ways to make it wither away is to start building what Jayaprakash Narayan calls the communitarian polity [1]

Specialization :

Another of the commonly mentioned indicators of development is specialization. Adam Smith and Weber referred to it long ago; it is the key concept of Riggs' prismatic model. It is worth examining as to how it comes about.

One of its causes is simply greater magnitude. As all students of organizations know, an increase in size results in greater specialization of roles. Thus a small business may have only one manager; as it expands, separate managers for finance, personnel, production and marketing may be needed.

Their roles result merely from the differentiation of the single manager's role. If we reject magnitude as an indicator of development, specialization resulting from it gets rejected by implication. Specialization also results from the growth of science and technology.

Thus specialists in the various branches of medicine take the place of the earlier medicine man. Such differentiation may certainly be treated as an indicator of development, provided the specialized experts use their expertise with a sense of social responsibility, or at least with mechanical objectivity. If, however, they use their expertise to make private gains at the cost of the common good, it must be said to lead to negative development.

It is the combination of expertise with formal authority that does the damage; it is idle to consider the role of expertise in isolation. Thus if bad seed is certified as good by experts for a consideration, their expertise may do more harm than good. It is worth noting that this power may be given to them by a new law requiring the certification of new varieties for sale.

Before the passage of such a law the farmer could go and buy the seed he thought best; the law puts him at themercy of the expert, who in the situation of underdevelopment often has little incentive to remain honest.

He may be unable to maintain honesty precisely because of being part of a corrupt system. One honest official in a corrupt cadre may cause problems for other officials[2].

Hence the interaction of expertise with a bureaucratic setting, in an underdeveloped society, may be compared to a chemical reaction where after particular elements no longer function as before. Potassium may be useful for the human body but not as potassium cyanide. This also indicates how rationality in the garb of science and technology may not have the same role in the underdeveloped setting.

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[1] Satya Deva,**Opcit**, p 234
[2] Ibid, p 234

Having a large number of bare foot doctors may lead to better health for millions suffering from malaria, cholera, ricket. specialised ones who are often trying to emigrate to an affluent society.

Similarly, small scale industries using a middle-level technology may have advantages over highly advanced large scale industries : low capital and energy consumption ; provision of more employment; reduction in the pull of the city through better dispersal of industries; better liaison with agriculture.

Achievement Orientation :

Another commonly mentioned indicator of administrative modernization is the extent to which recruitment is on the basis of achievement rather than ascription. It is one of the pattern variables of role definition according to Talcott Parsons. This variable also, if considered in isolation, may seem to be valid. However it interacts with others.

In underdeveloped societies, the opportunity for education is not equal for members of different social strata. The result often is that those with an ascribed high status come to have the most achievement also to their credit.The association between property and education[1].

[1] Satya Deva, **Opcit** , p 235

Lecture 3: The importance of Administrative Development

Administrative development aims to reinforce administrative capacities. Administrative capacity is a broad concept that entails running the machinery of a political or economic system, a government, and its international or global affairs, executing policy decisions, and translating political and collective will into actions through implementation and management.
Administrative capacity also entails the capability to develop and deliver services that include system maintenance and provision of security and social order; it is the "core of government'.

Administrative capacity embodies many dimensions, functions, values, processes, and issues that require close attention...upgraded and geared for anticipatory, future-weaving, and history -making purposes in governance and administration.
The main attribute of such capacities was "facilitative...dynamic, professionally trained" administrators "**armed with the brains and bodies of a 'surprise management' system".**

Forthermore, Administrative refers to the managerial abilities of organizations — whether they are equipped to do what they are supposed to do: Capacity in government is the process of identifying and developing the management skills necessary to address policy problems; attracting, absorbing and managing financial, human and information resources; and operating programs effectively, including evaluating program outcomes to guide future activities[1].

The dimensions of administrative capacities including structural capacity; process capacity; cultural or normative capacity; institutional and organizational capacities that were noted earlier; learning leadership and managerial capacities; strategic human resource capacity; financial resource capacity; cognitive capacity; technological capacity; ethical, accountability, and other capacities of democratic representation, responsiveness, and fairness; and developmental capacity[2].

2. **The importance of administrative development.**

It is the responsibility of administrative development to complete the feast of tasks, and therefore administrative development is of great importance, the most prominent of which are the following :

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[1] Mark Turner and David Hulme, **Governance, Administration and Development : Making the State Work** : New York :Palgrave Macmillan, 1997, p 86.
[2] Ernita Jaoquin and Thomas Greitens, **American Administrative Capacity : Decline, Decay, and Resilience,** Switzland : Springer, 2021, p 44.

1) Work to correct deviations, and direct establishments and institutions to the correct paths .

2) Combating administrative corruption, and urging individuals to abide by what is required of them to perform their duties successfully.

3) Activate the performance of the units, and the important administrative processes such as internal control and performance evaluation, in order to ensure that there are no deviations, and the efficient progress of the facility towards its goals.

4) Establishing the rules of transparency and reform in a way that achieves the success of the establishment.

5) Commitment to accuracy, quality, and review, in order to reduce all negatives related to the administrative process.

6) Ensure the experience and competence of the employees applying for the available jobs[1]

the goals of administrative development :

Administrative development aims to achieve a set of objectives, most notably the following:

1) Make good use of the available resources, in order to achieve economic and social development.

2) To provide all the equipment and tools needed for administrative work.

3) Develop systems and administrative methods correctly in order to contribute to achieving progress in various fields.

4) Providing modern technological means that seek to raise work efficiency.

5) Getting rid of the regulations and rules that hinder the workflow.

6) Work to achieve consistency and integration between disciplines, in order to achieve the desired goals.

7) Trying to develop the existing systems, and introducing everything new, in order to expand and develop[2].

The elements and characteristics of administrative development :

Administrative development is achieved in any country in the world, as a result of the meeting and interaction of several elements, and these elements together constitute a general framework, or a model, which we believe contributes effectively to the achievement of administrative development.

These elements help in overcoming the administrative problems facing the state's administrative apparatus, and they also contribute to the development of the apparatus so that it becomes highly efficient and effective.

As for the elements of administrative development, we see that it consists of the following:

1) Creed.

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[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**, p901.

[2] Ibid, p 901-902.

2) Administrative theory.
3) Developing laws, regulations and regulations.
4) Developing and developing managers and employees.
5) Develop organizational structures.
6) Develop work procedures, models and devices.

The following is a brief overview of each element of administrative development:

1.Belief:

Belief means what the members of society believe in, and it constitutes the general framework for values, behavior, and transactions. It is necessary to emphasize the importance of adhering to the faith, adhering to it, applying its principles, adopting its values and ethics, and reflecting the effects of the application on the behaviors of individuals in society, especially on the behaviors and actions of state employees.

There is no doubt that the Islamic Sharia, the glue, constitutes the most important elements of administrative development, and a strong motive for achieving administrative progress. Islam calls for honesty, honesty in dealings, justice among people, zeal for the public interest, a sense of responsibility, and good morals[1].

2.Administrative theory:

Administrative development needs an administrative theory, which stems from the environment of the country in which it is applied, and is derived from the experiences and practices of administrators in those countries.

It is known that most of the administrative theories applied in the Arab countries, and in other developing countries, are Western administrative theories.

It was developed by managers who worked in factories, companies, government agencies, thinkers, and management writers in those countries, and it stems from a Western environment, within certain political, economic, social, and religious systems , and it differs from what exists in the Arab countries, and from other countries. other developing countries, and this led to failure when applying it in the Arab countries, and in other developing countries, and not achieving the same degree of success that it achieved in Western countries. Administrative theories.

[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**, p901.

In this regard, you see that there is no harm in seeking the help of the Arab director, provided that he takes it with caution, and for the purposes of guidance when carrying out his administrative work[1] .

3) Developing laws, regulations, and regulations:

Over time, many laws, regulations, and regulations become unsuitable for organizations' conditions, an obstacle to achieving their goals, and a problem of administrative problems, which citizens and employees complain about, due to the complexities they contain, and the restrictions they place on Businesses, therefore, had to be modified, developed, and provided with flexibility in order to suit the conditions of the community Collect, and the progress that is being achieved, and in order to help meet the requirements of work, in making appropriate decisions quickly .

The development and amendment of laws, regulations, and instructions, especially those related to personnel and financial affairs, contributes positively to achieving administrative development, and is considered one of its basic requirements, as it contributes to attracting good and qualified elements of employees to work in government agencies (and this including incentives for employees), and in providing better services to citizens .

4) Development of employees and managers :

Employee development means the skilful provision and organization of learning experiences in the workplace in order that performance can be improved, that work goals can be achieved and that, through enhancing the skills, knowledge, learning ability and enthusiasm of people at every level, there can be continuous organizational as well as individual growth. Employee development must, therefore, be part of a wider strategy for the business, aligned with the organization's corporate mission and goals[2].

The development of the human element is considered the most important element of administrative development, because managers and employees are the ones who undertake the task of carrying out the functions of the state, and success in achieving administrative development depends, to a large extent, on what is achieved in developing and developing managers and employees .

[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit** , p 902

[2] Rosemary Harrison, **Employee Development,** London : Institute of Personnel and development, 1992,p 3

The means of developing managers and employees include the following:

a) Proper selection of managers and employees, as the selection must be made on the basis of merit and depend on a description of the duties of the job, and the qualifications and experience required for its occupant.

b) Continuous training and development for them.

c) Providing scholarship opportunities for managers and employees to obtain academic qualifications .

d) Suitable for their business.

e) Provide them with appropriate incentives.

f) Delegating the necessary powers to carry out the work, to managers and employees (since

g) A frequent complaint is of the lack or lack of powers).

h) Evaluating the performance of managers and employees, on scientific and objective bases, and granting appropriate rewards and incentives, in light of their objective evaluation[1].

5) **Developing organizational structures**:

Organisation development (OD) is concerned with the diagnosis of organisational health and performance, and the ability of the organisation to adapt to change. It involves a range of intervention strategies into the social processes of an organisation. The organisation must be responsive to change. The manager needs to understand the nature of OD, the importance of organisational climate and employee commitment, and organisational conflict[2].

In addition, organization structure is as a process of grouping activities with a focus on human relationships. It is also a strategic function as it can benefit organization in realizing its strategic intents, coordinating the activities of each group with shared goals and objectives.

Through organization structure and design, organization shows the structure of relationships among people and aligns their jobs to the goals and strategies.

the term "organization" denotes a social group that has been created purposefully to achieve some common goals.

"Organizing" can be defined a process of allocating jobs and providing support to such groups of people to enable them to achieve common goals. In the process of organizing, we create an organization structure, and through organization design, we align the organization structure with the goals, strategies, systems, processes, and practices of the organization.

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[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**, p 903

[2] Laurie Mullins, **Management and Organizational Behaviour**, London : Pitman Publishing, 1985, p484

the differentiation is the the process through organization can develop their structures. There are three types of differentiation in organization: **horizontal, vertical, and spatial**. Through horizontal differentiation. we differentiate between different sub-units of organization.

Vertical differentiation helps us establish organizational hierarchy to indicate differences in authority and responsibility among different job positions. Saptial differentiation helps us decide on the geographic dispersion of the organization, such as the location of offices, factories, and deployment of manpower in each location [1].

The organization resembles a living organism, as it is in a state of continuous growth and movement, and with the passage of time, and with changing circumstances and conditions, its organizational structure becomes outdated, and there is a need to develop it in order to be able to carry out its work efficiently and effectively, and the development of organizational structures is considered one of the basic elements of development
However, the development of organizational structures alone is not enough , as the development of organizational structures must be accompanied by the development of procedures, the development of managers and employees, and the development of laws and regulations.

5.Developing work procedures, models, and devices:

A work procedure is a series of consecutive steps created for the execution of a particular activity aimed at realising a specific programme target. In every programme there are several activities divided into separate procedures aimed at attaining several programme targets in an attempt to reduce the programme's complexity[2].

Complex activities can be subdivided into particular procedures, each with a complex set of methods for each step of the procedure. Work methods are the motions involved in executing a specific task or activity.
A work method is one step of a procedure; it is the special way in which one does something. Every step in a procedure has its particular method for executing such step and requires a special skill[3] .

Administrative development requires developing and simplifying work procedures, and designing modern models that help in completing work quickly and proficiently, away from long routines and its complexities.

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[1] Dipak Kumar Bhatta Charyya, **Organizational Structure and Design : Text and Cases**, New York : Routledge Publishers, 2025, p 43.
[2] JSH Gildenhuys, **The Philosophy of Public Administration : A Holistic Approach**, Stellenborsh : Sun Press, 2004, p 196.
[3] Ibid, p 196

Administrative development also requires the use of advanced devices and modern office machines, such as devices Computers, miniature films and cards (microfilm and microfiche) that help save information and quickly obtain it when needed, which helps in making decisions, and typewriters contribute. Printing machines and modern calculators speed up work completion, increase accuracy, and reduce costs.

The characteristics of administrative deveolpment :

Administrative development is characterized by a set of characteristics that distinguish it from other administrative concepts, including :

First: Official:

It means the legal nature of administrative development efforts, because administrative development must be issued by the competent bodies in the organization in order for it to gain an official character, not to be achieved by random individual initiatives.

Second: Comprehensiveness:

It means that the administrative development process includes all organizational aspects that would affect the capacity of the administrative apparatus.

Third: Continuity:

In the sense that the process of administrative development is not a temporary act that does not soon disappear, but it is continuous, especially for developing countries, depending on changes in conditions and situations.

Fourth: Balance and consistency:

That is, administrative development does not achieve its goals if its efforts are limited to a specific field.

Fifth: Clarity: through clarity of objectives, clarity of responsibilities and authorities, and standards used in monitoring and evaluating results[1].

[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**,p 904.

Lecture 4 : **The phenomenon of Administrative Backwardness**

With the development in the functions of the state, there was a development in the administration, so there was an expansion in the administrative apparatus, so new departments and organs were established and the number of employees increased significantly, in order to carry out the old jobs and the new jobs that were entrusted to the state.

But the development in administration did not keep pace with the development in the functions of the state, and the administration was unable, in many countries of the world, to carry out what it became required of it to do in terms of functions, neither in terms of quantity, nor in terms of quality, so it happened in what is called administrative backwardness, which is The essence of the problem suffered by developing countries. What is meant by management is all components of administrative work such as systems, personnel, methods and procedures, devices and machines.

Accordingly, administrative backwardness is defined as: the situation in which the administrative apparatus lacks the ability to fully implement the general policy specified by the government, and its failure to achieve the goals included in this Politics.

So administrative backwardness is represented in the weakness or loss of self-growth capabilities, and these self-abilities are:

1) Functional vital capacity
2) systemic integrative ability
3) The ability of administrative growth
4) Adaptability[1] .

Dimensions and Stages of the Administrative Problem:

First: Administrative diseases:

The administrative system becomes ill when two of its basic components are disturbed. Civil servants - administrative corruption -. The other is the functional activity that includes management functions and organizational functions.

Second: Administrative bottlenecks :

refers to a situation where the workers' job is impeded by a negative management system. This sought of system creates room for delays and inefficient procedures of managing activities. administrative bottlenecks are described as processes were frustration and inefficiency is prevalent, resulting in low productivity in the value of work, as it also creates confusion and inefficient capacity.

[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit** , p9

As capacity is hindered, the environment, organization and governmental agencies are impacted negatively, thus influencing or affecting productivity[1]

Third: the administrative disintegration: the disintegration of the three external components of the administrative system .

1) The deterioration of administrative culture and philosophy.

2) primitive technology used.

3) The atrophy of the business administration pattern overlapping between them, thus being the roots of administrative backwardness as a whole Manifestations of administrative backwardness.

Administrative backwardness in developing countries has common characteristics of administrative backwardness, sometimes called administrative problems in developing countries. These problems differ from one country to another, depending on the difference in the environment, and the political, social, and economic conditions in those countries. However, most developing countries share the following problems:

1) The long, complicated routine.

2) Inflation of the administrative apparatus.

3) job inflation.

4) adherence to the letter of the law or order.

5) Negligence and indifference on the part of the employees .

6) The tendency towards stereotypes in systems and methods of work.

7) The absence of a coordination factor between the various government agencies in the country .

8) inflexibility.

9) Introduce the organizations.

10) Extravagance and high economic cost of services or production.

11)Favoritism and nepotism.

12) Poor administrative morals, widespread bribery, and achieving illegitimate gains at the expense of the public office and the public interest.

13) Imposing strict confidentiality on administrative work .

14) severe centralization .

Accordingly, it can be said that administrative backwardness is a relative phenomenon that varies from one society to another, from one sector to another, from time to time, and even in parts of one unit within the organization[2].

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[1] Igbelokoto Marvellous Oaikhena, **Administrative bottlenecks hindering efficiency in the practice of public administration**, Singaporean Journal of Bussiness economics and Managment, Vol 11, N°3, 2025, p 47.

[2] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**, p 905-906.

General manifestations of administrative backwardness :

Administrative backwardness has several manifestations, the most important of which are:

1) High rates of efficiency and production (falling).

2) Benefiting from the concepts of knowledgeable management (distance).

3) Take the easier way (primitive in achieving production goals).

4) Pay attention to material resources without intellectual resources.

These phenomena arise from the following reasons:

A- Lack of clarity of objectives

B- Inaccuracy of planning

C- The stagnation of organization.

D- The disintegration and weakness of control, follow-up and evaluation.

There are those who see manifestations of administrative backwardness In developing countries:

- **Distorted bureaucracy**:

lack of functional specialization. More than one manager. Deviation from bureaucratic principles.

- **Structural duplication:**

underdeveloped facilities, along with advanced ones. Central and semi-central official departments. The contrast between innovation and inertia.

- **Neglecting the basic principles of management:**

Equal opportunities. The right person in the right place. The unity of purpose. Organizational dynamics. Determine the scope of management and the unit of supervision.

- **Mismatch of actions and responsibilities with powers**:

imbalances and suppression of the roles of managers.

- **Poor planning and follow-up:**

leads to wastage of funds and the loss of many concepts such as specifications and standards. Not having the right technology.

- **Centralization of senior administrations**

and main facilities in the capital.. which leads to intractable bottlenecks and severe centralization[1]

the basic direct manifestations of administrative backwardness.

1) Lack of production in quantity and quality.

2) Low quality.

3) High melasma.

4) Excessive use of resources.

[1] Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**,p 906.

5) Underdevelopment of management functions: planning, organizing, follow-up, and evaluation[1].

Lecture 5 :Methods of Administrative Development :

Administrative development A comprehensive process that goes beyond training and providing mployees with information, skills and attitudes. It is a purposeful process that aims to create an efficient administrative apparatus that can carry out the burdens of economic and social development and solve its problems.

Administrative development attempts are made by various methods, and each country chooses what it deems appropriate for its situation from these methods. The most important methods of administrative development are the following :

1/ Human Resource Development

HRD is considered as the best way to achieve administrative development it is The process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the accu-mulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy. In political terms, human resource development prepares people for adult participation in political processes, particularly as citizens in a democracy.

From the social and cultural points of view, the development of human resources helps people to lead fuller and richer lives, less bound by tradition[2].

2.Training :

The most important tool in this context, is training it is the act of increasing the knowledge and skills of an employee for doing a particular job. The major outcome of training is learning. A trainee learns a new habit; refined skills and useful knowledge during the training that helps him improve performance. Training enables an employee to do his present job more efficiently and prepare himself for a higher-level job[3].

Training is needed to achieve the following purposes in an organisation:

1. Newly recruited employees require to undergo structured training inputs so as to learn and perform their tasks effectively. The nature of training they receive determines their competencies in handling the job(s) assigned to them.

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[1]Riad Hamid Tayes, **Opcit**,p 906..

[2] Hughes, Claretha,**Contemporary Human Resource Development Issues and Challenges**, USA : IGI Global Scientific Publishing, 2026, p 82.

[3] Rishipal , **Training and Development Methods**, New Delhi : Chand and Company Limited, 2011, P 4.

2. Imparting need-based training to existing employees for grooming them to handle their current jobs better and to prepare them to handle higher level jobs.

3. Existing employees require refresher training so as to keep them abreast of the latest developments in the concerned job-related operations. In the face of rapid technological changes, this is an absolute necessity.

4. Training is also necessary when a person gets transferred from one job to another (job rotation) or when there is enhancement in his job domain (job enlargement).

5. Training makes employees mobile and versatile. They can be placed on various jobs depending on organisational needs.

6. Training improves overall job productivity/employee productivity.

7. Training, when proactively and selectively imparted to employees(s) to prepare them to shoulder higher-level jobs, is known as succession planning [1]

Second: the formation of temporary or permanent committees:

the formation of temporary or permanent committees in some countries, and they are entrusted with the tasks of studying the administrative conditions in government agencies, and making recommendations for the development of these agencies.

The committees are considered one of the common and important methods in achieving administrative development, and the committees consist of groups of experts, charged with studying the causes of failure, corruption, and administrative backwardness, and presenting proposals and recommendations to address them.

here Some General Topics Treated in Employee Training:

Technical Training:

Present day is the day of technological change and advancement. With this pace of change all the machine, technology and technique for performing an operation to get a job done are changing frequently which results in obsolescence. Only remedy to deal with obsolescence is to provide technical training for imparting the new knowledge, skill and attitude to the employees.

Communications:

The increasing diversity of today's workforce brings a wide variety of languages and customs, thus staff should be able to be very good in both written and verbal communication.

Computer skills:

Computer skills are becoming a necessity for conducting administrative and office tasks. In this era of technological advancement, computer skills are very necessary for almost of departments in an organisation.

[1] Rishipal ,**Opcit**, P 29.

Customer service:

Increased competition in today's global marketplace makes it critical that employees understand and meet the needs of customers.

The firm that stands out from the crowd is the firm that puts its customers first, before every other goal. Then there is always need to train staff on customer service.

Diversity:

This includes explanation a about people and their different perspectives and views, and how this can be handled.[1]

Benefits of training and development : There may be several reason/ benefits for which training is organised some of them are:

- Increased job satisfaction and morale among employees.
- Increased employee motivation.
- Increased efficiencies in processes, resulting in financial gain.
- Increased capacity to adopt new technologies and methods.
- Increased innovation in strategies and products.
- Reduced employee turnover.
- Enhanced company image.
- Better inter personal relationship and customer satisfaction.
- Better Risk management and staff safety consciousness.
- Increase in productivity.
- Risk management[2].

Establishing agencies specialized in administrative development:

Most countries in the world establish agencies specialized in matters of administrative development, entrusting them with the tasks of studying the conditions of ministries and government departments, and providing appropriate recommendations for their development, such as reorganizing these agencies, And simplifying procedures in them, training employees, and from the administrative development agencies, the central departments for organization and administration, public administration institutes and civil service bureaus... and other (from the agencies).

The New Public Management (NPM) :

NPM was the outcome of the change of environment. It resulted from the effects of a prolonged recession produced by the energy crisis during the 1970s, the rise of the radical

[1] Zalfa Laili Hamzah and Noor Adwa Sulaiman, **Concepts of Corporate Governance and Public Governance** , Switzerland : Springer, 2026, p31.

[2] Ibid, P 32.

right in Britain and America in the persons of **Margaret Thatcher** and Ronald Reagan respectively, and, above all, the dismantlement of the USSR.

The failure of one system was soon taken as sure proof of the ascendancy of the other. 'Big word spread that the world had now changed course decisively, that it was irreversibly committed to reform but in the direction of a 'hollowing out' of the state, converting public management to private sector ways and globalizing capitalism[1].

Central planning went by the board as decentralization, devolution and downsizing largely replaced the stress on central coordination, direction and control which had marked the postwar efforts at administrative reform, expansion and modernization. Entrepreneurial management, allied to an overarching emphasis on efficiency and effectiveness, necessarily brought in its wake new methods and approaches and drastically altered the ways in which careers in the public service had been structured.

Indeed, the very identity of the public service profession was now called into question as people argued forcefully that, management being management, work in the government service was like any other job. 'Deprivileging' the service became the favored slogan of Thatcherite reformers. It came with insistent demands to 'let the managers manage', increase their discretionary powers and free them from the shackles of rules and regulations or safeguards for

Aspects of new public management :

• Establishment of single-focus agencies and agency disaggregation
• A move from a focus on 'inputs' to outputs, outcomes, and/or results
• A focus on 'efficiency' and 'doing more with less'.
• Greater autonomy to agency managers including decision-making power on human resources and IT and other operational matters.
• Motivating behaviour, including public servant behaviour, through financial incentives
• Internal and external market or quasi-market mechanisms to imitate market competition, including the widespread use of competitive mechanisms, written contracts, 'contractingout', and ultimately privatization.
• A 'customer focus', sometimes defined primarily in market terms, for the provision of public services.
• Adoption of corporate-type accrual accounting systems, and fiscal transparency mechanisms

[1] Demetrios Argyriades and O.P. Dwivedi, **Public Administration In Transition** : A FIfty-Year Trajctory, Worldwide, London : Vallentine Mitchel, 2007, P Xil.

• Professional, union, and operational group influence severely curtailed, with such groups often characterized as having 'rent-seeking' interests to be excluded from decision-making .
• Politicians taking a back seat with respect to 'operations', setting the broad parameters of 'policy' or 'strategy', and leaving day-to-day business to professional managers, in a restatement of the 'policy-administration' split [1]. The new public management emphasizes the following premises :

1. **Focus on Results :**

Public administration should focus on achieving results rather than primarily on conforming to procedures.

2. **Marketization :**

To achieve results, public administration should make better use of marketlike competition in the provision of goods and services. This may be accomplished in several ways. Contracting out can enable government to buy services that it once produced itself. Agencies can be reorganized to more closely resemble private corporations (the U.S. Postal Service, for instance).
Agencies can be made to compete with each other and/or nongovernmental organizations. For example, a central personnel agency can be transformed into a service center that competes with private firms.

3. Customer-Driven :

A corollary of making public administration more marketlike is to make it customer-driven. The public and agency clients are viewed as customers to whom the government should be responsive.
Where an agency sells a product or service in competition with private firms, the logic of responding to customers is obvious.
But even when government provides service and regulation on a monopoly basis or without charging fees, treating the public and clients like customers can enhance public administration's service ethic and efficiency. Overall, agencies should focus their resources on creating value for their citizencustomers.

4. "**Steering, Not Rowing** :

Government should "steer, not row," in Osborne and Gaebler's phrase. Government's job is to assure that public goods and services are provided, not necessarily to produce them itself.

[1] Shaun Francis Goldfinch, **the challenge of public Administration Reform**,in Shaun Francis Goldfinch, Handbook of Public Administration Reform, UK : Elgar Publishing, 2023 , p 7.

In other words, governments may appropriately rely on third parties such as other governments, not-for-profit organizations, and corporations to deliver their services, implement their policies, and enforce some of their regulations.

5. **Deregulation** :

Government should be deregulated. Traditional bureaucracy's emphasis on centralized control of staffing, personnel administration, budgeting, auditing, procurement, and allocation of agency resources is inappropriate to results-oriented public administration. Agency managers will be driven by competition, customers, and accountability for results to make the best use of their employees and budgets.

6. **Employee Empowerment :**

An extension of deregulation is that employees should be empowered to use their creativity in serving customers and doing their jobs. Empowerment is not only possible, it is highly desirable because today's public sector workers are well educated, and information technology makes a great deal more information available to them. Empowerment, as opposed to hierarchy, promotes teamwork[1].

7. **Flexibility :**

Overall, public administrative culture should change to be flexible, innovative, problem solving, entrepreneurial, and enterprising as opposed to rule-bound, process-oriented, and focused on inputs rather than results[2].

Adoption of Public governance principles :

Public governance shapes the way governments make decisions, implement policies, and deliver services to citizens. It is not just about administration but also about ensuring that public resources are managed effectively, fairly, and with transparency.

Since governments today are confronted with complex challenges, ranging from economic uncertainty and technological disruptions to climate change and social inequalities, they would now require a governance model that is responsive, accountable, and inclusive more than ever.

Effective governance requires institutions to not only formulate and enforce the policies but also to continuously evaluate and improve them in order to serve public interest well. A value-based approach to governance as emphasized by the OECD (2020), places integrity, transparency, inclusiveness, and accountability at the heart of decision-making.

[1] David H. Rosenbloom and Robert S. Kravchuk, **Public Administration : Understanding Management**, **Politics, and Law in the Public Sector**, New York : McGraw-Hill Education, 2015, p20

[2] Ibid, p 21

Integrity, serves as a strong shield against corruption, it ensures that policies are not driven by personal or political interests, but by the broader needs of society.

Transparency fosters trust between the government and its people by making information accessible, and by allowing citizens to hold the leaders accountable for various issues. Inclusiveness ensures that the governance does not favour any select group, rather, it represents diverse voices, particularly those who are marginalised or vulnerable. Accountability, when enforced through the rule of law and Accountability, when enforced through the rule of law and robust institutions, ensures that public offcials are answerable for their decisions and actions, thereby reinforcing the legitimacy and credibility of governance structures.

Accountability :

Accountability refers to the obligation of public offcials and institutions to report, explain, and be answerable for the consequences of their decisions, policies, and use of resources. It involves holding elected or appointed individuals and public organisations responsible for their actions, decisions, and the management of public resources.

Accountability means being answerable to the public, from whom their authority is derived. It also includes ensuring proper control, utilisation, and transparent reporting of public funds.

Transparency :

Transparency refers to an openness in decision-making processes, with clear access to relevant information for citizens and oversight bodies.

Transparency means that the public has access to information about government policies and can trust its intentions. It requires open and verifable public accounts, public involvement in policy-making and implementation, and the availability of accurate and timely information on economic and market conditions for public review.

Combating Corruption and Promoting Integrity :

Corruption is the misuse of public trust for personal or private gain. It can occur at the individual, organisational, or institutional level. In government, it often refers to illegal or unethical behaviour by public offcials or agencies.

Poor governance and corruption are major barriers to economic progress. Weak public administration can lead to declining standards among public servants and inadequate oversight by legislative bodies. Corruption also undermines the authority and effectiveness of public institutions[1].

[1]Zalfa Laili Hamzah and Noor Adwa Sulaiman,**Opcit**, P 82

Stakeholder Participation :

Stakeholders play a vital role in shaping public policy and sharing responsibility for managing resources and institutions. Effective governance involves the active participation of citizens, civil society, and other stakeholders in decision-making processes. Such participation empowers citizens and acknowledges the contributions of diverse actors within civil society. It takes place at different levels from local communities .through civic institutions, to regional and national levels through fexible and decentralised forms of government.

Ethical Leadership :

Ethical leadership in public governance is about leaders applying moral principles like honesty, integrity, and fairness to every decision and action. These leaders serve as the moral compass for their organisations, ensuring that public services and policies are always in the best interest of the community[1].

Responsiveness :

Responsiveness refers to the ability of public institutions to serve the needs of stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe and adapt to changing circumstances. Every sector faces risks, so success depends on regular risk assessments and having preplanned solutions. Being responsive to change is critical in a public sector.

This includes adapting to new policies or shifts in working methods, such as embracing remote or hybrid work. In public governance, this responsiveness is especially important and can be broken down into a four key points :

First, anticipation and preparedness mean that public institutions must not only identify potential risks but also proactively develop strategies to mitigate them. This includes preparing for emergencies, economic shifts, or changes in public needs.

Second, adaptability, meaning that governance must be fexible enough to adjust to new policies, technologies, and societal changes. .

Third, engagement and feedback, meaning that a responsive government actively listens to its citizens. Engaging with the public and using their feedback, it can make more informed decisions and better address the community's evolving needs.

Fourth, transparency and accountability mean that public institutions need to be transparent about the risks they face and their plans to address them. This builds trust and ensures they are held accountable for their actions and decisions.

[1]Zalfa Laili Hamzah and Noor Adwa Sulaiman, **Opcit**, P83.

Equity and Inclusiveness :

Equity and inclusiveness are ensuring all members of society, especially vulnerable groups, have opportunities to participate in governance and beneft from public services. It is also ensuring that all people have fair and just access to public services and an equal opportunity to participate in the decision-making processes that affect their lives. This goes beyond treating everyone the same (equality) and instead focuses on addressing historical and systemic disadvantages to create a level playing field.

Effectiveness and Efficiency :

Effectiveness and effciency refer to using public resources wisely to achieve policy goals while minimising waste, streamlines processes, and maximizes productivity. The public sector needs to be durable and sustainable. All processes should be developed with longevity and cost-effectiveness in mind[1]

Strategic Vision :

Strategic vision refers to leadership that has a clear long-term perspective on national development, while considering historical, cultural, and social contexts. Leadership is the engine of strategic vision in public governance.

Rule of Law :

The rule of law ensures that laws are applied equally, fairly, and consistently, with no individual or institution above the law. It upholds judicial independence, safeguards citizens' rights, and provides the foundation for justice and accountability. Good governance depends on strong legal frameworks that maintain these standards and promote trust in public institution[2].

Digital Governance for achieving administrative development :

Digital government can be used to achieve administrative development through increasing the responsiveness and accessibility of government. Web sites or e-mail enable new convenient ways to interact with government with the result that government services are accessible around the clock and 7 days a week.

By improving public service delivery, government can change external efficacy that is people's judgment that government cares about their concerns. Thus, responsiveness and accessibility increase process-based trust in government .

Digital government can also be used to improve people's judgment of the accountability and fairness of government. Access to searchable databases containing policies, laws, minutes, plans, and contact information makes increased accountability of government to the public possible.

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[1] Zalfa Laili Hamzah and Noor Adwa Sulaiman,**Opcit** p8.
[2]Ibid , P 85.

Moreover, by publishing privacy and security statements as well as policies for handling personal information, governments can be perceived as fair and ethical. The implementation of digital government can improve transparency and responsibility perceptions of people and thus, increase people's institutional-based trust in government. Other aspects of digital government can increase both process-based and institutional-based trust[1].

Through digital government, service delivery can be more efficient and effective. On the one hand, people using public online services will feel that government is effective by providing all relevant information online.

On the other hand, people will believe that government is adopting state-of-the-art e-business concepts which may transform the image of government in a positive manner. Thus, by improving the efficiency and effectiveness of public service delivery, government can increase people's process-based and institutional-based trust in government.

In addition to improved efficiency and effectiveness, digital government provides opportunities for citizens to give input to political decisionmaking processes. Chats, forums, or interactive blogs allow people to become engaged. While those people who take advantage of these new opportunities will increase their process-based trust in government, others may simply see the opportunities for participation and thus, experience an increase in their institutional-based trust and .

Overall, the goal of digital government is to transform the relationship between government and society in such a manner that people view government as more responsive, accessible, transparent, responsible, participatory, efficient, and effective than before[2].

Decentralization :

development will not lie through large scale governmental organizations. It will lie through a decentralized system having small organizations, under the direct control of the people. They may take the shape of local government agencies such as panchayats, cooperative societies or communes. Such agencies have hardly been given a trial in underdeveloped countries so far.

Local government agencies are often set up by, and are part and parcel in law, of central governments. In India, municipalities and Zila parishads may be superseded by State Governments: the focus of power is controlled by top politicians.

[1] Daniel Veit Jan Huntgeburth, **Foundations of Digital Government : Leading and Managing in the Digital Era**, Berlin : Springer Publishers, 2014, p 7.
[2] Ibid**,** p7.

All benefits, be they subsidised seeds or fertilisers or loans for agriculture or industry, or employment, tend thus to be siphoned off to the thin upper crust; such allocation of resources can lead to development.

Reduction in Corruption :

Western writers often refer to the benefits of corruption in underdeveloped societies .They rightly perceive that corruption has a role in maintaining political stability[1]. In an unjust society the semblance of justice is maintained and legitimacy is retained through the mechanism of corruption. All constitutional and legal formalities are ostensibly observed ; at the same time the powerful elements gain benefits by underhand ' informal ' methods

Economic Equality :

In this perspective, economic equality is not so much an end in itself as another prerequisite of development. In so far as riches, education and power go together, the great gulf between the ruling and ruled classes is the greatest obstacle to development.

Hence one of the first concrete steps must be the reduction of glaring economic inequalities. These need to be reduced within governmental organizations as well as outside.

The wages of lower level government employees often are very meagre as compared to the salaries and perquisites of the high ups. Millions of people, particularly in rural areas, get employment only in part of the year when operations like sowing and harvesting are in progress .this vast human resource is not participating fully in the development process[2].

Political participation :

People's participation in underdeveloped societies need not take the same shape as it has done in the West. There the interest groups compete for the resources; political parties and the bureaucracy arbitrate among them.

In underdeveloped societies the situation is different : semi feudalism or landlordism, money lending by rich usurers, domination by the high castes, settlement of disputes by strong arm methods, centralized police systems, utilization of the police and similar organs by powerful people for personal ends - these and such others are its characteristics.

The aim of political activity here must be mainly a more even distribution of power. One mechanism for this could be people's committees as suggested by Jayaprakash Narayan Development must be seen as a wholistic process.

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[1] Satya Deva, **Western Conceptualization of Adminisrative Development : A Critique and An Alternative** , in Eric Otenyo and Nancy Lind, **Comparative Public Administration :The Essential Readings**, USA : Elseveir, 2006,P 237.

[2] Ibid,P 238.

The effort to develop the bureaucratic mechanism while the rest of the society remains backward leads to negative development as rightly pointed out by Riggs.Hence administrative development must be part of the process of beneficial social change encompassing economic, social, political and cultural aspects[1].

Lecture 6: Administrative Development and Development Administration

The term'Development Administration' was first coined by an Indian scholar Goswami in 1955. In his prominent study "the Structure of Development Administration in India'. However, George Grant is considered as the father of the concept of Development administration[2].

It denotes the complex agencies, managemet systems and processes a government establishes to achieve its development goals. Simply development administration is the administrationof policies, programs and projects to serve development and purposes[3].

The basic assumption towards development administration is the focus of attention on the building and improvement of a public administration system as part of the totality of efforts for national development. It covers both the development of administration and the administration of development. The former refers to strengthening and improving administrative capabilities of those involved in the development effort; the latter is identified with organisational development[4].

Development administration definitions:

Definitions of Development administration Development Administration as an academic discipline emerged in the West in the beginning of 1960s in an era of state-led development. The impetus for the study can be traced to Robert Dahl's 1947 article where Public Administration was criticized for its **inability to develop a comparative framework.'** Although the term was first used by an Indian civil servant,Goswami in his article "The Structure of Development Administration in India" in 1955 in the context of Community Development Programme, it was popularized by Gant, Stone, Riggs and Weidner in 1960s.

The emergence of former colonies into independent nations, abundance of research funding with the **Comparative Administration Group (CAG)**, financial and technical assistance under the USAID programme—all these led to popularization of development administration as a mechanism for attainment of socio-economic progress and nation-

[1] Satya Deva,**Opcit** , P239.
[2] Ibid,P 564.
[3] Mahajan Anupama Puri, **Development Administration in India**, London : Sage Publisher, 2019, P 4
[4] Sapru, **Opcit**, p8.

building in the so-called Third world (with the exception of Latin America, this world of newly independent nations was a legacy from the pre-war colonial order dominated by a few European powers). The impact of the Great Depression of 1930s[1],
Development Administration as a field of study emerged in the 1960s within the fold of comparative public administration with substantial research support from the Ford Foundation. Its theoretical foundation was built upon several critical assumptions.

It believed that :

(1) developmental needs are the most important needs of developing countries;
(2) the developmental needs of developing and developed countries are inherently different;
(3) development can be administered;
(4) developmental know-hows are transferable; and

(5) the political, social, and cultural context of development can be easily altered. In general, there was an inherent desire to assist developing countries in meeting their overwhelming problems.

Riggs says: "Administration cannot normally be improved very much without changes in the environmental constraints (the infrastructure') that hamper its effectiveness; and the environment itself cannot be changed unless the administration of developmental programs is strengthened.[2]"

Merle Fainsod, Development administration "embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernization and industrialisation. Development administration ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth, and mobilising and allocating resources to expand national income[3]

Montgomery Development administration is concerned with "carrying planned change in the economy or capital infrastructure or to a lesser extent in the social services, especially health and education".

George Gant defines administrative development as the administration of policies, programmes and projects to serve development purposes

Edward Weidner describes development as a "process of dynamic transformation. Development as a process is never ending and never complete"[4].

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[1] Satya Deva, **Opcit**, p546 .
[2] Fred Riggs, **The Idea of development Administration**, in Edward Weidner, Development Administration in Asia, Durham :Duke University Press, 1970, pp32-33
[3] **Merle Fainsod** ,**The Structure of Development Administration,** In Irving Swerdlow, Development Administratin, Concepts, and Problems,Syracuse : Syracuse University Press ; 1963, p 2.
[4] S.P Naidu, **Public Administration : Concepts and Theories**, New Delhi : New Age International Limited Publishers, 2005, p 148.

it is an action-oriented, goal-oriented administrative system". He further says, "... Development administration... refers to the process of guiding an organization toward achievement, of progressive political, economic and social objectives. Weidner highlights the following elements of the process of development administration:

1. increasing the capacity of an administrative system to achieve certain specified objectives;
2. these objectives are multifaceted, and are political, economic, and social in character;
3. the objectives are determined 'authoritatively', i.e., by 'Government' and other authoritative bodies, if any[1].

Fred W. Riggs: "Development is a function of political system involving increased ability to shape and reshape their environment'.' Development is, thus, in new modern state especially in the "developing countries", the main responsibility of the state's main organ i.e. the political system. Another explanation of the word "development" is given by Professor Riggs in these words : "As the rising levels of autonomy or discretion (of socialsystems) .

Donald Stone defined concept of development administration in terms of plans, policies, programmes and projects towards the achievement of developmental goals. In his own words. " Development Administration is the blending of all the elements and resources (human and physical) . . . into a concerted effort to achieve agreed-upon goals. It is the continuous cycle of formulating, evaluating and implementing interrelated plans, policies, programmes, projects, activities and other measures to reach established development objectives in a scheduled time sequence[2]

Development administration, therefore, is concerned primarily with the tasks and processes of formulating and implementing the four P's in respect to whatever mixture of goals and objectives may be politically determined [3]

Two facets of development administration :

The concept of development administration has two major facets. One facet of it refers to **'development of administration'** .By this we mean to develop administrators. It involves strengthening and improving administrative capabilities as a means for achieving development goals.

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[1] Ramesh Arora , **Administrative Development : Some Conceptual Issues**, in Rakesh Hooja and Ramesh Arora, Administrative Theories, concepts and thinkers, New Delhi : Rawat Publications, p145.
[2]Donald C. Stone, '**Tasks, Precedents and Approaches to Education for Development Administration'**, in D.C. Stone (ed.), Education for Development Administration (Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1966), p. 41.
[3] Vishnoo Bhagwan and Vidya Bhushan, **Public Administration**, New Delhi : Chand and Company LTD, 1961, p49.

The other facet is **administrative development** According to this interpretation, we expect development administration (administrative organization) to act as an instrument in the implementation of development programmes, projects and policies. This may involve raising the standards of education, transforming social systems, improving public health, raising national income, stabilizing political system, conserving national resources, improving communication system, constructing dams, power plants and undertaking many other developmental tasks of national importance[1].

As a concept , Riggs defines **development administration** as the combined process of both the '**administration of development**' (implementation of development policies and plans) and the 'development of administration' (improvement of administrative capabilities[2].

Administration of Development and Development of Administration: A Chicken-and-Egg Relationship :

In the literature on Development Administration, two notions have been interwoven: first the "**administration development**" and second, the "**development of administrative capacity**". The former is termed as "Development Administration", and the latter "Administrative Development".

Both the phenomena are interdependent any society experiencing notable development in its political, economic, social and cultural systems is likely to affect in a matching manner, its administrative system, and conversely a well-organised and competent administrative system is likely to direct the process of all-round development of society in a competent manner.

These twin processes are so much interlinked that it is difficult to assert as to which would be more prominent and which would precede the other. Little wonder that Fred Riggs has found in "Development Administration" and "Administrative Development" a "chicken and egg" relationship[3].

To put it differently, Fred W. Riggs uses the term **'development administration'** in two interrelated senses.

First, 'it refers to the administration of development programmes, to the methods used by large scale organizations, notably governments, to implement policies and plans designed to meet their developmental objectives' .

[1] R.K Sapru, **Development Administration**, New Delhi : Sterling Publishers, 1994, p 82.
[2] Bikram Keshari Pattanaik, **Anatomy of Development : Concept, Theory, and Practice**, New York : Routledge Publisher, 2025, p 245.
[3] Raj Kumar Pruthi, **Administrative Organizations**, New Delhi : Discovery Publishing House, p10.

Second, it 'by implication, rather than directly involves the strengthening of administrative capabilities'. Indeed, both 'administration of development' and 'development of administration' are functionally interrelated to each other.

Riggs has rightly observed that the reciprocal relatedness of these two sicles involves ***'chicken-and-egg-type'*** causation.

Administration cannot normally be improved very much without changes in the environmental constraints (the infrastructure) that hamper its effectiveness, and the environment itself cannot be changed unless the administration of development programmes is strengthened[1].

Functions of Development Administration:

J.N Khosla lists the main functions of development dministration as follows:

1. Formulation of development goals and policies.
2. programme formulation and programme/project management.
3. Reorganization of administrative structures and procedures.
4. evaluation of results.
5. securing people's participation in the development effort.
6. promoting growth of social and political infrastructure[2].

Features of Development-Administration :

The following features of development-administration can be identified.

(1) Change-orientation :

The distinctive mark of development-administration is its central concern with socio-economic change. Development administrators should change their attitudes, outlooks and orientation in order to bring about over all socio-economic transformation in the society.

(2) Result-orientation :

Development-administration has to be result-oriented, Elements of Development-Administration socio-economic change has to be brought about rapidly and within a time horizon.

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[1] Bidyut Chakrabarty and Prakash Kandpal, **Public Administration**, New York : Routledge,2005, without page.

[2] P Polinaudu, **Opcit**, 572.

(3) Commitment, devotion and dedication :

Commitment to" the problems of the country, commitment to social and economic change, and commitment is needed tochange the socio-economic scene of the country. Administrators should not only commit in planning and implementation of the programme of development but also in the entire process of transformation and modernisation of Indian Society.

4) Client-orientation :

Another characteristic of development-administration is that it is client-oriented. There is a close relation or connection between the public and administration that is an essential attribute of development-administration[1].

Development-administration is manifestly client-oriented. It has to satisfy the aspirations and urges of the clients i.e. the people of the areas. The needs, requirements and wants of the needy people of the underdeveloped countries are to be satisfied and fulfilled within a specified time.

Development-administration has to be positively oriented towards satisfying the needs of the people. The people are not the passive beneficiaries. They are the active participants in the development or public programmes.

(5)Temporal-dimension :

Development-administration has only one fundamental constraint i.e., time. This implies that all development programmes are to be necessarily completed within a specific time.

(6) Planned and **coordinaed efforts :**

Development-administration refers to organised efforts to carry out the development programmes and projects. These efforts are directed towards national development.

(7) Goal-oriented administration :

Development-administration is not just public administration in the sense of carrying out activities. It is goal, purpose, and objective-oriented administration. Its main goals are social and economic.

It handles development programmes of a complex nature. It plays an appropriate role in bringing about desired change-social, political and economic. It ia flexible in its operation. It is operational in its nature. Its contents are positive.

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[1] P.B. Rathod, **Elements of Development Administration : Theory and Practice**, India : ABD Publishers, 2010, p 9-10.

(8)Management Development-administration:

involves creating and enhancing management capacities as a means of achieving development goals. It should have the capacity to face the challenges. These challenges are social and economic change and state building. Indeed its focus is on improving the skills and knowledge of development-oriented administrators so that they may be able to respond to the growing needs of the people.

(9) Progressivism :

It is the important task of development-administratio .In development-administration, progression implies training and development of administrators.

Development-administration prepares administrators for distant future. This requires forecasting in the light of changing technology and methods. For example, environment protection requires that administra tors be trained in the technical aspects of conservation of environment resources[1].

(10) Participation :

Development-goals involve greater participation of the people. In political democracy participation implies strengthening of the pressure groups, political parties, equal opportunity in political-offices and respect for public opinion in government affairs. [2]

It is expected of development-administration machinery to create and promote such condition that will facilitate greater participation of the people in the processes of economic and social change and in the delivery of public services, participation by the people in the formulation, implementation, evaluation of programmes and projects, that is a distinct element of development-administration

For participation to the meaningful and effective people must be familiar with the problems to be addressed. They must demonstrate their ability and willingness in participation. Development-oriented administration effectively utilizes the strategies of decentralisation, delegation consultation and thus make administration grassroot-oriented.

(11) Creativity and innovativeness :

An important element in development-administration is creativity. It means ability and power to develop new ideas. Innovation means application of these ideas. Thus, the important task of government is to promote and carry out innovation.

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[1] P.B. Rathod, **Opcit**, p 10.
[2] Ibid, p12.

Development-administration is an instrumental ity of government, lays stress upon the adoption of new structures, procedures, policies, plans, programmes which will help in achieving the development objectives.

(12) Responsiveness and accountability :

in the traditional administrative system, administrators tend to be routine minded, stagnant and generally lacking enthusiasm and ability for innovation. Development-administration on the other hand requires an administrator who is dynamic, innovative, and development conscious to perform his role in the administration for development. This is indeed a most decisive area in development-administration.

Development-administration is required to be responsive and accountable. A top-down/bottom-up flow, that is the important criteria, innovation, creativity, adaptability, flexibility are crucial in the planning and administration of development activities. All these requirements can be facilitated by development-administration.

A development-administration requires highly motivated personnel at all levels. Such personnel should be committed to the development goals and have a high degree of enthusiasm to accomplish them. They need to possess and demonstrate their willingness, dedication to achieve the progressive goals of development.

(13) People-centred administration :

Development-administration is essentially people-centred administration. It aims at serving the people, development programmes and projects which are drawn up by the planners[1]

14/ **Elements of Development-Administration and administrators**

aims at benefiting the people. The need for a flexible, and action-oriented approach to the administration of community development is widely recognised.

Development-administration has to the. respond to the demands and challenges arising from its environment.

(15) Keeping in touell with social realities :

In contrast to the traditional administration, development-administration is required to keep in touch with realities including grassroots situations, local problems etc. In developing countries which are very heterogeneous with large differences between cities and rural areas, between different socio-economic groups etc., development-administrators are expected to be in constant touch with the rapidly shifting social realities.

[1] P.B. Rathod, **Opcit**, p13.

15) Over-lapping :

In developing societies there is a overlapping institutional forms as well as behavioural patterns. For example, for aggregating the political-interests of the people, there may be regular political parties but side by side with them there might be caste, tribal, communal organisations also functioning as political-parties.

This phenomenon of overlapping is also to be found in political government as well as administrative structures. Thus, voters might cast their votes on accOlmt of caste or tribal considerations rather than political or economic interests.

Officers insist not only on western style of clothing manners, but also on administrative aids like organisation charts, work flow charts etc. But in their mode of thinking and working they are still guided by ascriptive orientations of a traditional society. The social role of the officer often overlaps his official role and causes a lot of confusion and maladjustment.

16)Heterogeneity of forms and institutions :

The developing societies make conscious efforts towards modernisation of their economies and technologies. This places them organisationally and behaviourally in a transitional stage, with the result that society becomes a heterogeneous mix of old and new as well as traditional and modern elements.

Bullock carts co-exist with automobiles, chaparasis co-exist with telephones as aids to administration, mud-huts with sky-scrapers.

Further, we also find heterogeneity in administrative systems. There are many administrative malady in these administrative systems, such as favouritism and corruption emanate from behavioural maladjustment [1].

[1] P.B. Rathod, **Opcit**, p 14.

Lecture 6 :Administrative Reform:

Public administration as an academic discipline was born with a bias towards change and reform. **Literally,** The term **'reform'** literally means **forming again, or to give new shape or form**.also it signifies "**to bring to a better way of life.**

The *Oxford English Dictionary:*

defines 'reform' as 'to convert into another and better form, to amend or improve by some change of form, arrangement or composition; to free from previous faults or imperfection'. Following this definition, 'administrative reform' is to convert public administration into a better, improved form.

In other words, administrative reform is a deliberately planned exercise to improve public administration[1].

Reform' is generally identified with improvement or the creation of 'good administration', and consequently has a clearly normative taint[2].Peters claims that 'change in the public sector is the rule rather than the exception',

Gerald Caiden defines administrative reform as 'the artificial inducement of administrative transformation, against resistance'.

According to him: it is artificial because it is man-made, deliberate, planned, it is not natural, accidental or automatic. It is induced because it involves persuasion, argument, and the ultimate threat of sanctions; it is not universally accepted as the obvious or true course[3].

Reform is defined as ' a deliberate attempt to change both (a) the structures and procedures of the public bureaucracy(reorganization or institutional aspects) and the attitudes and behavior of public bureaucrats involved(the attitudinal aspect), in order to promote organizational effectiveness and attain national development goals[4].

John Montgomery defines Administrative reform is a political process designed to adjust the relationships between a bureaucracy and other elements in a society, or within the bureaucracy itself[5].

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[1] Bidyut Chakrabarty and Prakash Chand Kandpal, **opcit**, without page

[2] Arane Leemans, **A Conceptual Framework for the Study of Reform of Central Government**, in Arane Leemans, The Management of Change in Goverment, Netherlands : Martinus Nijhoff, 1976, p 8.

[3] Gerald Caiden, **Administrative Reform**, Chicago : Aldine Publishing Company, 1969, p 65.

[4] John Quah, **Public administration** : **Singapore-Style**, UK : Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 2010 , p128.

[5] John D. Montgomery, **'Sources of Bureaucratic Reform: Problems of Power, Purpose and Politics'** (Bloomington, Comparative Administration Group Occasional Papers, 1967),p1.

To Hann-Bee, administrative reform is an 'effort to apply new ideas or combinations of ideas to an administrative system for positive goals of national development' .

Arne Leemans describes administrative reform as 'induced change in the machinery of government undertaken in an effort to bridge a gap between reality and desirability'.

Although there is no universally accepted definition of administrative reform, there is fundamental agreement among scholars that is meant to improve administrative capability and capacity, for achieving national goals effectively. In other words, it is meant to encourage an effective administration to enhance and increase the quality of public services and deliver such goals and services to citizens more economically, efficiently and effectively.

Administrative reform is based on three premises—that government will play an increasingly important part in the life of society, that government needs effective machinery to operationalize policies, and that effective machinery can be designed on sound rational principles. However, one does not have to sympathize with government aggrandizement and bureaucratic elitism to favor improved government performance and effectiveness[1] .

What it suggests is that *(a)* administrative reform is about deliberate planned change affecting the society in purview,
(b) it is synonymous with innovation[2],

1. **responding to environmental changes**:

Innovation through administrative revolution of new ways and strategies: it is essential for organizations to adaptively fit into the changing environments with the challenges that come their way.

2. **Improving services**:

Innovative administration greatly improves quality of services for those in organizations' care—it's a realm of processes development and methods innovation, when adopted, enables the institutions to offer more productive and efficient services that eventually favor the recipients.

3. Developing intellectual capabilities:

Administrative innovation promotion is considered important for the growth of individuals' intellectual abilities within an organization. Creating such an environment that not only promotes innovation but also nurtures creative thought

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Administrative Reform: A View Fom The Fileld**, Policy Studies Journal, 1979, p 457.
[2] Bidyut Chakrabarty and Prakash Chand Kandpal, **Administrative Change and Innovation A Reader,Opcit,** p5.

among employees allows them to uncover new approaches towards challenges and problems which in return acts as a trigger towards development, improving skills and intellectual capabilities[1].

(c) improvements in public service efficiency and effectiveness are the intended outcomes of the reforms, and

(d) the reforms are justified by the need to cope with the uncertainties and rapid changes in the organizational environment.

Despite the differences there are some common elements in the various definitions.

First, administrative reform is about deliberate planned change to public bureaucracies.

Second, it is synonymous with innovation.

Third, improvements in public service efficiency and effectiveness are the intended outcomes of the reform process. Fourth, the urgency of reform is justified by the need to cope with the uncertainties and rapid changes taking place in the organizational environment

According to **Caiden**, administrative reform is needed in the following circumstances:

- When the administration is obviously failing to meet the demands put on it;
- when the administration with reserve capacity is unable to anticipate future demands;
- when the administration with reserve capacity is unable to anticipate future demands; and
- when the administration that does have reserve capacity and the ability to anticipate future demands does not adopt the most effective methods[2].
- the inability of the administration to meet the present demands and anticipate future demands makes a space for administrative reforms.

The administration has to adapt to the new role. This need for change in turn necessitates reforms.And the fundamental objective of such reform is the improvement of administration, variously described the cure of maladministration, the attainment of efficient performance at minimum expenditure of resources and the development and implementation 'of whatever

[1] Majid Abdul Mahdi Mensaadah and Shadi Naif Husein From Machine, **the Impact of Strategic Vigilance on Administrative Innovation, : The Arab Bank Case Study**, in Manaf Al Okaily and Fadi Shihadeh, Learning to Artificial Intelligence, Switzland : Springer Publishers, 2025, p 273

[2] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p131.

changes are required to enable administrative organs to execute public policies in an effective and responsible manner' ;

The Reasons of the Emergence of Admlinistrative reform ;

Administrative started becoming a subject odf serious study during the 1950s when systemtic efforts were being made to provide technical assistance to the developing countries to strengthen their administrative capabilities for development .

the prominence of administrative reform on the intenational scene was largely the result of pressure from poor countries and the aid agencies themselves and also the influence of the comparative,administrative group (C.A.G) of the american society for public administration which composed of scholars involved in international assistence efforts to improve administrative capacities.

The main reason for the emergence of the (C .A.G) in fact was the apparent limitations of the western model of public administration when applied to the problems of Asia, Africa, and latin America. The larger context and complexities of development in the newly independent states have revealed serious underlying problems that could be studied and remedied not only through the application of law and political science, but also through the joint application of economics , psychology, sociology, and other social sciences

Objectives of administrative reform :

Mosher identifies four major sub-goals of administrative reform: Changing operating policies and programmes; improvement of administrative effectiveness; higher quality personnel and more effective staff performance; and anticipating outside criticism or threat[1].

Objectives can be divided into **external and internal**. Dror, who stresses the multiplicity of objectives (reform is a 'multi-goal oriented endeavour'), also distinguishes two principal categories, each of which is divided into three goal-clusters:

(a) **intra-administration** directed objectives which are primarily concerned with improving the administration; and

(b) objectives dealing with the societal roles of the administrative system, and with changing policies and programmes.In many cases, internal and external objectives are closely related. The former are usually set as means towards the greater attainment of external objectives, e.g. to realise certain societal situations or relationship!!, or to increase and improve outputs. This interrelationship is partic-

[1] Frederick Mosher , '**Some notes on reorganization in public agencies'**, in R.C. Martin , Public administration and democracy, Syracuse : Syracuse University Press, , 1965, p 15.

ularly evident where the survival of the organisation(-al unit), or the maintenance arid expansion ofits domain and influence are concerned.

External objectives:

External objectives have been spelled out in many reform programmes, particularly in developing nations. Social and economic development is a frequent objective in developing countries .

Economic considerations were also evident in the development ofthe government planningstructure in Germany (Scheuner). A more limited socio-economic objective was at the basis ofthe reform analysed by Thoenig-Friedberg: the promotion ofurban housing development.

Another objective is the strengthening of democracy in government and administration. This is particularly evident in reforms which involve a system of decentralisation, and in reforms concerning the relationship between the Chief Executive and Cabinet on the one hand, and Parliament on the other or between the government and the (single) party[1].

External objectives are often obscure and open to different interpretations as to their effects on the organisational structure and processes.

This applies also to t.he basic values that underlie the objectives, such as equality and social justice (Johnson). The more obscure the general objectives, the lesser the likelihood of consensus when it comes to their operationalisation into specific societal objectives and the proper governmental and administrative structures and processes with which to achieve them.

General and often more specific objectives therefore provide little basis for administrative reform programmes. Moreover, the latter are usually reticent about what is frequently their principal objective, namely, to increase power and influence[2].

Some objectives are therefore concealed with or without intent, while those ofpopular appeal are given undue emphasis as window dressing (Caiden) for power considerations. At the same time, fundamental societal objectives may be neglected, or left unexplicated because they seem so obvious Internal objectives may also be manifold.

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[1]A. F. Leemans, **A Conceptual Framework for the Study of Reform of Central Government**, in Arne Leemans, The Management Change in Goverment, Netherlands : Martinus Nijhoff, 196, p28.
[2] Ibid, P 28.

Traditionally, administrative reform has been equated with organisational efficiency, and often inspired by the necessity to reduce government expenditure. Some reforms, inspired by this objective, have nevertheless focused more generally on improvement of the administration. Caiden considers the 'cure of maladministration a primary objective of administrative reform'[1].

Administrative Reform and innovation :

An administrative reform can then be defined as an effort to apply new ideas and combinations of ideas to administrative system with a conscious view to improving the system for positive goals of national development, in contrast, innovation involves application of new ideas to organizational endeavours regardless of the particular form they take, and that everyone in an organization has innovational potential[2].

In this field, **Richard La Pierre** defines innovation as is an idea for accomplishing some recognized social end in a new way or for a means of accomplishing some new social end. The idea or pattern of ideas may become manifest as a new kind of tool or mechanical device, as a new procedure, as a new material or substance, as a place or terrain previously unknown to man, as a new mode of human action, or as a new concept or belief.

Whatever the manifestation, the innovating consists of the creation of a unique and to a significant degree unprecedented mental construct, the idea that makes possible the "thing[3].Innovation is defined as “the adoption of an idea or behavior, whether a system, policy, program, device, process, product, or service that is new to the adopting organization” .

Innovation is a principal way through which public sector organizations address new and varied challenges, whether that is downtown revitalization, ensuring that the workplace is suited for the needs of business, or meeting targets of net zero carbon emissions[4].

Types of Innovations : as follows

1**. Radical vs. Incremental :**

Radical innovations are defined as involving high or complete departure from past practices. The phrase disruptive is used to indicate a radical break from existing practices.

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[1]A. F. Leemans,**Opcit**, P 28

[2] [2] Hahn-Been Lee, **An Application of Innovation Theory to the Strategy of Administrative Reform in Developing Countries,** Policy Sciences, issue, 1,1970 , p181.

[3] Ibid, p181.

[4]Evan M. Berman and Imane Hijal-Moghrabi, **Performance and Innovation in the Public Sector : Managing for Results**, New York : Routledge Publisher, 2023, P 11.

Radical innovations often have a high impact on programs or organizations, typically in new program targetsnew outputs and outcomes) and activities. Whereas, incremental innovations involve minor or modest changes to current practices, and many public sector innovations are incremental.

Process vs. Services:

Some innovations target processes used by organizations and programs in the delivery of programs and services, whereas others focus on the service or program itself that is provided to citizens and clients. Service innovations improve the quality of existing services to create or deliver new services or to expand services to new users. service innovations have six components:

(1) a new service concept,

(2) a new customer interaction,

(3) introducing new values (e.g., inclusion, sustainability,

equity – going beyond efficiency and effectiveness),

(4) new revenue or fee models,

(5) personnel, organizational, and cultural elements of a new delivery system

(6) technological elements of a new delivery system[1].

Administrative reform and change:

Reform and change are similar in many respects, and it is not surprising that the words are used synonymously, as for instance in this definition: " 'Administrative reform' means any change of principles, organization, structure, methods or procedures which is aimed at improving the administrative process. . . . [It] is a continued, sometimes hardly perceptible, change, a process of evolution and not a revolution". Both result from tension. Both depend on mobility but rely on some semblance of security, order, and stability.

Both can be premeditated, planned, expected, and uneven. They merge imperceptibly whenever resistance appears or disappears. The differences between them are not clear-cut .

(1) **Reform tends to be purposive**, willed, manipulated, artificial; change tends to be automatic, self-adjusting, autonomous, and unforeseen.

(2) **Reform tends to be avoidable**, episodic, particularistic, *identifiable;* change tends to be ceaseless, universal, anonymous, imperceptible.

(3) **Reform tends to stress conflict and difference**; change tends to stress consensus, conformity and acceptance.

[1]Evan M. Berman and Imane Hijal-Moghrabi, **Opcit,** p 86-87

(4) **Reform tends to arise out of crisis**, threats to treasured values, loss of vitality, and inflexibility; change tends to be multicausal, normal, and unavoidable. These, though, are secondary criteria, subordinate to moral purpose, artificial transformation, and administrative resistance[1].

Reforms need not be implemented by reformers or advocated by reform movements. The most spectacular (qualitative) reforms usually are spearheaded by reformers and reform movements, but the great bulk (quantitative) arise in the normal course of administration, rarely extend beyond the specific situation, and are quickly incorporated and forgotten. Reforms take the form of solutions to problems disputed between rival claimants. but reorganisation ofthe machinery of government', which refers to a consciously induced and directed change in the machinery of government[2].

Structural reform :

is very common in public administration. The basic concern here is with division of work, delegation and decentralization, as well as the creation of autonomous agencies and setting up of coordinating mechanism to harmonize the actions of interdependent units.

Procedural reform:

is also frequently suggested and pursued in government organizations. This may involve changes in financial rules, alteration of work procedures (changes in filing methods, forms and so on) and general attempts to avoid red tape. Application of a battery of management techniques to different administrative situations also belongs to this category of reform.

Behavioural reform:

is a relatively new dimension in administrative reform. Here, the focus is on public bureaucracy that has been criticized for its impersonal character and dehumanizing consequences.

Behavioural changes have, therefore, been suggested to improve inter-personal and inter-group relationships within the bureaucracy. Also, such changes are advocated to make the administration serve the public better. Participative management and sensitivity training have gained wide currency in recent times in public administration[3].

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[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit,** p 67
[2] Ibid**,** p 67
[3] Bidyut Chakrabarty, Prakash Chand Kandpal, **Administrative Change and Innovation A Reader,** Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2005, p5.

administrative reforms are very difficult to implement, as they represent real or perceived shifts in prevailing authority relationships. As far as implementation of reforms is concerned, Caiden refers to four methods of implementation:

1.**Reforms imposed through political revolution**;
2. **Reforms introduced to remedy organizational rigidity;**
3.**Reforms through the legal system;** and
4. **Reforms through changes in attitudes[1].**

Actors in administrative reform :

The success or failure of reform action depends largely on the influence and power structure in the organisation and on the influence and power of persons and groups who support or oppose the reorganisation. It is unlikely that reform action (initiative, support or opposition) will affect the reorganisation process unless it has the support of people or groups who can exercise a good deal of influence .

the major groups of actors are political and bureaucratic. These are: actors as individuals, and actors as performers of a certain role. In the first feature the emphasis is on motivation, in the second on position in the social system. The motivation Of a member of an organisation to become actively involved as a reform actor and his behaviour as such is an important issue in the reorganisation process.

We distinguish **two categories of actors**: occupants of political offices and occupants of bureaucratic offices[2].

Holders of political offices :

The importance of political actors for the success or failure of administrative reform efforts has been frequently stressed. Grozenick and Mosher conclude that in developing countries the support ofpolitical leadership has been dramatically shown to be the conditio sine qua non for the success of reform efforts. However, we have .already seen that in itself it is not sufficient to guarantee success.

This will depend on the systemic or personal strength of the political leadership, and the degree to which individual political office holders who have dominant roles in the reform process are key figures in the political system. The following features ofthe role of political actors are of significance:

- their attitudes to reform and the conditions which influence these attitudes;
- the influence of the political and administrative system on their role[3].

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p 34
[2] Ibid, P34
[3] Ibid, P34

Political actors are primarily concerned with the machinery of government as an instrument with which to maintain or uproot the political system, and with which to develop and implement individual, group or party views and policies[1].

This will determine their attitude towards administrative reform and the roles they wish to play. In many countries the position of most political actors is by definition insecure, and they will use or allow reorganisation only when, and to the extent that, they expect to reduce this insecurity.

The second important feature of the actual role of the various political actors in reform is the power structure of the major organs. The power struggle among these organs determines their respective roles in administrative reform, and also whether reform proposals will be initiated and successfully implemented[2].

Holders of bureaucratic offices :

The second important group of actors in **administrative reform** are the holders of bureaucratic offices in the machinery of government; that is, the bureaucracy of central government departments and their field administrations, as well as the staffs of semi-independent government agencies such as special agencies, public corporations, etc.

Administrative reform is a struggle for power and control among various politician and bureaucrat actors. The victorious side in the battle for power ends up expanding their domain and turf in government. While the losers' relative power lessened.

Thus, the word bureaucratic politics in administrative reform is used to describe the political games of bargaining, pulling and hauling, that goes on among and between politicians and bureaucrats to push for administrative reforms in government which would increase one's relative power in government. In this bureaucratic politics framework, there are several types of power relations among and between politicians and bureaucrats[3].

First is the relation between politicians and bureaucrats. Second is the relation among bureaucrats, which can further be divided into relations between central agencies; between core agencies and line agencies; between line agencies; between high-level bureaucrats and mid/lowlevel bureaucrats; and between old-timer bureaucrats and new faces that have been assigned to the agency as part of the reform. And third is the relation among politicians.

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p 34.
[2] Ibid, P36.
[3] Ibid, P37-38.

All three relations are interrelated and all effect the direction of reform policies and the types of managerial tools chosen. The details and examples of each type of bureaucratic politics relation are elaborated as follows.

Politicians vs. bureaucrats (PB) :

The bureaucratic politics of administrative reform can be seen as the struggle between politicians and bureaucrats for power and control of the state machine.

Reform policies and tools are introduced to alter the power balance between politicians and bureaucrats .

This refers to the relationships between politicians such as the prime minister and ministers on the one hand, and high-ranking bureaucrats such as under-secretaries, director-generals, state enterprise CEOs on the other. This is especially true in cases where the goal of reform is to reduce the power of bureaucrats[1].

Bureaucrats vs. bureaucrats (BB) :

The bureaucratic politics of administrative reform is very intense among the bureaucrats themselves, especially those from different government agencies.

A common manifestation of politics among bureaucrats is the struggle among central agencies for turf and domain expansion Bureaucracies constantly build empires and they constantly struggle to survive . Especially in states with large number of agencies with relatively little coordination, competition becomes an important part of the agencies' lives and very important for their survival .There are five general types of politics among bureaucrats.

The first type refers to the competition among core or central agencies. The second type is the contestation between core and line agencies. The third type is the struggle for superior power between bureaucrats of different line ministries. The fourth type is the politics between high and mid/low levels of bureaucrats. And the fifth type is the competition within an agency between old bureaucrats and new bureaucrats, who are usually politically appointed[2].

Politicians vs. politicians (PP) :

The third type of power relations that is affected by the bureaucratic politics of administrative reform is the power balance among politicians, mainly the prime minister and cabinet ministers. Chosen administrative reform measures can change the relative power of the prime minister vis-à-vis cabinet ministers. For example, in Thailand, Thaksin's administrative reform policies have strengthened the prime minister's power

[1] Bidhya Bowornwathana, Chulalongkorn, **Bureaucratic Politics and Administrative Reform: Why Politics Matters,** Public Organization Review, Vol 10, N°4, 2010, p6.
[2] Ibid, p8.

position over the rest. In Italy, former PM Silvio Berlusconni had tried to introduce constitutional reform measures that would increase his power.

Administrative reforms in many developing and least developed countries have encountered great difficulties because of fundamental systemic deficiencies. Following decolonization and independence, ambitious and comprehensive reform programs were often embarked on, with technical assistance provided by international experts. Initial reform optimism soon evaporated when confronted with hard local realities .

Limited resources and skills, lack of institutional and managerial capacity, corruption, nepotism, political conflict and interference, over-centralization, and policy confusion have together impaired successive reform efforts guided first by development administration or later NPM[1] .

'<u>Administrative Reform' and 'Administrative Capability</u> :

are of relatively recent origin. Administrative capability refers to the capacity or ability of a government to perform the assigned tasks efficiently and effectively so that the predetermined national goals may be achieved within prescribed periods. Capability is, thus, a crucial factor and a scarce resource in which various elements are involved.

Similarly, among the various strategies adopted for to enhance this capability (including institution-building, socio-political strategy, administrative planning, use of modern management techniques, etc.), administrative reform is a major factor. This has been taken as the pre determined and consciously planned effort to change the structure, process, attitude and behaviour of the administrative machinery to enhance governmental capability to achieve pre-determined national goals.

Administrative capability or the ability of government to perform assigned tasks effectively and efficiently towards the achievement of national goals is one of the most essential components as well as a scarce resource in the whole process of development.

This can be achieved only through administrative reforms which are predetermined and consciously planned efforts aimed at changing or altering the structure, process, attitude

According to **Almond and Powell**, the political system requires extractive, regulative, distributive, symbolic, and responsive capabilities for its maintenance and development. None of them is possible without a sound and efficient administration within the country.

Everywhere in the world, "an expanding capability for converting political demands into administrative action is,

[1] Bidhya Bowornwathana, Chulalongkorn, **Opcit**, p15.

In nutshell, reform administration aims to improve the performance of administrative agencies through

- Increasing the ability to effectively partner with other organizations.
- Selecting and justifying new targets and goals.
- Getting organizations to be more responsive parts of their community.
- Improving the climate of trust in organizations.
- Increasing equity, fairness, and inclusion.
- Reducing administrative costs.
- Increasing advantages from new technology.
- Improving regulatory activities.
- Increasing trust with external stakeholders.
- Improving accountability.
- Advancing careers.
- Increasing efficiency or cost savings.
- Increasing employee motivation and commitment.
- Improving reputation and external communications.
- Reducing errors, mistakes, and waste.
- Making work teams more productive.
- Improving the management of public-private partnerships[1].

- Adjusting the administrative system to advancing overriding societal objectives, such as accelerated modernisation, or war.
- Changing the division of labour between the administrative system (and especially its higher levels) and the political system. For instance, either in the direction of reducing the power of the senior civil service and making.
- Changing the relations between the administrative system and the population or selected population segments. For instance, through relocation of decision centers ('centralisation vs. decentralisation'), 'democratisation' in the sense of participation, and 'democratisation' in the sense of making the personnel composition more reflective of various population[2]

Administrative Reform and Administrative Reorganization :

Reform and Reorganization are similar. Reforms are measures aimed at improving, updating, changing, and renewing existing orders, processes of governance administration, management systems, and organizations.

[1]Evan M. Berman and Imane Hijal-Moghrabi,**Opcit**, P130
[2]Ibid, P 130.

In contrast , Administrative Reorganization refers to reorganizing the structural features of gov-ernance, governments, administration, and organizations in government or private business systems or enterprises.

To reorganize means to sort things out of chaos, disorder, anarchy, confusions, or structures that no longer work well and require new organization and management, to redesign and restructure as deemed necessary or ordered by new governing authorities. Examples include centralization and decentralization; organizational restructur-ing of public administration, governments, and their institutional arrangements; jurisdictional changes; and the degree and scope of public-private sector relation-ships—how far privatization should go, how many public enterprises should be privatized, and whether the civil service systems should be run by commissions or directed by one politically appointed boss[1].

In addition to that, reorganization and reform of the administrative system are among the most frequent and most expensive activities that governments have undertaken since ancient times.

Reorganization and reform are usually carried out for a variety of political and administrative reasons, but often these reasons extend beyond intended purposes and have major social and economic consequences beyond the governing elite's control. Yet, many reform and reorganization attempts fail to achieve their stated objectives[2].

Guy Peters stated that The reorganization of the public sector is an instrument that can be used for a variety of purposes .
One purpose is to eliminate organizations (and their employees) that are in opposition to the government of the day or to create opportunities for politicians to hire individuals who are committed to the goals of the government.
While reorganization can be a powerful instrument, it can also be a blunt instrument. Eliminating a few employees may be accomplished at the cost of dismantling an organization and disrupting the services being provided by the organization. The utility of reorganization as a tool for controlling government, therefore, depends upon just how central the organization is to the goals of an individual minister or a government[3]

Accordingly**, Guy Peters** classifies most of this theoretical literature into three broad perspectives on administrative reform and reorganization—purposive (top-down) models , environmental (bottom-up) models, and institutional models.

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[1] Ali Farazmand, **Comparative Governance Reforms : Assesing The Past and Exploring The Future**, Switzland : Springer, 2024, p3.
[2] Ali Farazmand, **Reorganization, Reform, and Revolution in Contemporary Iran**, in Ali Farazmand, Administrative Reform in Developing Nations, London : Praeger, 2002, p 125.
[3] Guy Peters, **Politicization and patronage: similar, yet different, in** Guy Peters and Colin Knox, **Handbook of Politicization and Political Patronage,**UK : Edward Elgar Publishing, 2024, p8 **.**

These models are useful in explaining and understanding the approaches and motives of reforms and reorganizations undertaken by modern governments. They also provide conceptual frameworks for analysis of organization and reorganization of modern governance and public administration.

Top-Down Models :

The first set of theoretical models—a top-down model of government reform—is broadly purposive and top-down in its perspective on the process. This set of models assumes that certain actors—elites, powerful individuals, or authorities—have particular purposes in mind in the pursuit of reform and reorganization.

These models assume that political leaders perceive problems or develop innovative ideas by reforming and reorganizing the public sector. One of these models is the administration as usual, which is commonly used in the The political science approach is the second category within the top-down models.

Here, political reasons of "ungovernability," government "overload," and similar rationales are considered rationales of changes in government that affect public administration .

Consequently, management cutbacks, privatization, and downsizing are commonly used terms applied by the purposive, top-down models. Although these models are helpful, they assume that the leading actors in the process are "central to identification, selection, and implementation of administrative changes".

A major drawback of these models is that they are highly elitist in their approach to reform and reorganization, giving ordinary citizens and rank-and-file organizational members of governments little say in the process[1].

The whole idea of reform can be totally dictated downward. real world of public administration, where perceived needs for reform and reorganization are determined at the top.

According to **Pollitt t**his approach is a "traditional, pragmatic" approach to the machinery of government and to changes in that machinery. Case studies in Britain refer to the "need" perceived by political elites to make changes in the administrative machinery of government[2] .

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[1] Ali Farazmand, **Administrative Reform and Development: An Introduction**,in Ali Farazmand , Administration Reform in Developing Nations, London : Praeger, 2002, p3.

[2] Ali Farazmand, **Administrative Reform and Development: An Introduction,Opcit,** p 3.

Bottom-Up, Environmentally Conditioning Models

These models are considered bottom-up approaches to administrative reorganization and reform. They assume that governments and their administrative systems—structures—have to adapt to the environmental conditions that tend to dictate changes in the structure. The environment may be economic, political, cultural, or social, but the underlying logic of these approaches is very similar.

Structure must adapt to environment to survive and continue its existence, as well as to develop patterns of organizations that are functional for the fulfillment of their collective goals.

In the political science and public administration approaches to this set of models, governments and political/administrative elites detect innovations or pressures in the environment that require government response. Consequently, structures—administrative state or a particular organization of public adminis tration—react by adopting changes through reform and reorganizations to adapt to the environment.

Systems theory provides a clear theoretical explanation for this set of models. One problem associated with these models is that they do not indicate when and how changes in the environment signal administrative adaptation.

Contingency approaches are the most familiar of the environmentally determined approaches . Systems theory in general, and its variant contingency theory, provide the best literature for explaining this set of models. The logic of this approach is the internal organizational reflection both structurally and behaviorally—of environmental conditions that influence public administration.

On the negative side, these approaches are poor predictors of organizational structure and behavior, and they assume that governments and their organizations are unable to change their environmental conditions for their purposes.

Other models, such as population ecology approaches, also tend to explain the relationship between organizations and their environment by looking at two different sets of environments that organizations must adapt:

(1) the ecology of organizations—that is, the population of organizations to which a particular organization belongs[1] ; and

(2) the broader general environment in which all other organizations operate. To survive, all organizations experience birth, death, and survival, and organizations must maintain the equilibrium of their "ecosystems." Organizations must find niches in their environments and survive, as competing forces of the ecological environment determine their existence .

[1] Ali Farazmand,**Opcit**, p4.

Although ecological models are not often applied in public sector reorganization and reform, they are useful in that they give us an understanding of the evolution and sustainability of certain organizations in the environment, and how some sectoral government organizations always try to find niches in the environment for their growth and development[1].

Institutional Models :

The institutional models represent a separate group of approaches to reorganization and reform. In addition, they are both a reaction to the earlier behavioral theories of organization and reorganization and a response to the inadequacy of the other models. This is particularly evident in the increasing interest in the "new institutionalism" movement in which organizational changes must take place through changes and modifications of internal organizational values and culture, as well as structure.

Rather than viewing organizational changes as emanating from individual organizational/political leaders under purposive models or responding to the environmental dictates, the institutional models focus on the need to modify collective values, culture, and structure to make the organization adaptive and dynamic Culture is a concept, but so is the adaptability and institutionalization of values and cultures obtained from environment on the one hand, and the institutionalization of the environment by organizational values and cultures on the other.

This mutual adjustment is a key characteristic of the institutional models of organizational changes and development, and therefore to reorganization and reform of public administration. Thus, as much as they represent the search for efficient administration and management, a government's administrative institutions—the bureaucracy and its values—represent important social and political values. Reform and reorganizations are more political and carry more significant values than is often perceived[2] **.**

Types of administration reforms :

In addressing administrative reforms as institutional policy, the distinction can be made between external (outward-looking) and internal (inward-looking) administrative reforms. These reforms can be classified depending on which elements of the institutional order are on the reform agenda and which regulatory areas of the institution are affected by the intended change**.**

Administrative reforms focusing on external relations (external institutional policy) are aimed at changing functional and/or territorial jurisdictions, membership rules, and

[1] Ali Farazmand**,Opcit,** p4
[2] Ibid, p 5

relations between organizations at different levels or sectors. In this type of reform, external actors are also always involved in the institution's policy processes. These reforms are intended to change the 'shape' of the institutional order overall and to redefine institutional boundaries.

Internal administrative reforms, in contrast, are concerned with changes in the distribution of responsibilities and resources within administrative organizations and between internal administrative units as well as the reorganization of decision-making and cooperation rules **.** If the external relations of administration are changed, then larger blocking or resistance can be affected more so than in cases of such reform measures that exclusively affect the internal relations of administration . In the area of external administrative reforms, three variants can be distinguished:

1. Institutional changes in governmental multilevel systems (vertical intergovernmental administrative reforms) should be highlighted. They include reform approaches towards decentralization and recentralization, functional reform, regionalization, and devolution towards 'quasi-federalization'. These involve a change in the responsibility profile and decision-making powers in the intergovernmental relations between (central) state and regional/local territorial bodies. Fundamental constitutional and political reforms, .
2. Another variant of reforms that should be noted concern territorial restructuring or 'territorial consolidation' in the subnational space. In this context, the coordination and cooperation rules between different territorial bodies of a particular level should also be considered (horizontal intergovernmental administrative reforms/territorial consolidation). This pertains to different variants of rescaling, ranging from interorganizational cooperation ('trans-scaling') to territorial amalgamation ('upscaling')[1].

3.The final external administrative reform variant to be taken into consideration is that aimed at changing the relations between public, private, and non-profit sectors (intersectoral administrative reform). This includes privatization, outsourcing, public–private partnerships, and counter-currents toward renationalization/remunicipalization scholars have also referred to these reforms as 'horizontal decentralization'[2].

Internal reforms :

Internal administrative reforms take place within an administrative organization and relate primarily to the three areas of change: organizational structures; procedural/management instruments; and personnel .

Since the 1980s, in all three areas of change, special importance has been placed on the international reform-guiding principles of NPM, the implementation of which will be

[1] Sabine Kuhlmann and Hellmut Wollmann, **Administrative Systems and Reforms in Europe** , UK : Edward Elgar, 2025 , p60.
[2] Ibid**,** P 60-61.

examined in more detail below. It should be noted, however, that internal modernization of administration also occurs by using 'traditional'measures that can be traced back to earlier ('pre-NPM') reform discourses. It should also be mentioned that administrative reforms do not take place in linear succession; rather, reform models and their influence on the actual reform processes in different countries and at different levels overlap in time[1].

Lecture8 : The stages of Administrative reform

Administrative reform is a continuous activity that takes place in such varied circumstances that meaningful generalization is difficult. The reforms themselves may be minor ér major, public or private, passing events or permanent transformations. They may achieve their purposes or they may have no clearly defined goals to achieve.

They do not appear in a vacuum nor are they miracles. They are the result of a particular situation. In contrast to change, which may be unforeseen, reforms are man-made and deliberate. They have identifiable beginnings and their progress can be followed through a series of stages until the reform is rejected, compromised, transformed, or implemented in its original form.

The end is not so clear-cut—they may be postponed and then reappear in the same or different form in a different place or they may be reactivated long after their originators and first advocates have been forgotten. It is possible, therefore, to identify the origins of a reform and the stages through which it progresses, and to analyze the factors that aid or impede progress.

Causes have effects and effects have causes; they are different views of the same Of the various attempts that have been made to define stages in the process of reform, two are particularly significant. Goodenough, in analyzing revitalization movements "aimed at redesigning the pattern of community life, if need be by radical alterations of public culture, and thereby transforming the way people feel about themselves", identified six major phases:

(1) **inspiration, the initial reformulation** of the new social order, which usually comes to some individual in a flash of insight into social and moral problems;

(2) **communication,** whereby the visionary reveals his ideas to others and seeks their cooperation, perhaps embellishing these ideas and attributing them "to science, to the writings of past scholars, or to an apparent miracle" .

(3) **organization of converts**, through which the prophet reaches a wider audience;

(4) **adaptation to resistance,** wherein "even mild disapproval or lack of enthusiasm is likely to be interpreted as evidence of hostility toward the movement and its aims" .

[1]Sabine Kuhlmann and Hellmut Wollmann**,** Opcit, P 61.

(5) **enacting a program,** "in which concrete steps are taken systematically to alter the conditions of life, and to forge a new order"

(6) **routinization,** when the program and its results are successful and the new pattern of living becomes routine. The Wallace-Goodenough classification can be applied to reform movements centered on identifiable leaders but it is not suitable to other types of reform[1].

Mosher covers some of these other types of reform, although somewhat at the expense of mass reform movements. He finds that there are six major sequential steps:

(1) **increase of tension**, when within the administration of the new social order, which usually comes to some individual in a flash of insight into social and moral problems;

(2) **communication**, whereby the visionary reveals his ideas to others and seeks their cooperation, perhaps embellishing these ideas and attributing them "to science, to the writings of past scholars, or to an apparent miracle" .

(3) **organization of converts,** through which the prophet reaches a wider audience ;

(4) **adaptation to resistance**, wherein "even mild disapproval or lack of enthusiasm is likely to be interpreted as evidence of hostility toward the movement and its aims" .

(5) **enacting a program**, "in which concrete steps are taken systematically to alter the conditions of life, and to forge a new order".

(6) **routinization**, when the program and its results are successful and the new pattern of living becomes routine[2].

Awarness of need :

The first stage in administrative reform concerns differences in perception, that is, where people cannot agree that administration or certain administrative features should be improved.

This awareness of need differs from the second stage, in which those who agree on the need for improvement cannot agree on the best methods for achieving their main objective. The symptoms of administrative ill-health are not obvious to those who know nothing beyond the administrative culture into which they were born and have lived all their lives.

They can conceive of nothing different because there is no feedback to suggest that something is wrong or needs correction. When there is such feedback, nobody is motivated to think of improvements and to push them in the face of apathy and opposition. People see only what they want to see, governed largely by stereotypes, personalization, oversimplification, and political quiescence.

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p 127-128.
[2] Ibid, p 128

The accent is on reassurance. Administrative action is used to suggest vigorous activity through "noisy attacks on trivia," "prolonged, repeated, well-publicized attention to a significant problem which is never solved," the use of rhetoric in administrative instructions, and the deflection of criticism into purely moral and ceremonial channels.

Such an administrative culture may not be stagnant. It can be quite dynamic, adjusting and adapting to changing conditions, and everyone can be quite satisfied with its operations, warts and all, if they know no better or if, to achieve something administratively better, they have to sacrifice something else (e.g., unity) that they value more[1].

The administration has not been able to keep up with the times, as in the case of self-made men who refuse to change their habits or whose narcissistic involvement prevents their accepting any changes.

2. **When the administration, though meeting current demands, is not equipped to tackle extra** demands. The impact of growth takes it by surprise so that it never rids itself of improvisation or an atmosphere of temporariness.

Extra demands spell crisis while external crisis means catastrophe. For instance, a peacetime army collapses under the slightest pressure of war. Seasonal fluctuations in work load put everything out of order, and at no time does the administration appear capable of catching up with itself. Alternatively, the administration may be working at peak capacity at all times; though it meets all

Demands, it loses the good will of the staff as strain, tension, and sheer tiredness take their toll.

3. **When the administration with reserve capacity is unable to anticipate future demands**. It concerns itself only with the immediate, lacking the research facilities, communications, and creativity to antic- | ipate the future and to prepare accordingly.

For instance, no successors are being developed to replace incumbents when they retire. 'Future commitments are not evened out over a period of time or there 'is inadequate preparation for major development projects.

4. When the administration that does have reserve capacity and the ability to anticipate future demands does not adopt the most effective methods. It is out of touch with the latest developments in its field. This is the opportunity-cost concept applied to administration[2].

2. **Formulation of goals and objectives, strategy and tactics**

The stages model begins with agenda-setting: how does the issue of administrative reform move from a nagging problem for government to become actively considered? . This is

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit** , p 129-130.
[2] Ibid, p 131.

perhaps most often done by presidents and prime ministers who campaign about the failures of the bureaucracy and, once elected, have to do something about it. But public servants themselves are at times dissatisfied with how their organi-zations are performing, or how they as public servants are treated, and attempt to move reform onto the active agenda of government[1].

The fundamental objective of administrative reform is the improvement of administration, variously described as the cure of maladministration, the attainment of efficient performance at minimum expenditure of resources, and the development and implementation "of whatever changes are required to enable administrative organs to execute public policies in an effective and responsible manner".

Mosher identified four major subgoals:

(1) changing of operating policies and programs, covering expansion of scope and extent of programs, shifts in program emphasis, and shifts in loci of power ;

(2) improvement of administrative effectiveness, through

(a) increased control at the top and thus presumably better coordinated operations,

(b) decentralization of decision-making and operations,

(c) increase in productivity and/or improved quality (efficiency),

(d) reduction of costs in carrying out going programs (economy), and

(e) the application of administrative principles .

(3) higher quality personnel, and more effective staff performance;

(4) anticipating outside criticism or threat[2].

Implementation of reforms :

Implementation is both essential for making administrative reforms work and for enabling the organizations being reformed to implement their policies. literature discusses a number of factors that influence implementation, one of the most important questions being the difference between top-down and bottom-up approaches.

On the one hand, implementation can be driven from the center of government, while on the other hand implementation can also be understood through the decisions of lower levels of government[3] .

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[1] Guy Peters, **Administrative Reform : Understanding Sucess and Failure,** UK : Elgar Online**,** 2026, p 38

[2] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p142.

[3] Guy Peters, **Opcit,** p 40.

It is not always easy to distinguish between reform objectives, reforms, and techniques for implementing reforms. For instance, reorganization, planning, joint consultation, watchdogs, and policy analysis fit into all three categories.

Methods of implementation :

only have been selected for special attention here simply because they illustrate different sets of factors at work within the administrative situation and are in themselves contrasts in approach.

Reforms Imposed Through Political Revolution :

All administration is conducted within a given political context. Political institutions, from intergovernmental councils to local cell groups of political parties, have a decisive influence in the conduct of administration. Beyond the short run, no administration can exist without the concurrence of political office-holders and, through them, tacit support from the community. Administration is part of the political consensus.

In more tangible form, administrators are constantly aware of the political decisions that determine their actions and of their political contribution to society. They must abide by the law and follow accepted political practices, such as the political parties' solicitation of financial support and their own solicitation of political favours.

Administration is part of the political consensus. In more tangible form, administrators are constantly aware of the political decisions that determine their actions and of their political contribution to society. They must abide by the law and follow accepted political practices, such as the political parties' solicitation of financial support and their own solicitation of political favours. At any time[1] declaration of war, the outlawing of specific social activities, or the imposition of crippling taxes. .

Political changes are likely to induce sweeping administrative reforms beyond this area only during a radical transformation of the power elite, as, for instance, a violent revolution, particularly if the new elite is ideologically motivated and inclined to totalitarianism.

Administrative reform is only a minor part of the transformation of the social order and may be more the result of other radical changes than the deliberate objective of the revolutionaries[2].

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p 145.
[2] Ibid, p 148-149.

Reforms Introduced to Remedy Organizational Rigidity :

Organizational flexibility— is the ability to adjust the framework—must cover the rearrangement of work processes, improvements in viability, preparedness to switch production.

Organizational flexibility is impeded for a variety of reasons, of which the following are fairly representative:

1. The very success of an organization—in meeting expectations, production targets, sales records—may breed complacency and a tendency to stand by the well-tried formula. For example, a cigarette firm may try to repeat an unexpected spectacular success by copying the previous recipe and using the same slogan or design or flavor despite failures with each succeeding name brand.

2. Because of technological, social, ideological, or other factors, an organization may be [1]overcommitted to given objectives or too dependent on particular ways of doing things; it is in a rut, unable to deviate from a set path.

3. An organization lacking adequate safety margins may leave itself no room to maneuver. It is open to the danger of overreaching itself or of being unable to cope with the unexpected.

4. No organization is immune from built-in technical inflexibility, time-lags, and rigid scientific laws.

5. The customers do not want anything different. The administrators may be isolated and in ignorance of what is really going on below. Such isolation may be imposed from below or it may be physical or social or cultural.

7. The administrators may be uncreative, even dogmatic, in their reluctance to experiment. Such undue caution may be due to their peculiar characteristics (personality, age, disinterest, complacency) or to administrative processes that result in such persons being appointed (seniority rules, bad selection, deficient training).

8. Excessive bureaucratization (whereby the means become the ends) may result in red tape, empire-building, circumlocution, indifference, authoritarianism, ritualism, and inertia, all making for an extreme reluctance to change direction.

9. Greater size may contribute to inflexibility because of the greater number of people with vested interests in preserving the status quo by not permitting large-scale organizations to fail or other organizations to establish themselves in the same field.

10. Norms may not change with circumstances. Once set, adhered to, and conveyed to newcomers, they tend to stick.

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**,P 149.

11. Collusion in all kinds of informal agreements with rivals, joint producers, and suppliers, along with binding contracts, impede rapid adjustment.

12. Formal rules, by their very nature, lag behind developments. Taken together these factors give a good indiccation why so few organizations have managed to survive over the years[1],Flexibility is reintroduced internally through :

First, administrators are constantly reshuffled. No one is permitted to remain in the same job long enough to stamp his personality on the organization. New men are tried all the time.

Second, more emphasis is placed on research and projection.

Third, steps are taken to prevent excessive rigidity in structure and regulations.

Fourth, initiative, creativity, suggestions, and innovations are encouraged by example, and by incentives and promotional schemes.

Fifth, boredom is combatted, through job turnover, rotation, and joint ownership schemes.

Sixth, greater responsiveness is promoted by public relations, consumer research, and complaint units. Reforms Through the Legal System. One of the most obvious ways of getting somebody else to do what one wants them to do is to , have a law passed[2].

Reforms Through Changes in Attitude :

Some attitudes are conditioned and fixed long before people are caught up in administrative work, but others are shallow impressions derived from the administrative situation in adult life. For instance, attitudes of disrespect, hostility, resentment, inferiority, and intolerance are readily conveyed and copied unthinkingly by newcomers. Unless steps are taken to combat false images, they harden into reality for those who believe in them.

It is particularly important to reformers that resistance to their proposals not be irrational and that, after implemen- tation, the results be sufficient to change attitudes. Over a century ago, Mill warned that "no great improvements in the lot of mankind possible until a great change takes place in the fundamental constitu- . tion of their modes of thought."

The organization should be viewed as a second home in which the individual should enjoy his work and feel that his contribution is important. He should be given greater opportunity for creative freedom, individual dignity and democratic decision-making. Participation unfreezes attitudes, encourages positive responses, permits more balanced interactions,

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit, ,** p 150.
[2]Ibid, p 150-151.

and reduces resistance. It also involves the participants in responsibility for successful decisions and satisfactory outcomes[1].

Evaluation of administrative reform :

Any reform that cannot meet the test of permanence, fails unless it is superseded by a more radical reform. As for other criteria by which the success or failure of an administrative reform can be determined, the literature is weak. Attempts to evaluate administrative reform according to other criteria involve serious methodological problems

First, reform is not an end in itself. Should its success be measured by its contribution to the ultimate objectives of administrative performance? In this respect, how can one evaluate mixed results or results that indicate no improvement or some decline? How much of these end results can be attributed to the reform? Even if reforms improve end performance, what if the end products do not contribute to social efficiency or the public interest?

Second, what constitutes success in reform? Is it the full realization or achievement of the reformers' original objectives or is it partial fulfillment after the reformers recognize that they must settle for something less? Is it any improvement on the status quo, irrespective of costs?

Third, how much of the success can be attributed to the reformers, directly and indirectly? How much would have been achieved anyway? How much is due to factors beyond their control? How is unexpected assistance calculated? Is the success merely on paper[2]. or have the reformers established built-in desires to ensure continuation? How much of the reform is accidental, unforeseen, unpredictable, though the reformers claim the credit?

Fourth, is it possible to determine the intentions of any particular actor, and is it not misleading to infer them from the consequences of his action? Is it possible to allow for differences between declared and real aims, between positive and negative aims? How are abstract aims (e.g., justice, health, education) to be considered?

Fifth, what time limit should be allowed if results are not immediately forthcoming? What about delayed reactions and cumulative effects? What about implementation after the originators have left the scene? How long do the seeds of reform take to grow and ripen?

Sixth, what of those who copy reforms from elsewhere or who implement reforms that have failed elsewhere? Seventh, how justified is the separation of the moral from the scientific if the successful reformer has "to cut corners, to lie, or at least distort the truth, and to engage in some back-stabbing?" .

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit,** p 154.
[2]Ibid, p 157.

how can. charisma be measured when the reformer has personally won over his opponents through patience, cheerfulness, tact, and laconism?

Seventh, sometimes reform objectives are merely to explore, advise, and stimulate, as there may be no preconceived appropriate goal[1].

Finally, could the reform effort have been used more profitably in other directions? What were the better alternatives and were they considered? Could more have been achieved at very little extra cost if the reformers had not stopped where they did? Rarely does the nature of the evidence allow researchers to attempt answers to these methodological problems. Such factors as motivation, morale, and subconscious feelings are beyond recall soon after the event[2].

Lecture 9 : Administrative corruption

The word corruption is derived from the Latin word "**corruptus,**" which means corrupted. In legal terms, it refers to the abuse of a trusted position in one of the branches of power (executive, legislative, judicial) or political or other organizations, with the intent to obtain, for oneself or others, material gain that is not legally justified. And administrative corruption is one of the most common forms of corruption in all branches of government[3].

From the above, it is clear that corruption means a break, a departure from what is considered as being normal, moral, legal and usual. Contrary to a general opinion, corruption is ethical, at least for a simple reason: it is political and economical in exactly the same time, the same space, and the same measure[4]. Its deviation emphasizes the destructive effect of corruption on the fabric of society[5].

the political scientist Joseph Nye's defines administrative corruption as the misuse of public office for private gain. He writes that government corruption is "behavior which deviates from the formal duties of a public office (elective or appointive) because of

[1] Gerald Caiden, **Opcit**, p 158.
[2]Ibid, p 158.
[3] Stefan Sumah and Matic Borošak , **Administrative corruption**, American Journals of Humanities and Social Sciences Reserch, Vol 4, Issue2, 2020, p143.
[4] Agata Stachowicz-Stanusch, **Organizational Immunity to Corruption: Building Theoretical and Research Foundations** , USA : Information Age Publishing , 2010, P25.
[5] Colin Nicholls and Tim Daniel,**Corruption and Misuse of Public Office,** Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2006 P 1.

private-regarding (personal, close family, private clique) wealth or status gains; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private-regarding influence." [1]

Philip's interpretation corresponds to administrative corruption , which states that a case of corruption occurs when:

- a civil servant (A) acts for personal gain,
- violates the norms of public office and
- harms the public interest (B),
- with which a third party (C) benefits, who therefore rewards A for access to goods or services that C would not otherwise be able to obtain[2].

As indicated before corruption consists of the following components:

1. An actor (or perpetrator) who has the public power or access to public resources, or who provides public services. The actors could be individual officials (politicians, bureaucrats, or civil servants), a group of officials, public organizations, or public service contractors.

2. A rare good or resource that the actors attempt to either transfer to themselves or trade for other personal benefits. The rare goods or resources may be in the forms of public properties or funds, public services, contracts, licenses or permits, employment positions, political supports, and so on.

3. An act of pursuing benefits that violates laws, decrees, institutional regulations; it generally violates accepted moral standards.

4. A consequence of the act is the damage of public interests, or the malfunction of government or public services.

5. The corruption case is deliberately hidden or concealed by the perpetrators. In order to hide the corruption, the perpetrators may lie to the public and hide or twist the real information[3].

Public-Office-Centered Definitions

Definitions of corruption that relate most essentially to the concept of the public office and to deviations from norms binding upon its incumbents are well illustrated in the work of three authors—David H. Bayley, G. Myrdal, and J.S. Nye—who have concerned themselves with the problems of development in various continents.

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[1] Christopher Carothers, **Corruption Control in Authoritarian Regimes : Lesson from East Asia**, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2022, p18.

[2] Philip, Mark, **Corruption and state capture: an analytical framework**. University of Oxford, Department of Politics and International Relations, 2001,p1.

[3] Yahong Zhang and Cecilia Lavena, **Goverment , Anti-Corruption Strategies A Cross-Cultural Perspective**,US : CRS Press,2015, p xiii- xiv.

Corruption, while being tied particularly to the act of bribery, is a general term covering misuse of authority as a result of considerations of personal gain, which need not be monetary. Examining the wording of American statutes relating to bribery, Lowenstein finds that one of five elements generally mentioned, that relating to the involvement of a public official, is least ambiguous. More open to interpretation are conditions that ;

1. the defendant must have a corrupt intent;
2. that benefits of value must accrue to the public official;
3. that there must be a relationship between the thing of value and an official act; and,
4. that the relationship must involve the intent to influence or be influenced in the carrying out
5. an official act[1]

In the administrative corruption the behaviors of public agentes neglect the principles of efficiency, truthfullness and rightfulness. Public administration corruption results in transfer of public benefits to private benefits taking advantage of the entrusted power, as for example, in the form of nepotism that results in the transfer of benefits from society to family members[2].

J.S. Nye defines corruption as . . . behavior which deviates from the normal duties of a public role because of private-regarding (family, close private clique), pecuniary or status gains; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private-regarding influence. This includes such behavior as bribery (use of reward to pervert the judgement of a person in a position of trust); nepotism (bestowal of patronage by reason of ascriptive relationship rather than merit); and misappropriation (illegal appropriation of public resources for private-regarding uses[3].

Market-Centered Definitions

Definitions in terms of the theory of the market have been developed particularly by those authors dealing with earlier Western and contemporary non-Western societies, in which the norms governing public officeholders are not clearly articulated or are nonexistent.

Van Klaveren states that A corrupt civil servant regards his public office as a business, the income of which he will...seek to maximize. The office then becomes a—maximizing unit."

The size of his income depends...upon the market situation and his talents for finding the point of maximal gain on the public's demand curve. Also pertinent is the statement by

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[1] Arnold Heidenheimer and Michael Johnston, **Political Corruption Concepts and contexts**, London :Transaction Puhlishers,2002,p7-8.

[2] Agata Stachowicz-Stanusch, **Opcit**, P132-133.

[3] Nye Joseph "**Corruption and Political Development: A Cost-Benefit Analysis**". The American Political Science Review. Vol61, N° 2, 1967, pp. 417-427.

Nathaniel Leff Corruption is an extra-legal institution used by individuals or groups to gain influence over the actions of the bureaucracy. As such the existence of corruption *per se* indicates only that these groups participate in the decision-making process to a greater extent than would otherwise be the case[1].

Public-Interest-Centered Definitions:

Some writers feel that the first set of definitions is too narrowly conceived and the second set too broadly conceived. They tend to maintain that the embattled concept of "public interest" is not only still useful but necessary to illustrate the essence of concepts like corruption.

Carl Friedrich, for instance, contends that The pattern of corruption can be said to exist whenever a powerholder who is charged with doing certain things, i.e., who is a responsible functionary or officeholder, is by monetary or other rewards not legally provided for, induced to take actions which favor whoever provides the rewards and thereby does damage to the public and its interests[2].

He says that: ...corruption can be said to exist wheneser a posser-holder who is charged with doing certain things, i.e., who is a responsible functionary or office holder, is by monetary or other rewards not legally provided for, induced to take actions which favour whoever provides the rewards and thereby does damage to the public and its interests[3].

Since the concept of the public interest is open to broad interpretation, it has been suggested that determination of whether a political policy-influencing action is or is not corrupt will depend on the observer's judgment as to whether a particular policy is or is not desirable. But Lowenstein argues that acts that "are made according to the wishes of the highest bidder," may be regarded as contrary to the public interest, without regard to the substantive direction of its influence on public policy" .

Levels of administrative corruption : include Micro level, the middle level, and Macro level

Micro level of corruption means:

giving small gifts to public officials for achieving the desired service, which is the officials' duty anyway. Corruption at this level is tied to those officials who deal with documentation and license issuing. People are very tolerant of this type of corruption; it has become a part of everyday life, and the amount of unlawfully acquired funds does not exceed the average monthly salary of an official.

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[1] Arnold Heidenheimer and Michael Johnston , **Opcit**, P8.
[2] Ibid**,** p 9
[3] Štefan Šumah and Matic Borošak, **Corruption: Where and Why (and How to Beat it)?,** Journal of Economic Behavior, Vol9, 2019, p70.

The middle level of corruption:
includes public officials at a higher level. It is most widespread at the local level, where the local politics, with its help, achieves solutions that fall within the competence of the middle level of public officials. The public does not tolerate such corruption; it can amount to a few monthly salaries of an individual official.

Macro level corruption:

on the other hand, is linked to government procurement, to the conclusion of major contracts, the performance of major work in the country (e.g. construction) and other major investments.

It is the most dangerous part of the corruption that takes place in the highest social and political circles and is enabled through the abuse of functions and positions, political power, and the abuse of social status. Such forms of corruption usually remain hidden, and if they are detected, the leading players remain undetected.

The impact of corruption :

1/ **Corruption causes death** : Corrupt practices can directly lead to death from insufficient quality, undelivered contracts, and inadequate enforcement of regulations[1].

2/ **Corruption undermines the rule of law and destabilizes countries** When government officials themselves deviate from the laws, it sends a message that laws are not meaningful. In such situations, government is failing at its one true function – to protect the commons – and citizens cannot trust that resources invested in the state, including taxes, fees, private investment, and military service, won't be co-opted for the personal benefit of rulers and bureaucrats.

3 / **Corruption depresses growth and distorts markets** : corruption undermines the very investment companies are attempting to make when they bribe in the procurement context – by depressing overall growth, injecting unpredictability in the market, and undermining the economic drivers needed for return on investment[2].

4/ **Corruption causes waste :** The cost of even seemingly small or petty corruption can be enormous. The total economic and social effects of corrupt actions might be very costly and out of proportion to the bribes received by corrupt officials in terms of resources wasted, the opportunity cost of resources misused, and the inefficiencies introduced in the system[3].

5/ **Corruption is self-perpetuating :** A country may be caught in a corruption trap where corruption breeds more corruption and discourages legitimate business investment.

[1] Alexandra Wrage and Joshua Birenbaum , **Concepts in Corruption**, in Sope Williams and Jessica Tillipman, Routledge Handbook of Public Procurement Corruption, New York : Routledge ,2024, P19.
[2] Ibid, P 20.
[3]Ibid, P22

Corruption limits growth and destroys trust in government, and low growth and distrust of the state fuel and seems to justify corruption[1].

Forms of administrative corruption:

1/ Bribery :

Shleifer and Vishny distinguish between "**corruption without theft**" and "corruption with theft," where they mean bribery with or without theft. Bribery without theft occurs when an official demands a bribe but still passes on the regular payment to the government. For example, an official may charge a bribe in addition to an import license fee to a business, but then he passes the license fee on to the state treasury.

In this case, the briber pays for an additional amount to the government official. Bribery with theft involves instances where the regular payment is not made to the government, but instead to the government official[2].

2/Grand and petty corruption:

grand corruption involves big money, often giving kickbacks to political leaders who award lucrat ive govern ment contracts to their friends, or even bribes.

Petty corruption involves small amounts of money: fixing parking tickets (or paying directly to the police officer), reward ing the doctor for letting you jump ahead of other patients, getting favourable treatment from bureaucrats – for small 'favours' or by personal connections. People come to terms with petty corruption.

These 'gift payments' are part of day- to- day life in many parts of the world, and they over come bureaucratic delays and trips to the courts. Ordinary people are not so blasé about grand corruption, where politicians and business people make big money through illicit deals[3] .

a kickback is a form of negotiated bribery in which a commission is paid to a public official in power (the bribe recipient) as a reward for rendering a government contract or fund to the bribe payer .

Normally, the commission might be money, goods, or services handed over to the government official; the commission is negotiated ahead of time.

The kickback varies from other kinds of bribes in that there is implied collusion between the two parties of the illegal exchange, rather than one party extorting the bribe from the

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[1] Alexandra Wrage and Joshua Birenbaum,**Opcit,** P23

[2] Yahong Zhang and José Vargas Hernandez : **Introduction : Corruption and Goverment Anti-Corruption Strategies**, in Yahong Zhang and Cecilia Lavena, Goverment Anti-Corruption Strategies : A Cross Cultural Perspective, New York : Routledge Publishers, 2015, p xv.

[3] Eric M. Uslaner, **Consequences of Corruption,** in Paul M. Heywood, Routledge Handbook of Political Corruption, Opcit,p200.

other (Kranacher et . For example, let us suppose that a politician is in charge of choosing how to spend some public funds.

He can give a contract to a company that is not the best bidder or allocate more than they deserve. In this case, the company benefits; in exchange for betraying the public, the official receives a kickback payment from the company, which is a portion of the sum the company received from the government[1].

Conflicts of Interest :

Conflicts of interest occur when the private interests of public officials come into conflict with their duty to act in the public interest. Strictly speaking, a conflict of interest in itself does not necessarily indicate corruption and can happen without anyone being at fault. A conflict of interest becomes a form of corruption when there is a lack of oversight of the situation, and the private interests of a public official affect his/her public duty, or the official gives preference to his/her personal interests over the public good in making a decision associated with his/her public position[2]

Nepotism as form of favoritism :

The word "nepotism" has deep roots, coming from the Latin word nepotus, which means nephew or grandchild Over time, this term started to reflect a specific type of favouritism one based on family ties.

Today, nepotism usually refers to the practice of giving jobs or advantages to relatives, even if those individuals are not the best fit for the role. in such cases, personal ties are valued more than merit or qualifications, which already sets the tone for imbalance at work[3].

Williams and Laker divided it into four types. First is family nepotism, the most common, where someone hires or promotes a family member. Then comes the idea of paired employees—relatives working together who can shape each other's career paths. Political nepotism is when officials place their own relatives into government roles. The last, organisational nepotism, is more dangerous because it becomes part of a company's culture, making favouritism feel normal instead of something wrong.

From an organisational perspective, nepotism can damage reputation and credibility. When clients, stakeholders, or the public see that an organisation promotes people through personal ties, it reduces trust. This is especially dangerous in public institutions or companies that depend on public support.

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[1] Yahong Zhang and José Vargas Hernandez, **Opcit,** p pxv

[2] Ibid, P xviii

[3] Hafatin Natrah binti Mohd Noh, **Exploring Nepotism in Workplace: Causes, Consequences, and Counter measures**, International Journal of Research Aand Innovation IN Social Science, Volume IX Issue VII July 2025, p 1275.

In the long run, it may affect partnerships, investments, or public image. Nepotism also prevents organisations from hiring the best talent, which affects efficiency and productivity Moreover, nepotism has consequences for mental health and employee well-being. Constant exposure to unfair treatment, discrimination, and lack of recognition can lead to emotional exhaustion.

The employees who are not related with nepotistic circle can suffered stress and declined in job satisfaction because of the nepotism. This is because of they got unfairness and favouritism that can cause the state of mind of demotivation and resentment .

In short, nepotism creates a negative chain reaction in the workplace. It lowers motivation, increases conflict, reduces performance, and harms both the personal well-being of employees and the overall success of the organisation. Even though it may seem harmless or traditional in some cultures, the long-term effects can be damaging.

To maintain a fair, motivated, and healthy work environment, organisations must understand and address the impact of nepotism. nepotism reduces social capital by lowering job satisfaction, weakening motivation, and making employees feel less connected to the company. When workers notice that opportunities are not given fairly, they may lose interest and stop putting in their best effort. As a result, the overall performance of the team suffers[1].

[1] Hafatin Natrah binti Mohd Noh, **Opcit**, p p 1275

Lecture 10 : Causes of Administrative Corruption

Administrative corruption: A colonial legacy

Some observers have argued that bureaucratic corruption in developing countries is merely a logical evolution of the acceptance of Western behavioral patterns. Colonial people discovered that Western norms were not applied universally by their rulers. To their bewilderment, these people found that two sets of norms were used by their colonial masters: one for Europeans and another for natives.

Corruption was abhored if Europeans were involved but was accepted as the natives' way of life. The British Indian Civil Service officers, for instance, had separate clubs and a general tendency to exclusiveness from the people whom they were ruling.

Exclusiveness was essential in order to maintain impartiality and the ability to disengage. and did little to control such unethical behavior among natives although at the same time they were not permitted among themselves. The result was that some forms of corruption became institutionalized, and were carried over even after independence.

It also became apparent to colonial people that merit and achievement criteria were disregarded by their masters when the question of religious affiliation was considered. Neo-converts into Christianity were given preferences over qualified non-Christians in civil service appointments and promotions .
In Africa, according to **James S. Coleman, "indiscriminate recruitment** into the Christian fold (entrance into which meant opportunity for Western education and eventually high status in the emergenterri-torial society) brought about a status reversal in many societies. Africans drawn from the lowest stratum of traditional society have been elevated, through the activities of missionaries, to the highest strata of the social structure of the larger territorial societies."

Favoritism, on the basis of religion, was thus accepted by some colonial people as normal social behavior. In India, Anglo-Indians were recruited in several government departments largely on ascriptive basis. Today, when the widespread ascriptive considerations in the appointment of government employees in India are criticized, some Indians refer back to the British Indian recruit-ment system to rationalize the present situation[1]

Ascription and corruption :

In developing countries primary associations are still dominant; family, kinship, caste, neighborhood, village, ethnic origin, and religious affiliations are the associational forms

[1] O. P. Dwivedi, **Bureaucratic Corruption in Developing Countries,** Asian Survey, Vol 7, No 4, 1967,p 246-247

that have the first and the greatest call on individualoyalties. There are modernizing elites in each developing country but they too are swayed by such ties.

Most civil servants, though possibly recruited on the basis of merit and competition, maintain their traditional ties. As Fred W. Riggs points out, "given a choice between loyalty and competence, asala official (a civil servant in a prismatic society) will choose traditional loyalty."

An administrative system influenced by such traditiona loyalties will tend toward an ascriptive rather than achievement-oriented pattern of recruitment. And that is why a person who asks favors from officers belonging to his caste does not consider his act unethical. Similarly when a government official "fixes" applications and licenses in utter disregard to merit but in accordance with family and caste loyalties "he is obeying a law of social conduct more ancient than that of the upstart state."

Bureaucratic corruption in traditional societies may also be encouraged by the established system of kinship and other parochial loyalties. In most emerging nations, obligations to kin, tribe, religious sect, or local community significantly influence the behaviour of public servants, leading them to corrupt practices in order to satisfy their clients' demands. Thus, for example, the institutionalised local and communal traditions of Lebanon have strongly Moreover, in any traditional society the family forms the common interest group par excellence[1].

The extended family system is based on a comprehensive system of mutual obligations. A member may call upon his uncles or cousins for assistance when he is unemployed. When he attains any place of importance, be it a civil service employment or a public office, his relatives have first claim on his support. Nepotism, therefore, assumes a form of strict family obligation.

Some civil servants whose families may have spent considerable sums on their education are obligated under the traditional pattern of social life to support the family once he is employed. Since family in this usage includes uncles, cousins, nephews, grandparents and other near and distant relatives, a great deal of pressure to "fix" jobs for them or to find some other source of income to support them is not uncommon.

To resist bribery and not to resort to nepotism may very well constitute avoidance of the responsibilities of customary citizenship.

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[1] Joseph G. Jabbra, **Bureaucratic Corruption in The Thrid World : Causes And Remedy**, indian Journal of Public Administration, Vol 22, 1976, p 675.

Moreover, these relatives are themselves aware of the problem posed by the eventual retirement of their "man" in government service; and so they would like to take advantage of his position in securing jobs, procuring permits, etc., while he is still influential. They do not consider the exploitation of a relative's official status as something bad or unethical. Such ascriptive considerations help the perpetuation of bureaucratic corruption.

Bureaucratic corruption is the utilization of bureaucratic official positions for private gain. It is the corruption by officials in public offices who are not vocationally politicians but who are aided and abetted by corrupt politicians and a corrupt political system. Such corruption is much easier to perpetrate in those Third World nations, such as Guyana and Jamaica, where state activity has largely extended into economic ownership, management and control.

Bureaucratic corruption has been regarded as a particularly viral form of bureau pathology. Once it enters the blood of a public organization, it spreads quickly to all parts. If it is not diagnosed and treated it will eventually destroy public credibility and organizational effectiveness. Even if treated, there is no guarantee that it will be eliminated or that all infected areas will be reached. The possibilities of stamping it out altogether are remote as long- as the machinery responsible.

Bureaucratic corruption thrives in the Third World for a number of reasons and five primary factors that contribute to it, and perhaps even protect it, can be identified. First is the general absence of a civil service work ethic. Civil servants in the Third World lack a sense of purpose and commitment to theist responsibilities. They do not believe that they are serving anyone else but themselves and exploit their positions for personal gain; They generally arrive at work late and leave early.

They take extra long lunch recesses. They steal public property. They accept bribes for the performance of duties that are contractually part of their responsibilities. When they do work they work very slowly while imposing their favourite line on their clients, ; Please have a seat ,They stymie the public by losing files; through excessive review of the issue at hand, or by simply pretending that they have not heard of the matter before .

For all of this they acknowledge no wrong-doing, for they do not believe that what they are doing is wrong[1].

Secondly, some Third World nations have been regressing rather than progressing in terms of economic development. This, in turn, has led to a bi-polar type of income distribution creating the haves and haves-not . Civil servants striving for high social status and to be counted among the haves; must resort to the instrument of demonstration . a

[1] Kempe Ronald Hope, **Politics, Bureaucratic Corruption, and Maladministration in the Third World**, International Review of Administrative Sciences, Vol 51,Issue 1, 1985, p 3.

demonstration effect that entails conspicuous consumption of luxury goods that they cannot afford from their low salaries.

It is, therefore, with great amusement and much alarm, that the public view civil servants driving through their respective capital cities in large, expensive, specially imported motor vehicles, for example.The incentive to corrupt whatever official purposes public institutions are agreed to have, is specifically great in conditions of extreme inequality and absolute poverty .

Poverty and inequality force individuals not only to tolerate corruption, but also to initiate it where none exists, and to take advantage of it where it is present. Favours are sometimes extended to other individuals because of the desire to alleviate their poverty. At other times, such favours may be extended with the objective of extracting future benefits from the recipient.

Thirdly, is the lack of leadership and discipline shown by the politicians. Indeed, many studies have shown that bureaucratic corruption tends to be more widespread where significant political corruption exists and/or where the idea of the national interest remains weak[1] .

Herein lies the concept of Myrdal has argued that a soft State is one where all the various types of social indiscipline manifest themselves in the form of deficiencies in legislation and in the observance and enforcement of law. Moreover, there is widespread disobedience by public officials, on various levels, to rules and directives and much collusion with powerful individuals and groups whose conduct they should regulate Such softness is related to corruption.

The general setting of the soft State makes corruption possible, and in turn the prevalence of corruption is a mighty influence keeping these countries as soft States . The State is often an artificial entity. The disregard of its rules bears little social stigma and rules are largely disregarded where the political overseers exhibit weak leadership.

The fourth factor contributing to bureaucratic corruption in the Third World is the expanding role of state activity which in turn has resulted in an expanding bureaucracy with increasing discretionary power which is abused for personal gain. Planned development in the Third World has increased government intervention in the socio-economic sphere and this, in turn, has led to an increased number of regulations.

These excessive regulations coupled with greater administrative discretion provide opportunities for corruption since the regulations can be used to frustrate the public and result in bribery to avoid such frustrations. Here, a rather personal experience comes to mind in my dealings with customs officials.

[1] Kempe Ronald Hope, **Opcit**, p 3

The fifth factor has to do with cultural norms. Jabbra has argued that bureaucratic corruption is created by attitudes and patterns of behaviour interwoven not only throughout the bureaucratic structures of emerging nations, but also throughout the whole of their social fabric . That is to say, bureaucratic corruption is shaped and conditioned by cultural attitudes and behavioural patterns that are defective[1] .

Political factors :

This type of corruption is anti-democratic. As the saying goes, absolute power ultimately corrupts. There is little doubt that there is a distinction between nations whose political systems employ methods of democracy and the development of participation and those with authoritarian, dictatorial tendencies.

However, the exact causes contribute to the spread of corruption in both types of systems: The corrupt monarch (who is not representative of all individuals in society and is not subject to effective accountability by them). So that their hopes for a respectable existence are not realized, the country and the people will serve the interests of a group of influential people who hold the reins of power and money by force if the rule is overthrown.

Similarly to the lack of political role models, the spread of government bureaucracy, the over-centralization of government administration, and the poor performance of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches contribute to the proliferation of corruption.

Neopatrimonialism and corruption :

In the patrimonial type of administration, there is no differ ence between the "'private" and the "official" sphere' for administrators . In a patrimonial system, the ruler strikes a deal with various elite groups in order to organ ise the administration.

Simplified, the ruler gets some goods, such as soldiers, social order or taxes, while the adminis trator gets a public offi ce and thus can act on behalf of the state. In a completely patrimonial system, the admin is trator uses the control of office as a personal property. Fees, taxes and other transactions to a smaller or larger degree go there fore directly into the pockets of the administrator, which is accep ted by the ruler as long as the goods that were a part of the deal are delivered.

The office in itself is also a part of the personal property in such a system. Administrative positions can be sold by the office holder and even inherited within a family[2].

Neo-patrimonialism differs from patrimonialism in several respects. First, in patrimonialism, there is a direct, one-on-one (dyadic) exchange between the ruler and the ruled, whereas in neo-patrimonialism, there is a mediating bureaucracy (agents) between the ruler and the ruled. Second, in patrimonialism, transactions involve the giving of

[1] Kempe Ronald Hope, **Opcit,** p 4

[2] Carl Dahlström , **Bureaucracy and Corruption,** in Paul M. Heywood, Routledge Handbook of Political Corruption, New York : Routledge, 2015 P 112.

public goods (public works and positions, for example) by the patron to an ethnic group in return for their support, often electoral support. In neopatrimonialism, in contrast, the object of exchange is private goods for private gain, involving individuals instead of a group[1].

In a neo-patrimonial regime, appointments, promotion, and security of tenure of civil servants depend on the survival of their political patrons, whose tenure, in turn, depends on their ability to deliver patronage to their constituents.

Uncertainty in the careers of bureaucrats, their low salaries, high discretion, and weak monitoring and accountability— plus knowing that everyone else is doing it without being punished—will motivate them to demand bribes and to "make hay while the sun shines." This is demand-side bribery.

The essential feature of patrimonial regimes [is] ... the exchange of resources (jobs, promotions, titles, contracts, licenses, immunity from the law, etc.) between key figures in government and strategically located individuals: trade union leaders, businessmen, community leaders, and so forth. In return for these resources, the government or heads of state receive economic and political support. The emphasis is on the personal nature of the exchange: virtually all the analyses that have resorted to the term have been informed, either explicitly or implicitly, by the model of the patronclient relationship[2].

The Patrimonial and Bureaucratic Models of Administration :

Patrimonial	Rational-legal bureaucratic
Administrators are recruited and promoted as reward for personal connections with political leaders. connections with political leaders.	Administrators are recruited and promoted in competitive processes that judge their merit and expertise.
Administrators can be dismissed for no reason.	• Administrators can only be dismissed with cause.
There is an unspoken hierarchy with little specialization or specification of output and uncertain reporting channels.	There is an authorized hierarchy with clear division of labour, specific standards for output and well-defined reporting channels.
Important orders may be given orally.	Important orders are put in writing.
The public and private realms are blurred	The public and private realms are kept separate
Administrators supplement their salaries with bribes and kickbacks	Administrators are prohibited from supplementing their salaries.
System is decentralized, allowing wide discretion on the job	System is centralized, with little room for discretion on the job.

[1] Eduardo Araral and Anton Pak, **Neo-patrimonialism and Corruption:Evidence from 8,436 Firms in 17 Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa**, Public Administration Review, Vol. 79, No. 4 ,2019 ,p581.
[2]BoRothstein and Aiysha Varraich, **Corruption and Patrimonialism**,In Making Sense of Corruption,Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2017, p 90.

Administrators' actions are arbitrary, based on subjective reasoning, and follow ad-hoc procedures.	Administrators' actions are predictable, based on objective methods, and follow uniform procedures.
• Rules are applied with partiality, and some citizens get preferential treatment	Rules are applied with neutrality, and all citizens receive equal treatment.
Verbal agreements are used in government procurement and sales	Binding legal contracts are used in government procurement and sales

Ref : Bo Rothstein and Aiysha Varraich, **Corruption and Patrimonialism, In Making Sense of Corruption**,Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2017, p 91.

Patron- client relations

The term 'patron' in derived from the Spanish patrón, meaning a person of power, status, authority and influence. It may signify an employer, a ceremonial sponsor or even a protecting saint, but is only relevant in relation to a less powerful person or 'client' whom he can help or protect .

The patron grants favours in return for goods, loyalty, political allegiance and other services from his dependent clients. Such reciprocal relationships may be expressed in terms of formal contracts[1] .

According to Scott , may be defined as a special case of dyadic (two-person) ties involving a largely instrumental friendship in which an individual of higher economic status (patron) uses his own influence and resources to provide protection or benefits, or both, for a person of lower status (client) who, for his part, reciprocates by offering general support and assistance, including personal services, to the patron.

Scott mentioned that patron–client relations are characterized by several features including inequality, reciprocity, 'face-to-face character' and 'diffuse flexibility'; these may also be characterized by trust, affection and a sense of obligation that develop over time. The patron may benefit much more from the relationship than the clients, yet the fact that he needs clients and reciprocates with them distinguishes patron–client ties from the relationship of 'pure coercion or formal authority'[2] .

Nepotism as form of favoritism :

The word "**nepotism**" has deep roots, coming from the Latin word nepotus, which means nephew or grandchild Over time, this term started to reflect a specific type of favouritism one based on family ties.

Today, nepotism usually refers to the practice of giving jobs or advantages to relatives, even if those individuals are not the best fit for the role. in such cases, personal ties are

[1] Anthony Hall, **Patron-Client Relations**, the Journal of Peasant Studies, Vol 4, N°1, 2008, p506.
[2] Scott, "**Patron-client Politics and Political Change in Southeast Asia**." American PoliticalScience Review Vol 66, N°1, p 91–113.

valued more than merit or qualifications, which already sets the tone for imbalance at work[1].

Williams and Laker divided it into four types.

First is family nepotism, the most common, where someone hires or promotes a family member. Then comes the idea of paired employees—relatives working together who can shape each other's career paths. Political nepotism is when officials place their own relatives into government roles. The last, organisational nepotism, is more dangerous because it becomes part of a company's culture, making favouritism feel normal instead of something wrong.

From an organisational perspective, nepotism can damage reputation and credibility. When clients, stakeholders, or the public see that an organisation promotes people through personal ties, it reduces trust. This is especially dangerous in public institutions or companies that depend on public support. In the long run, it may affect partnerships, investments, or public image. Nepotism also prevents organisations from hiring the best talent, which affects efficiency and productivity.

Moreover, nepotism has consequences for mental health and employee well-being. Constant exposure to unfair treatment, discrimination, and lack of recognition can lead to emotional exhaustion. The employees who are not related with nepotistic circle can suffered stress and declined in job satisfaction because of the nepotism. This is because of they got unfairness and favouritism that can cause the state of mind of demotivation and resentment[2] .

In short, nepotism creates a negative chain reaction in the workplace. It lowers motivation, increases conflict, reduces performance, and harms both the personal well-being of employees and the overall success of the organisation. Even though it may seem harmless or traditional in some cultures, the long-term effects can be damaging.

To maintain a fair, motivated, and healthy work environment, organisations must understand and address the impact of nepotism. nepotism reduces social capital by lowering job satisfaction, weakening motivation, and making employees feel less connected to the company. When workers notice that opportunities are not given fairly, they may lose interest and stop putting in their best effort. As a result, the overall performance of the team suffers.

Nepotism, Favoritism and Cronyism describe a variety of favoritism practices related to giving preferential treatment to relatives or acquantices; it can mean simply hiring one's

[1] Hafatin Natrah binti Mohd Noh and Safah, Navaratnam Vejaratnam, **Opcit**, p 1275

[2] Laker, D. R., & Williams, **Nepotism's effect on employee satisfaction and organisational commitment**: **an empirical study**. International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management, Vol 3,N°3, p 193-194

own family members, or it can mean hiring and advancing unqualified or under qualified family members based simply on the familiar relationship. It can also mean hiring and advancing a friend of yours in the company you work in etc.

Generally speaking in literature, showing favoritism for people who are considered as relatives is considered "nepotism", making preferential treatment for an acquaintance, fellow or friend is considered to be "favoritism", meanwhile showing favoritism for someone due to his/her political views or affiliations in an organization is called as "cronyism"[1].

[1] Laker, D. R., & Williams, **Opcit**, p 194

Lecture 11 : Bureaucracy problems in Arab world

In his book 'Politics without process: administering development in the Arab world 'Jamil E Jreisat provided many reasons for the failure of administrative reforms with a particular focus on the inadequate administration of development, the problems of poor leadership and on the insufficient institutional capacity. Moreover, on the basis of a survey of recent administrative reform programs in several Arab states[1].

In their influential tract, **Reinventing Government, Osborne and Gaebler** portray bureaucracy as a failed model, and The kind of governments that developed during the industrial era, with their sluggish centralized bureaucracies, their preoccupation with rules and regulations, and their hierarchical structures, no longer work well… They became bloated, wasteful, and ineffective. And when the world began to change, they failed to change with it. Hierarchical, centralized bureaucracies designed in the 1930s or 1940s simply do not function well in the rapidly changing, information-rich, knowledge-intensive society and economy of the 1990s[2],

Jreisat added that the politicisation of public administration has compounded democratic corruption among public servants who lack the requisite management skills to implement and monitor development efforts.

in arab world there is no bureaucratic autonomy which is the ability of executive agencies to use their own discretionary authority to implement policies made by political principals, as well as to make policy according to their own wishes when mandates are ambiguous, incomplete, corrupt, or contrary to their perception of national interest[3].

Above all, the politicization of bureaucracy is a salient feature of all bureaucratics in arab states Peters and Pierre define politicization as: the substitution of political criteria for merit-based criteria in the selection, retention, promotion, rewards, and disciplining of members of the public service[4].

the deceiving administrative culture of formal control mechanisms :

The poor performance of bureaucracy in the Arab world and the inability of Arab governments to reform bureaucracy seem puzzling. A cursory examination of Arab bureaucracy would point to the presence in the Arab World of a special administrative

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[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Administrative culture in the Middle East: the case of the Arab world, Africanus**, Vol28, N°(2) 1998,p 33.
[2]Shaun Francis Goldfinch,**Opcit**, P 4.
[3] Guy Peters, **Understanding Bureaucratic Autonomy Existing Approaches and the way forward**, in Guy Peters, Handbook of Bureaucratic autonomy, UK : Edward Elgar Publishing, 2025, p3,
[4] Guy Peters, **Politicization and patronage: similar, yet different,Opcit,** P 2.

culture which is reflected in the significant number of formal control mechanisms designed to insure accountability and integrity.

The first formal control mechanism is internal and governed by the pyramidal structure of the bureaucracy whereby each administrative layer is accountable to the next higher one. Moreover, the behaviour of public servants, their rights, responsibilities and positions are regulated by laws enacted by either a legislative branch and promulgated by presidential decrees, or enacted by royal decrees upon the recommendation of the Council of Ministers, which, in the absence of a legislative assembly exercises both legislative and executive powers .

The second kind of control mechanism is external and comprises political, administrative, juridical and non-official watch-dogs which presumably strive to make sure that the bureaucracy is accountable, efficient productive[1].

The real administrative culture in the arab world :

The concern of Arab governments since Word War II to develop and modernise their countries has led them to adopt, at times wholesale Western management philosophy and administrative structures.

This exercise proved unsuccessful because Western innovations were implanted in an environment which continues to be influenced by a pervasive and powerful traditional administrative culture which draws its strength from two main sources: one, administrative and structural; the other, social and behavioural.

The administrative and structural source:

Six traditional cultural streams nurture this source. They are: overcentralisation, outmoded systems, administrative expansion, overstaffing, rigidity and complexity of rules, and salary structure.

1. Overcentralisation :

Overcentralization of administrative structure and overconcentration of authority characterize bureaucracies in the Arab World.

First, authoritarian superiors and top managers are usually accompanied by passive subordinates.

Second, the large span of control and lengthy lines of command easily cause loose control and distortion of orders.

[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit**, p38.

Third, subordinates rely to excess on their superiors and send them minor administrative problems for resolution; as a consequence, senior public servants become occupied by administrative minutiae instead of spending their time on more important matters[1], resulting in,

fourth, underemployment of subordinates and underutilization of their talents.

Fifth, influence peddling and corruption tend to thrive. Finally, citizens waste time and money by having to travel often to the capital to crowded offices in order to finalize their transactions[2].

Outmoded Systems :

Despite the substantial amounts of money Arab countries spend on modernising their bureaucracies, most of them still have dated administrative structures, outmoded systems and procedures and old technical and physical facilities; all of these foster an administrative culture characterised by an unsystematic flow of information, poor coordination, lack of comprehensive planning, difficulty of control and supervision, red-tape and inefficiency.

Moreover working conditions, filing systems, office layouts, maintenance services and typing and copying facilities are still inadequate. Lengthy, cumbersome and outdated procedures continue to hamper the normal flow of work and do not encourage efficiency and accountability.

Even in recruitment, the methods used to advertise positions are inadequate and ineffective : often vacancies are not advertised at all, and even when they are, they do not specify the qualifications or duties and responsibilities.The same applies to entrance examinations and assessment for transfers and promotions.

Expansion :

The emergence of the Arab state in the post World War II era as the chief employer and provider caused a rapid, unexpected and unplanned expansion of the bureaucracy, which hampered the development ofa strong sense of accountability among public servants. This situation made proper control, coordination, and supervision extremely difficult to achieve; it also caused overstaffing and underemployment, lack of clearly defined lines of responsibility, and in some cases lack of qualified personnel. [3]

Several prominent economists have argued that the root cause of corruption is ‘big govern ment’. The logic is straight for ward: size will increase opportunities for corruption. As stated by Nobel Laureate Gary Becker , ‘to root out corruption, boot out big government’.

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[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit, p** 38

[2] Ibid, p 38

[3] Ibid **, p 39**

A similar view is put forward by Alesina and Angeletos , stating that 'a large govern ment increases corrup tion and rent- seeking'[1] A widespread criticism of bureaucracy is that it is too big, a lumbering juggernaut which absorbs enormous resources but actually produces very little[2]

Overstaffing :

Overlapping and lack of qualified personnel in key government areas do not promote a culture of accountability among Arab public servants .Overstaffing results from the steady pressure on the government to provide employment and from the bargaining attitude of top officials, who exaggerate their personnel needs in order to increase prestige and opportunity for promotion. According to Ayubi sectoral and geographic overstaffing contributes to bureaucratic inflation, idleness,

Rigidity and Complexity of Rules :

Public Servants subject to rigid and complex rules seldom take initiatives, nor can they be accountable for their actions and behaviour. In Arab bureaucracies, rigidity stems from overcentralization of authority and a legalistic approach to administrative decision making and procedures, which do not allow much room for innovation. In fact, rigidity leads to a tendency among Arab public servants to avoid responsibility, especially when they are faced with new problems which are not foreseen and regulated by law.

Salary Structure :

Salary structure is a sensitive issue in the administrative culture of Arab public servants. It has a direct effect on an employee's efficiency, accountability, and moral conduct.

It also influences the government's ability to recruit and maintain qualified personnel. Moreover, the automatic salary increases, which are granted indiscriminately and not on merit are another and behaviour that are deeply imbedded in Arab public servants include nepotism and favouritism, patron-client relationships, corruption, avoidance of responsibility, and lack of adequate training[3].

A. **Nepotism and Favouritism :**

The family continues to rival the state as the focal point of loyalty and security in Arab countries. In fact, accountability to one's family often takes precedence over accountability to the state and thus leads to a culture and practice of nepotism.

Moreover, loyalty to the family is paralleled by a strong devotion to one's village and friends, thus leading to a culture of favouritism. Neither is conducive to a culture of

[1] Bo Rothstein and Jan Teorell, **Causes of Corruption**, in Paul M. Heywood, Routledge Handbook of Political Corruption, Opcit, p86.

[2] Mark Turner and David Hulme ,**Opcit**, p 86

[3] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit,** p 41-42

accountability among Arab public servants. For example, family, friendship, geographical ties are strong in Lebanon major contributor to the unwillingness of the employee to work harder or to show more innovation and accountability in carrying out his/her responsabilités.

The Sociocultural and Behavioural Source :

Traditional customs, attitudes and behaviour that are deeply imbedded in Arab public servants include nepotism and favouritism, patron-client relationships, corruption, avoidance of responsibility, and lack of adequate training.

A. Nepotism and Favouritism :

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Neither is conducive to a culture of accountability among Arab public servants. For example, family, friendship, geographical ties are strong in Lebanon and loyalty to them is the hallmark of the Lebanese bureaucracy

Thus, despite the professionalisation of the Lebanese civil service, it is not only permissible "socially" but mandatory for a zaim (political leader) to appoint family members and friends to prestigious posts in the Lebanese bureaucracy.

As a consequence, the qualified child of an ordinary Lebanese citizen experiences difficulty in finding a post in the bureaucracy when competing with an equally or less qualified child of a prominent leader or the child or a friend of a prominent leader. Thus, nepotism is a major hindrance to the growth of a culture of accountability in the Lebanese bureaucracy. A public servant who owes his or her appointment to a family zaim or a friend is likely to delay, derail or obstruct regular administrative procedures in order to repay the debt[1] .

The Patron-Client Relationship :

A culture of unethical and irresponsible practices in the bureaucracy may result from a strong patron-client system. In Arab countries, as well as most developing societies, where identification with the national community and its laws is still weak, protection is sought outside the family through ties with powerful protectors or patrons . This system of

[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit, p44**

relationships has encouraged the development and institutionalization of an administrative culture of disrespect for accountability and regulations[1].

Patron-client relationships, patronage and influence go hand in hand with a culture of unethical conduct and a climate where personal profit and private loyalty take precedence over public duty. But, protected by a system of patron-client relationships, public officials devised a trick to beat the system[2].

Corruption and Profit Mentality :

Corruption and Unethical The second factor is the compilation of proft mentality, corruption, and unethical practices which becomes a practice that is immune between the giver and receiver.

The normalizing of corrupt and unethical practices, driven by a proft mentality, which have become immune to reproach between the involved parties. This practice involves those in power within the organisation, suggesting that there is a lack of_power among the external authorities.

Bribery and embezzlement involving the misuse of public funds or resources for personal gain undermine governance. The case of nepotism and cronyism where appointments or contract allocations are given to related or known parties exacerbate the situation. This kind of practice erodes the concept of meritocracy and trust. The lack of transparency by withholding information from the public therefore nurtures mistrust and reduces accountability[3].

The public bureaucracies in authoritarian systems may have some of the trappings of a merit-based administration, but in practice they depend heavily on patronage appointments. These appointments are based on three foundations .

One is a personal connection with the leader in authoritarian systems that are more personalistic. In others, the political party may be source of patronage appointments. In still other cases appointments to government positions may be based on ethnicity or membership in other groupings and organisations within the society .
The familiar phrase of ‘speaking truth to power” is even more difficult to identify in personalised or party controlled administrative systems, although it is becoming more difficult in democratic systems[4].

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[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit p44**
[2] Ibdi**, p 44.**
[3] Zalfa Laili Hamzah Noor Adwa Sulaiman,**Opcit**, p 164.
[4] Guy Peters, **Public administration in authoritarian regimes,** Asia Pacific Journal Of Public Administration, 2023, VOL. 45, NO. 1, p9

Laxity and Avoidance of Responsibilities :

Laxity and avoidance of responsibility constitute two additional and serious flaws in the administrative culture of Arab bureaucracies. In addition, laxity characterises the upper levels of bureaucracy "Although they (top bureaucrats) are expected to be leaders and pace-setters, their behaviour does not differ from that of other subordinates, except that they sign more documents."

While supervisors vie to concentrate more power in their hands, subordinates in the Egyptian bureaucracy tend to shun responsibility and send all transactions to their superiors for clearance.

According to **Palmer, Yassin and Leila** this avoidance of responsibility contributes to the concentration of authority in the hands of supervisors, lack of innovation among subordinates and refusal to take responsibility to settle a conflict or to take a risk. Subordinates seem to be satisfied with this situation and they do little to arouse the ire or suspicions of their supervisors

Moreover, more responsibility means more work. In the eyes of the subordinates, this is not justified because of their low salaries. Finally, the subordinates' tendency to avoid responsibility may also be the result of poor training and a related lack of the necessary skills.

Their avoidance of responsibility is clearly illustrated by their unwillingness to move to areas where their skills are most needed, and their unwillingness to work at least temporarily in an uncomfortable rural environment; they are dissatisfied with the salary structure, they are often fatalistic; they prefer ascriptive values over achievement, and they suffer over the area of nonmaterial incentives, such as recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement, working conditions and interpersonal relations An administrative culture in which a tendency to avoid responsibility flourishes is most unfavourable to the development of efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability among public bureaucracy.

Inefficient in Administration :

Next factor is traced to the ineffciencies of the Public Administration in terms of resource mismanagement such as poor allocation and ineffcient utilisation of resources. These factors create ineffciency and wastage. The lack of trained staff and inadequate infrastructure further hinders its effective service delivery. This is sometimes compounded by poor delegation of authority that limits responsiveness and innovation at local levels[1]

[1] Zalfa Laili Hamzah Noor Adwa Sulaiman,**Opcit**, p 165.

Lack of Adequate Training :

Finally training, which was intended to improve the performance of public servants in Arab countries, has ironically proved to be an obstacle to a culture of efficiency, effectiveness and accountability.

Politicisation as a term is used either (1) to denote the illicit links of bureaucrats to the political organisations for posts and resources; or (2) to underline the growing degrees of active political participation by bureaucrats.

Better grasped by the terms cronyism-nepotism, collusion and corruption, the former pinpoints to the bureaucrats' forgings of illicit connections to political actors/institutions for financial/professional advancements. As the predominant representation across the media, too, 'politicisation of bureaucracy', for this very reason, has mostly been traced through the nepotistic promotion/appointments of cronies to top managerial posts across bureaucracy.

The second dimension of the term 'politicisation' refers to civil servants' growing interest and participation in ongoing political contestations, hinting that the process is geared towards ideologies[1].

[1] Joseph G Jabbra and Nancy W Jabbra, **Opcit, p 46**

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