COURSE GUIDE

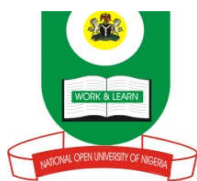**PAD 710**
PUBLIC POLICY ANAYSIS

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

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INTRODUCTION

Public Policy Analysis is a two credit course for the Post-Graduate Diploma in Public Administration Programme. The material has been developed to suit post- graduate diploma students in public administration at the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) by adopting an approach that highlights the vital areas of public policy analysis. This material is made up of (20) twenty units, housed under four (4) modules covering the study of public policy, dynamics of public policy formulation, implementation and evaluation. The ecology of public policy process, policy and decision-making theories, public policy analysis and the result determinants of success or failure of public policies. Each module is made up of five units. The course guide tells you briefly what the course is all about and the course materials you need to consult.

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

The course content consists of the basic concepts in and nature of public policy. It also includes the policy makers and their environment, the concept of public policy analysis, approaches and theories of public policy, bureaucracy and public policy, and some issues in public policy making.

COURSE AIMS

The aim of the course will be achieved by :

- giving you an understanding of the techniques used in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of public policies for solving societies needs
- helping students to take better and rational decision among alternatives.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

To be sure that the aims of this course will be achieved, the course has been divided into units and each of the units has its own objective. Therefore, make sure you read the objective of each of the various units. The objectives of the course are to:

- explain the basic and related concepts in public policy analysis such as public problem; public interest; public policy and public policy analysis.
- examine the critical and dynamic nature of public policy Process
- examine critically the theories, models and approaches used in policy and decision making
- scrutinise some critical issues on public policy analysis.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

In addition, each unit also has specific objectives and self-assessment exercise. The units' objectives are also included at the beginning of a unit; you should read them before you start working through the unit. You may want to refer to them during your study of the unit to check on your progress. You should always look at the unit objectives after completing a unit; in this way, you can be sure that you have done what is required of the unit.

COURSE MATERIALS

Major Components of the course include the following:

Course Guide
Study Units
References
Assignment
Presentation Schedule

STUDY UNITS

The study units in this course are as follows:

Module 1   The Study of Public Policy

Unit 1   Basic Concepts in Public Policy
Unit 2   Why Study Public Policy
Unit 3   Nature and Scope of Public Policy
Unit 4   Policy-Making Process
Unit 5   Decision-Making Process

Module 2   Dynamics of Public Policy Process and Policy and Decision- Making Theories

Unit 1   Policy Formation, problems, Agenda and Formulation
Unit 2   Approaches to Public Policy Making
Unit 3   Dynamics of Public Policy Formulation, Implementation and Evaluation
Unit 4   Theories of Public Policy Making
Unit 5   Theories of Decision-making

Module 3   Public Policy Analysis

Unit 1   Public Policy Analysis
Unit 2   Planning and Public Policy Analysis
Unit 3   Budget and Public Policy
Unit 4   Techniques in Public Policy Analysis
Unit 5   Approaches in Policy Analysis

Module 4   Public Policy Process and the Environment

Unit 1   Bureaucracy and Public Policy Making
Unit 2   Determinants of Policy Success or Failure
Unit 3   Actors in Public Policy Process
Unit 4   The Public Policy Makers and their Environment
Unit 5   Impact of the Environment on Policy Making and Implementation

There are four modules in this study guide. The first module explains**:** The study of public policy and the various units treated the following sub topics**:** Basic concepts in public policy; why study public policy; nature and scope of public; policy policy- making process and decision-making process. module 2 treated dynamics of Public Policy Process, Policy and Decision-Making Theories, Module 3 explained Public Policy Analysis and Module 4 dealt with Public Policy Process and the Environment.

ASSIGNMENT FILES

There are twenty assignments in this course. The 20 –course assignment which covered all the topics in the course material, are written to guide you to read and understand the various units in the course.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule is in this reading material to give you the important dates for the programme of this course. This will help to guide you. Ensure that you take note of the various dates and take note that you submit your assignments as at when due.

ASSESSMENT

There are three aspects to the assessment of this course: first is the self-assessment test; the second is tutor-marked assignments, and third, is a written examination.

In tackling the assignments, you are advised to be honest to yourself in attempting the exercises; you are expected to apply information, knowledge and skills and techniques gathered during the course. Your assignment should be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the presentation schedule and the

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

There are 20 tutor marked assignments in this course. You are needed to submit ten, then your tutor should select the once the you did better for your continuous assessment which carries 30 marks, while your examination carries 70 marks.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

ASSIGNMENT	MARKS
Assignment 1-20	Do any assignment and the best six will be selected at 5 marks each which will give a total of 30 marks.
Final Examination	70% of the overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

COURSE OVERVIEW

The table brings together the units, the number of weeks you should take to complete them and the assignment that follows them

Unit	Title of Work	Week Activity	Assessment end of unit)
	Course Guide		
	Module 1		
1	Basic Concept in Public Policy	1	Assignment 1
2	Why Study Public Policy	1	Assignment 2
3	Nature and Scope of Public Policy	1	Assignment 3
4	Policy Making Process	1	Assignment 4
5	Decision-Making Process.	1	Assignment 5

Module 2			
1	Policy Formation: Problems, Agenda and formulation	1	Assignment 6
2	Approaches to Public Policy Making	1	Assignment 7
3	Dynamics of Public Policy	1	Assignment 8
4	Theories of Public Policy Making	1	Assignment 9
5	Formulation, Implementation and Evaluation	1	Assignment 10
Module 3			
1	Public Policy Analysis	1	Assignment 11
2	Planning and Public Policy Analysis	1	Assignment 12
3	Budget and Public Policy	1	Assignment 13
4	Techniques in Public Policy Analysis	1	Assignment 14
5	Approaches in Policy Analysis	1	Assignment 15
Module 4			
1	Bureaucracy and Public Policy Making	1	Assignment 16
2	Determinants of Policy success or failure	1	Assignment 17
3	Actors in Public Policy Process	1	Assignment 18
4	The Public Policy Makers And Their Environment	1	Assignment 19
5	Impact of the Environment on Policy Making and Implementation	1	Assignment 20
	Total	20	20

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MODULE 1   THE STUDY OF PUBLIC POLICY

UNIT 1   BASIC CONCEPTS IN PUBLIC POLICY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Public policy analysis as a course of study that has its meaning entrenched in many concepts. This is why for the benefit of enhanced comprehensibility, four key concepts are explained. These concepts are public problem, public interest, public policy and public policy analysis.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- give definition and meaning of Public Problem
- identify Public Interest
- explain Public Policy
- describe Public Policy Analysis.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Public Problem

Defining a public problem is a plausible way of commencing a discourse on Public Policy Analysis. This is because, in the words of John Dewey, a problem well defined is a problem half-solved." Again, the famous Albert Einstein asserted "if I had an hour to solve a problem I would spend 55 minutes thinking about the problem and 5 minutes thinking about solutions. Therefore, in public policy analysis, the key question is to find out what the policy problem is. Defining a policy problem is an act of conceptualising collective problems or challenges to be dealt with. It involves mobilising others in a specific way to look at problems and solutions (Hanberger, 1997).

A policy problem definition has three main components: description of influential conditions and interests, history of prior governmental action or inaction, and persuasive argument, bearing in mind that a public problem is a condition that at least some people in a society view as being undesirable.

Public problems can originate in endless ways and require different policy responses (such as regulations, subsidies, Import quotas, and laws) on the local, national, or international level (Sharkansky, & Hofferbert, nd). The public problems that influence public policy making can be of economic, social, or political nature (Hill, 2005). Each system is influenced by different public problems and issues, and has different stakeholders; as such, each requires different public policy (*Thei, 2010*). In public policy making, numerous individuals, corporations, non-profit organisations and interest groups compete and collaborate to influence policymakers to act in a particular way that suits their interest.

3.2   Meaning of Public Interest

Public interest, according to the Random House Dictionary, is the welfare or well-being of the general public; commonwealth, It may be an appeal or relevance to the general populace. However, what is in the 'public interest' is incapable of precise definition as there is no single and immutable public interest. In some ways it is easier to make general statements about what is not in the public interest than what is in the public interest. The public interest refers to the "common well-being" or "general welfare". The public interest is central to policy debates, politics, democracy and the nature of government itself. While nearly everyone claims that aiding the common well-being or general welfare is positive, there is little, if any, consensus on what exactly constitutes the public interest.

The public interest can mean different things or be applied in different ways in different circumstances. The kinds of conflicts that often arise are:

Where a decision would advance the interests of one group, sector or geographical division of the community at the expense of the interests of another. Such a decision can be in the public interest in certain circumstances. For example, granting resident parking permits near popular destinations may be in the public interest even though it inconveniences non-residents, because it helps to ensure residents are not overly inconvenienced by people visiting nearby areas.

Between two government organisations responsible for advancing different causes which both provide some benefit to the public. For example, it is likely that in many respects a body responsible for protecting the natural environment and a body responsible for harvesting forestry products have equally valid but conflicting views about the public interest.

Where a decision requires a balancing of one public interest consideration over another; such as the public interest in providing access to government documents against the public interest in preserving the security of sensitive information (relating to law enforcement, for example).

It would be true to say that what is in the public interest often depends on the particular circumstance, and each circumstance raises a range of considerations that often conflict. Sometimes conflicting public interest considerations need to be balanced.

Economist Lok Sang Ho defines the public interest as the "ex ante welfare of the representative individual" (Ho, 2011). Public interest has been considered as the core of "democratic theories of government" and often paired with two other concepts, "convenience" and "necessity" (Napoli, 2001), even though in the political sphere, it is used by many to justify a wide range of actions and proposals. However, it is often unclear (even to those using the term) what they mean by this, and there can be a natural suspicion that the phrase may be used as a smokescreen to garner support for something that is actually in the advocate's own interests.

Summarily, the concept of the 'public interest' has been described as referring to considerations affecting the good order and functioning of the community and government affairs, for the well-being of citizens. The expression 'for the common good' is also used.

3.3   Meaning of Public Policy

Public Policy is a purposive course of actions or inactions undertaken by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a particular problem or matter of concern (Anderson, 1995). Public Policy is a proposed course of action of a person, group or government within environment providing opportunities and obstacles which the policy was proposed to utilise and overcome in an effort to reach a goal or realise an objective or purpose (Carl J. Friedrrich). To Thomas R. Dye, Public Policy is whatever government chooses to do or not to do. Thus, Public Policy is a course of government action or inaction in response to public problems. It is associated with formally approved policy goals and means, as well as the regulations and practices that implement programmes. Dimock, et al. (1983:40) sees public policy as "deciding at any time or place what objectives and substantive measures should be chosen in order to deal with a particular problem". Chandler and Plano (1988) define public policy as "the strategic use of resources to alleviate national problems or governmental concerns". Freeman and Sherwoods (1968) posit that it is the public response to the interest in improving the human conditions. In these definitions there is divergence between what governments decide to do and what they actually do. Public policy is a guide which government has designed for direction and practice in certain problem areas.

Public policy is the principled guide to action taken by the administrative executive branches of the state with regard to a class of issues, in a manner consistent with law and institutional customs. The foundation of public policy is composed of national constitutional laws and regulations. Government actions and process Public policy making can be characterised as a dynamic, complex, and interactive system through which public problems are identified and countered by creating new public policy or by reforming existing public policy (John, 1998).

Emanating from the myriad definitions above is that the concept of public policy as a relatively stable, purposive course of action followed by government in dealing with some problem or matter of concern are the following points: First the definitions link policy to purposive or goal-oriented action rather than to random behaviour or chance occurrences because in modern political systems, Public policies do not just happen. They are designed to accomplish specified goals or product definite results, although these are not always achieved. Second, policies consist of courses or patterns of action taken over time by governmental officials rather than their separate, discrete decisions. Third, public policies emerge in response to policy demands, or those claims for action or inaction on some public issue made by other actors – private citizens, group representatives, or legislators and other public

officials-upon government officials and agencies. In response to policy demands, public officials make decisions that give content and direction to public policy. These decisions may enact statutes, issue executive orders or edicts, promulgate administrative rules, or make judicial interpretations of laws.

3.4   Meaning of Public Policy Analysis

Policy analysis is a technique used in public administration to enable civil servants to examine and evaluate the available options to implement the goals of elected officials. It has been defined as the process of "determining which of various policies will achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between the policies and the goals" (Geva-May, & Leslie, 1999).

Policy analysis can be divided into two major fields:

Analysis of existing policy, which is analytical and descriptive i.e. it attempts to explain policies and their development. Analysis for new policy, which is prescriptive i.e., it is involved with formulating policies and proposals. For example: to improve social welfare (Bührs & Bartlett, 1993). The areas of interest and the purpose of analysis determine what types of analysis are conducted. A combination of two kinds of policy analyses together with programme evaluation would be defined as policy studies (Hambrick, et al. 1998).

As a technique to examine and evaluate the available options to implement the goals of elected officials, public policy is used in the analysis of existing policy, which is analytical and descriptive i.e., it attempts to explain policies and their development.

Public policy analysis involves the study of the causes, processes, formation, implementation and consequences of public policy. It entails the description, explanation and prescription of particular policy choices and content, the determination of strategies or techniques for optimal policy-making. It uses collected data to systematically explain, describe and prescribe public policies with the aid of social science methods, theories and approaches.

Public policy analysis can be conceptualised as the study of the formation, implementation and evaluation of public policy, the values of policy-makers, the environment of the policy-making system, the cost of policy alternatives and the study of policies for improving policy-making. Its goal is to improve the basis of policy- making and generate relevant information needed to resolve social problems. Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for public policy making.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The study of public policy analysis is necessary to all public and private citizens for better understanding of government decision and programmes. Better knowledge of public policies is enhanced by better knowledge of basic concepts in public policy such as public problem, public interest, public policy and public policy analysis.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit discussed the basic and critical concept in public policy. The essence of this unit is to enhance your understanding of public policy analysis.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Public problem definition enhances public policy choice in the interest of the public. Expatiate.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   WHY STUDY PUBLIC POLICY

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
         3.1   What is Public Policy?
         3.2   Features of Public Policy
         3.3   Reasons for the Study of Public Policy
         3.4   Methodological Difficulties in Studying Public Policy
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The one most important question in public policy analysis is why do we study public policy? It is evident that in every society, there must exist some problems and these problems affect all of us in one way or another. These problems could be in the areas of politics, commerce, education, agriculture, communication, housing, transportation, health etc. In order to solve these problems as they might exist at given points in time, government is always seen formulating policies in response to them and in relation to the objectives of growth, national development and well being of the citizens. Therefore, there need for us to know causes and consequences of public policies as well as their procedures. Thus, this unit attended to this issue extensively.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   give meaning of Public Policy
•   enumerate the features of Public Policy
•   list reasons for the study of Public Policy
•   analyse the Methodological difficulties in studying Public Policy.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Public Policy?

Public policy is the cornerstone of every democracy and serves a very important purpose in almost every society. In Nigeria, we hear public policy quite often, but do we ever stop to think what good public policy is and what is not? Poverty alleviation, rural development, energy, housing and healthcare are some major public policy issues in our clime today and are the focus of most national lawmakers. There are many laws that positively benefit our society, and there are many that do not. What we can be sure about is that successful public policy is usually made up of two things: Good policy (measurable and positive outcome) and good politics (bi- partisanship). Good public policy solves public problems effectively and efficiently, serves justice, supports democratic institutions and processes, and encourages an active and empathic citizenship.

Semantically, Public Policy is pronouncement of government intention(s) by people in position of public trust demanding government actions or in actions and having impact either negative or positive on the majority of the members of a given society (Nwiza, 1997). Public policy can also be seen as the aggregation of peoples hopes, aspirations and intentions embodied in official documents such as legislative enactments, white papers, estimates, government circulars, conclusions of the council of the council of ministers (executive councils) development or rolling plans, etc, or otherwise enunciated and enacted as the current stand on certain issues (Maduabum, 2008).

Accordingly, it is a deliberate and binding action by the authoritative organs of the state designed to influence the behaviour of the society. It is not a haphazard action but rather a systematic method of society fundamental national problems. The systematic approach is vital so that the numerous public problems will be prioritized against the available resources. As well as harmonise the various sectoral aspects of the total policy.

As a system of laws, regulatory measures, courses of action, and funding priorities   concerning   a   given   topic   promulgated by   a governmental entity or its representatives, public policy almost always involves efforts by competing interest groups to influence policy makers in their favour. This is one unique attribute of public policy.

A good public policy begins at inception hence to create strong policy, one must first define the problem, gather evidence, identify causes,

evaluate the policy, develop solution, select best solution, evaluate benefits and costs, utilised the prince system to, develop political strategies to solve public problems effective and efficient, serves justice, supports democratic institutions and processes and encourage an active/empathic citizenship.

Thus, the purpose of public policy is to use a public agency to identify, respond and implement a political process. In essence, Public policy is the means by which a government maintains order or addresses the needs of its citizens through its legal system (Ed Prince, 2004).

3.2   Features of Public Policy

Public Policy is a formal documented statement of intentions and sets of actions of a government to either remove certain deficiencies or improve the conditions in any particular area of concern/interest. Thomas Dye defines it as "Whatever governments choose to do or not to do" (1987) while according to Anderson it is a "Purposive course of action or inaction undertaken by an actor or a set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern" (1994). Dean G. Kilpatrick goes a bit further and defines it as a system of laws, regulatory measures, courses of action, and funding priorities concerning a given topic promulgated by a governmental entity or its representatives.

Whatever definition you like to use, there are certain features of the whole process of public policy which are common in all the countries. These features are;

Exclusive Domain of the Elected Representatives: Public policy formulation is the exclusive domain of the elected representatives of the county; however it is implemented by the state apparatus which formulates strategies to implement it. Consequently policy is distinct from the strategy in the sense that while the policy is fairly general in nature indicating what is to be done and why, the strategy outlines the exact measures to be taken for realising the goals and objectives set out by the policy.

Not a Random Act: Policy formulation and implementation is not a random act of an organisation, rather it is a deliberate action taken by a competent authority which initiated the action and is approved by the public representatives, usually the minister in charge of a ministry or the cabinet.

Different Formats: A policy could either be a part of an overall development policy and strategy of the country i.e. Growth Strategy for Pakistan prepared by the Planning Commission or it could be a specific document addressing a particular issue i.e. Food Security Policy, Poverty Reduction Strategy, National Housing Policy, Climate Change Policy etc.

Legal Sanctity: Although it is not a piece of legislation approved by the parliament in the form of an act of parliament, it has the sanctity of its own and can be used as a reference for dispute resolution in the court of law. In some cases the policy itself or parts of the document, which is in essence a value judgment of the regime in power, could be converted into an act of parliament (Shahid 2015).

In addition to the ones outlined and discussed above, Ikelegbe (1996) asserted that the main features of a policy is that, first, it involves a choice. It is an important choice or a critical or important decision taken by individuals, groups or organisations. Therefore, there has to be several policy alternatives and policy formation involves the development of several policy alternatives and the choice of an alternative.

Second, polices are proposed courses of actions or projected set of decisions. Policies are prospective or are statements of future actions. Policies states what is going to be done or would be done. It outlines a course of contemplated or desired action in relation to certain desired objects or events in the real world.

Third, a policy is goal oriented. It is directed at the attainment of certain end states or objectives. A policy has certain purposes or intention. Fourth, policies have to do with particular problems or problems areas. They are not abstracts, but rather relate to and are actually responses to the challenges and pressures arising from an environment. Furthermore, policies are designed and targeted at dissolving existing or future problems or satisfying certain needs.

Finally, a policy is a course setting action. It provides the direction, the guide and the way to the achievement of certain goals. It provides the frame within, which present and future actions are undertaken. It is a major guideline for action.

3.3　Reasons for the Study of Public Policy

An understanding of public policy from a layman᾽s perspective will expedite the understanding of why we study public policy. Public policy is your kids' education. It is whether you will get quality health care

when you need it. It is whether you can afford housing. It is the quality of the air you breathe and the water you drink. Public policy is about whether you have a job or not or whether you can walk down the street in safety. It is the junkie on the corner and the trash and rodents in the gutter. It is how long you will live and how dignified will be your burial.' The scope of government activities effects our lives in countless, often subtle and unrecognised, ways each day, for better or worse.

According to Okeke (2001) in a developing country like Nigeria, the government is the biggest spender and the biggest employer of labour, therefore, the activities of government should be interest and concern to the citizenry, especially in this era of massive unemployment and economic hardship. Citing Dye (1981), he provided three reasons why we study public policy. His reasons are corroborated by Anderson (1997). These reasons are as follows:

(i)   **Scientific Reasons:** Public policies can be studied to gain greater understanding of their origins, the procedures by which they are developed and implemented, or their consequences for society. This in turn will increase our understanding of the political processes and political behaviour. Therefore, it is in order to extend the frontiers of our knowledge of the causes and consequences of policy decisions, which in turn, improves our understanding of the character and behaviour of organised society such as ours. Emphatically, as a scientific process, the study of public policy provides answers to the classical political science question of who gets what, how and when.

(ii)   **Professional Reasons:** The study of public policy contributes to the promotion of professionalism as the understanding of the causes and consequences of public policy permits the application of social science knowledge to the solution of practical societal problems (Okeke, 2001). The essence is that policy analysis has an applied orientation and is intended to determine the most efficient (or best) alternatives (i.e., the one that will yield the largest net social benefit) for dealing with current problems such as reducing air pollution and disposal of household refuse (Anderson, 1997).

(iii)   **Political Reasons:** We can also study public policy for political purposes to ensure that the nation adopts the right policies to achieve the right goals. This will help to correct the excesses of the government. Public policy improves the democratic or political capacities of people, and not simply the efficiency and effectiveness of delivery of goods and services.

Summarily, the field of public policy has assumed considerable importance in response to the increasing complexity of the society. It is not only concerned with the description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity, but also with the development of scientific knowledge about the forces shaping public policy. The study of public policy helps to understand the social ills of the subject under study.

3.4   Methodological Difficulties in Studying Public Policy

The study of public policy faces a multiplicity of methodological challenges: it lacks the methodological focus of the other social sciences; it combines an analytical with a normative perspective. Indeed, in many ways, 'public policy' lies outside of traditional social scientific discipline with its canonical methodologies, clear-cut objects of study, and claims to its specific form of scientific objectivity.

Although methodology has played a defining role for the social sciences since their disciplinary emergence in the nineteenth century, they ended up largely following the path of the natural sciences in becoming ever more differentiated, methodologically formalised and institutionally self-centred. The meta-theoretical reflection on methods has thereby been pushed to the background: inter-disciplinarily is all too often relegated to being an empty buzz-word and the bridging of theory and practice is frequently exhausted by functional issue networks superficially linking together the university with the policy-making process.

Being a synthetic meta-discipline within the social sciences, public policy research is an inherently methodological form of inquiry and the integration of different perspectives on social reality as well as the merging together of theoretical understanding and practical engagement is its primary object. As such it has the potential both to re-energise the social sciences as a whole, and to re-conceive the relationship between knowledge and politics.

Curiously however, methodology as a distinct field of inquiry has been relatively neglected within the public policy research community, a gap this Research Cluster seeks to address. It explores in new and innovative ways core research questions on, amongst others, the methodological foundations of applied social sciences, new structural phenomena such as network knowledge or e-governance, and the didactics of teaching public policy.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The study of Public Policy is very crucial to public sector managers because public policy is one subject that affects the lives and well being of the people and the knowledge of it will adequately equip the Public Sector mangers with clearer understanding of the reasons for some, if not all, of governments thought process and its actions or inactions. This will help Public Sector mangers to proffer intelligent advice to the government. From the literature, there are three reasons for studying public policy. They include: a) Professional Reasons b) Scientific reasons and c) Political reasons.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, the meaning of public policy was discussed alongside its features and the reasons for the study of public policy. The Methodological difficulties in studying public policy was also discussed

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What the cardinal reasons for the study of Public Policy?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   NATURE AND SCOPE OF PUBLIC POLICY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Public policy is an attempt by a government to address a public issue by instituting laws, regulations, decisions, or actions pertinent to the problem at hand. Numerous issues can be address by public policy including crime, education, foreign policy, health, and social welfare. The process to create a new public policy typically follows three steps: agenda-setting, option formulation, and implementation; the time- line for a new policy to be put in place can range from weeks to several years depending on the situation. An in-depth understanding of Public Policy will require and understanding of the nature, scope and basic elements of policies as well as its categorisation. This is what this unit did.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   identify the nature of public policy
•   state and explain the basic elements of public policy
•   state and explain the various typologies of public policy.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Nature of Public Policy

In any society, governmental entities enact laws, make policies, and allocate resources. This is true at all levels. Here, it is correctly argued that public policies are governmental decisions, and are actually the result of activities which the government undertakes in pursuance of certain goals and objectives. Thus, the following points will make the nature of public policy clearer in our minds:

Public policies are goal oriented: This means that public policies are formulated and implemented in order to attain the objectives which the government has in view for the betterment of the public.

Public policy is the outcome of the government's collective actions; It means that it is a pattern or course of activity or the governmental officials and actors in a collective sense than being termed as their discreet and segregated decisions.

Pubic Policy is what the government decides or chooses to do: It is the relationship of the government units to the specific field of political environment in a given administrative system. It can take a variety of forms like law, ordinances, court decision, executive orders, decisions etc

Public policy may be positive or negative: It is positive in the sense that it depicts the concern of the government and involves its action to a particular problem on which the policy is made. Negatively, it involves a decision by the governmental officials regarding not taking any action on a particular issue.

3.2   Basic Elements and Scope of Public Policy

While basic elements of public policy are the fundamental things to know about public policy, the scope talks about the content and process of public policy making, the causes and consequences of a public [policy, the public demand, how decisions are made the implementation strategies and policies instrument as well as result of the policy, Ikeanyibe (2013) and Okeke (2001) was unable to find a distinction between them hence agreed that policy demand, policy decisions, policy statements, policy output and policy outcome covers the basic elements and scope of public policy. Therefore, the following are the basic elements and scope of public policy:

Policy Demands: Policy demands are claims or expectations made on public officials by other actors in the political system. Whatever perceived problems that call for action or inaction of government are understood as policy demands (Ikeanyibe, 2013). According to Okeke (2001), these claims constitute policy demands.

Policy Goals: These are objectives that are meant to be achieved through the instrument of policy action. It is important to assert that policy demand may differ from the goals which the political actors seek to achieve through a public policy (Ikeanyibe, 2013). According to Egonmwan (2000), apart from the declared intention for making a public policy, government could also have a hidden intention for introducing a policy.

Policy Decisions: policy decisions are the resolutions made by public officials to act or not act in a certain way in relation to a specific societal problem (Ikeanyibe, 2013). According to Okeke (2001), public decisions are decisions by public officials that authorise or give direction and content of public policy. Such decisions could include enactment of statutes, issuance of executive orders, and promulgation of edits, administrative rules or making of important judicial interpretation of laws.

Policy Statements: Policy statements according to Anderson (1997) are the formal expression or articulation of public policy. They include legislative statutes, decrees, presidential orders, administrative rules and court opinions as well as indicating the intentions and goals of government and how to realise them.

Policy Output; This is the tangible manifestation of public policy or the actual thing done to realise policy goals. It is rather the result of implementing the policy in relation to the set objectives. The importance of policy out in the understanding of policy is unequivocal because if government makes a pronouncement and such pronouncement was not enforced, it becomes difficult to that the policy exists as pronounced. Thus, policy outputs must be evaluated in terms of the set targets as evident from policy decisions and statements.

Policy Outcomes: According to Ikeanyibe (2013), the concept of policy outcome is related to policy output since it is also the result of implementing a policy. But outcomes include both the intended and unintended consequences of a policy.

Anderson (1997) referred to it as Policy's societal consequences.

3.3   Types of Public Policy

According to Ikeanyibe (2013), public policies abound. This is because public policies may come in different forms depending on the prevailing circumstances in the society and the considered priorities of the government of the day. One important fact about public policy is that all public policies are biased in favour of some groups and disadvantage others in varying degrees. Hence, public policies usually address specific areas of the society and such limitations are often used as the basis for classification. In other words, public policies are usually qualified with what they are meant to achieve or address, the scope covered or some other adjectival descriptions that will help to make some generalisations about policies. Thus, there are many ways of classifying public policies. These ways include:

(i)   The sector in which the policy is directed like housing, agriculture, defence
(ii)   Similar policies could be recognised and distinguished in terms of the clientele, issues or problems for which they were designed like social welfare policy, child development policy etc
(iii)   Substantive and procedural policies
(iv)   A popular classification of policy was that made by Theodore Lowi (distributive, regulatory, and redistributive)
(v)   McKinney and Howard (1979) classified public policy into fundamental, major and functional policies.
(vi)   Yehezikel Dror (1973) classified public policy into Mega and Meta policies
(vii)   Other classifications include transformative and restorative policies
(viii) Reversible ad irreversible policies (Ndiribe, 2007)
(ix)   Explicit-Implicit Policies
(x)   Material- Symbolic Policies (Anderson, 1997)
(xi)   Collective Good-private Good policies

Distributive, Regulatory and Redistributive Policies

This classification was pioneered by Thoedore Lowi (1962). His classification was based on the objectives which the public policies are meant to achieve.

Distributive Policies are types of policies, which involve incremental dispersal of government resources and benefits to different segments of the population and to individuals and institutions. They can be the actual favours, benefits or patronage policies that are dispensed to a small number of people. This dispersal is continual and those not favoured at one point, may be favoured at another time. However, the nature of distributive polices is that recipients and losers do not come into direct confrontation. Although potential beneficiaries seek required favours, they do not often oppose or interfere with favours to others. Examples of distributive policies are those that relate to public land, tariff, orts, etc.
Regulatory Policies are policies, which refer to law or policy outputs that regulate distribution, practices, actions and activities. These are policies, which relate to directions, rules and frameworks on activities in various areas such as business, commerce, agriculture, transportation, etc. Their impact is either increases in costs or restrictions or expansion of activities and alternatives to private individuals organisations. Examples are NAFDAC and Standard Organisations.

Redistributive Polices are policies that specifically transfers resources from ne group to the other. The rationale is reducing the level of inequality in eth society. They   benefit   particular   segments   or

category of the population, such as the unemployed, homeless, the poor, the retired, etc. They relate particularly to transfer of resources among large groups or classes (Anderson, 1975). Examples of distributive policies are social welfare programmes and some educational and tax policies.

Substantive and Procedural Policies

Anderson (1997) explained substantive policy as what government is going to do such as constructing highways, overhead bridge, paying welfare benefits etc. substantive policies directly distributes to people advantages and disadvantages, benefits and costs. On the other hand, procedural policies pertain to how something is going to be done. For example the due process law, the federal character commission Act. However, it is usually difficult to discern the difference between substantive and procedural policy since all policies are likely going to provide guidelines in pursuit of some tangible or intangible benefits or costs to the people.

Fundamental, Major ad Functional Policies

This category of classification was championed by McKinney and Howard (1979) who based their classification in terms of scope of coverage. Fundamental Policies are policies derived from the constitution; hence they are based on constitutional provisions or judicial interpretations of the constitution. Such policies can only be changed or abolished by constitutional amendment and are characterised by large size, high importance and long tenure. They are considered supreme as they determine the nature of other policies. (Ikelegbe, 2005)
Major policy is based on legislature enactment made by the highest legislative bodies at varying levels of government. They are either in the form of laws or programmes. Major policies are therefore important and backed by the highest legislative bodies. They could be regarded as general policies, stating broad outlines and frameworks. The various National Development Plans are vivid examples. Functional polices emanate largely from the executive branch but could also emanate from decision and resolution set by legislatures and the courts. They are actually minor policies that relate to regulations and guidelines. They could also be administrative decision that are made in the process of implementing or administering public policy programmes overtime and indifferent situation and circumstances. They are therefore functional and operational policies.

Mega and Meta Policies

This classification was put forward by Yehezkiel Dror (1973).

Mega Policy is a policy that constitutes a framework for others, which usually are minor or secondary policies. Mega policy is a master policy

within which and by which some other policies within a specific policy issue or area are made. It provides the guide, the direction and the major assumptions and goals for other policies. Mega policies dictate the pace of more specific policies in relation to scope, time, levels of change and orientation. Both the Privatisation and deregulation policies are examples of mega policies.

Meta Policy is a policy that relates to policy making. Its attention and goal is on how to make other policies and particularly how to make better policies. Meta policy is concerned with the mode of policy and the system within, which public policy is made. It relates to policies on the process, guides, techniques, methods, requirements and characteristics of policy-making system. It is concerned with the design and redesign of policy-making systems in terms of structure, procedures, patterns, outputs level, models, methods, components, personnel and requirement. The goal of Meta Policies is to influence positively or improve policymaking systems and thus policy making. (Ikelegbe: 1996)

Transformative and Restorative Policies
Niribe (2007) classified policies according to the nature of effects they have. He talks about transformative and restorative policies. A policy is transformative when its principal aim is changing the status quo. It seeks to effect radical changes. Restorative policy is concerned with returning the society to its previous state or status. All maintenance, regulatory policies not geared towards initiating radical changes are restorative (Ikeanyibe, 2013)**.**

4.0   CONCLUSION

The analyses of the nature, basic elements and scopes as well as types of Public Policies in this unit have elucidated more on public policy analysis. The effort was geared to make you a good public policy analyst. There are still other types of public policy like reversible and irreversible policies, explicit and implicit policies, material and symbolic policies as well as collective good-private good policies. Ensure to read them up in Ikeanyibe 2013.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, the nature, basic elements and scopes of public policies were treated alongside the types which were elaborately discussed to enhance proficiency in the act of public policy analysis.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain the five types of public Policy discussed in this unit.

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UNIT 4   POLICY-MAKING PROCESS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objective
3.0   Main Content
         3.1   Policy Initiation/ Agenda Building
         3.2   Policy Formulation and Adoption
         3.3   Policy Implementation
         3.4   Evaluation and Termination
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The policy process refers to the methods, conditions, procedures, activities, interactions and stages by which policies are made. It refers to how policies come about or are made and what is involved in the processing of policies from problems identification to the policy outcome. In this unit, details of the stages of policy making like agenda setting, policy formulation and adoption, implementation, evaluation and termination or reformulation are given.

2.0   OBJECTIVE

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

•   explain the stages in the policy making process.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

Policy – Making Process
There are several stages in the establishment and carrying out of a policy by the government. These include agenda building, formulation, adoption, implementation, evaluation and termination.

3.1   Policy Initiation/ Agenda Building

In order to create a policy, the government's attention has to be focused on a pressing problem requiring legislation. For instance, rivers and streams periodically overflow causing great loss to property and life. Further, winds and rains erode the land and rob it of its fertility. A social demand then arises for taking some action regarding the control and

development of river valleys, and the conservation of natural resources. Thus the legitimate public business comprises the agenda of the state. Again, for example, strife between labour and management may disrupt essential services or raise the cost of living. People may then demand the establishment of social machinery for preventing costly work stoppages and for promoting harmonious labour management relations. In modern times, juvenile delinquency shows a tendency to increase. Hence people look out for ways of diverting the energies of the youth into healthy and useful channels. The agenda of the state thus includes the things that government has to do in order to maintain a vital community. Thus, before a policy can be created, a problem must exist that is called to the attention of the government.

3.2   Policy Formulation and Adoption

Policy formulation involves adoption of an approach for solving a problem. In other coming up with an approach to solving a problem. There may be choice between a negative and a positive approach to a problem. The legislative branch, the executive branch and the courts may favour dependence on impersonal forces to correct momentary difficulties. However interest groups may desire vigorous human interference with these forces to control persistent difficulties. Either of these approaches involving the formulation of policy. After a policy is formulated, a bill is presented to the National Assembly, or proposed rules are drafted by regulatory agencies. The adoption of a policy takes place only when legislation is passed, or regulations are finalised or a decision has been passed by the Supreme Court.

3.3   Policy Implementation

Policy implementation is the process of translating policy mandates into action, prescription into results and goals into reality. It refers to the processes and reality. It refers to the processes and activities involved in the application, effectuation and administering of a policy. It is the actions taken to carryout accomplish and fulfill the intents, objectives and expected outcomes of public policies. It is the act and process of converting a policy into reality and of enforcing a policy (Pressman & Wildavsky,

1979). Meanwhile, the implementation process consists of the implementing organisation, the environment particularly the political and economic environment, the policy target group, the objectives and the enunciated method o implementation and policy resources.

The carrying out of policy or its implementation is usually done by other institutions than those that were responsible for its formulation and

adoption. Many problems are technically so complex and difficult that the legislature does not try to deal with them in detail. The legislature thus indicates the broad lines of policy, and leaves the elaboration of the policy to other governmental agencies. The complexity of the policy, coordination between the agencies putting it into effect and compliance, determine how successfully the policy is implemented.

3.4   Evaluation and Termination

After the implementation, stage, performance appraisal comes up which is done through evaluation. The essence is to know how well a policy is doing in relation to intended purposes, objectives target and intended accomplishments. It relates to whether intended services have been delivered, intended outcome or other desired and state is achieved, or whether the target problem or situation has experienced the desired changes. Performance answers the question of how the policy has fared in its interaction with the environment. The degree of achievement of the aforementioned aspects, determines the level of performance. Performance encompasses effectiveness and efficiency. Evaluation involves checking how well the policy is working out, which is definitely a difficult task. The cost-benefit analysis is used by people inside and outside government to determine whether government expenditure on a particular program, is justified by the benefits derived from it. Further, different or also contradictory interpretations may be obtained from the data that forms the basis of the cost -benefit analysis.

History has shown that once implemented, policies are difficult to terminate. When they are terminated, it is usually because the policy became obsolete, clearly did not work, or lost its support among the interest groups and elected officials that placed it on the agenda in the first place.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have seen the logical sequence of stages of policy-making processes beginning with the identification of a given problem, followed by public and government awareness of the problem known as agenda setting, which leads to the development of various courses of action to solve the given problem known as policy formulation, which is followed by governmental adoption and legitimisation of a given course of course of action, resulting in the implementation of the adopted course of action, which then leads to a policy evaluation to determine if the objectives of the course of action are being achieved, and finally the cycle comes full circle when new problems are identified resulting in policy modification or termination.

5.0   SUMMARY

Public policy is a set of objectives set by the government relating to the general health and welfare of the public and actions taken to accomplish it. The public policy process is the manner in which public policy is formed, implemented and evaluated. In this unit we formally, stated that a policy established and carried out by the government goes through several stages from inception to conclusion. These are agenda building, formulation, adoption, implementation, evaluation, and termination.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe policy formation and policy formulation.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5   DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Every day, people are inundated with decisions, big and small. Understanding how people arrive at their choices is an area of cognitive psychology that has received attention. Theories have been generated to explain how people make decisions, and what types of factors influence decision making in the present and future. In addition, heuristics have been researched to understand the decision making process.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what its take in decision-making
- state the characteristics of decision
- describe the levels of decision making process
- enumerate the factors affecting decision-making.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

Decision-Making Process
While, a decision is a choice made between 2 or more available alternatives, decision making is the process of choosing the best alternative for reaching objectives.

3.1   Meaning of Decision-Making

Decision-making is usually defined as a process or sequence of activities involving stages of problem recognition, search for information, definition of alternatives and the selection of an actor of one from two or more alternatives consistent with the ranked preferences". Decision-making can be regarded as a problem-solving activity terminated by a solution deemed to be optimal, or at least satisfactory. It is therefore a process which can be more or less rational or irrational and can be based on explicit or tacit knowledge and beliefs.

Decision making is the process of making choices by identifying a decision, gathering information, and assessing alternative resolutions. Using a step-by-step decision-making process can help you make more deliberate, thoughtful decisions by organising relevant information and defining alternatives. This approach increases the chances that you will choose the most satisfying alternative possible.

3.2   Characteristics of Decision-Making

The following are the characteristics of decision making:

- Objectives must first be established
- Objectives must be classified and placed in order of importance
- Alternative actions must be developed
- The alternatives must be evaluated against all the objectives
- The alternative that is able to achieve all the objectives is the tentative decision
- The tentative decision is evaluated for more possible consequences
- The decisive actions are taken, and additional actions are taken to prevent any adverse consequences from becoming problems and starting both systems (problem analysis and decision-making) all over again
- There are steps that are generally followed that result in a decision model that can be used to determine an optimal production plan
- In a situation featuring conflict, role-playing may be helpful for predicting decisions to be made by involved parties (Monahan, 2000; Armstrong, 2001)

3.3   Types of Decision

It is not often realised that there are different types of decision making. Although this may seem obvious it's not always understood. And even when it is, decision types may not be fully considered when decisions are being made. The following are the main types of decisions every organisation need to take:

1. **Programmed and Non-Programmed Decisions**

   Programmed decisions are concerned with the problems of repetitive nature or routine type matters. A standard procedure is followed for tackling such problems. These decisions are taken generally by lower level managers. Decisions of this type may pertain to e.g. purchase of raw material, granting leave to an employee and supply of goods and implements to the employees, etc. Non-programmed decisions relate to difficult situations for which there is no easy solution.These matters are very important for the organisation. For example, opening of a new branch of the organisation or a large number of employees absenting from the organisation or introducing new product in the market, etc., are the decisions which are normally taken at the higher level.

2. **Routine and Strategic Decisions**

   Routine decisions are related to the general functioning of the organisation. They do not require much evaluation and analysis and can be taken quickly. Ample powers are delegated to lower ranks to take these decisions within the broad policy structure of the organisation. Strategic decisions are important which affect objectives, organisational goals and other important policy matters. These decisions usually involve huge investments or funds. These are non-repetitive in nature and are taken after careful analysis and evaluation of many alternatives. These decisions are taken at the higher level of management.

3. **Tactical (Policy) and Operational Decisions**

   Decisions pertaining to various policy matters of the organisation are policy decisions. These are taken by the top management and have long term impact on the functioning of the concern. For example, decisions regarding location of plant, volume of production and channels of distribution (Tactical) policies, etc. are policy decisions. Operating decisions relate to day-to-day functioning or operations of business. Middle and lower level managers take these decisions. An example may be taken to

distinguish these decisions. Decisions concerning payment of bonus to employees are a policy decision. On the other hand if bonus is to be given to the employees, calculation of bonus in respect of each employee is an operating decision.

4. **Organisational and Personal Decisions:**

When an individual takes decision as an executive in the official capacity, it is known as Organisational decision. If decision is taken by the executive in the personal capacity (thereby affecting his personal life), it is known as personal decision. Sometimes these decisions may affect functioning of the organisation also. For example, if an executive leaves the organisation, it may affect the organisation. The authority of taking organisational decisions may be delegated, whereas personal decisions cannot be delegated.

5. **Major and Minor Decisions**

Another classification of decisions is major and minor. Decision pertaining to purchase of new factory premises is a major decision. Major decisions are taken by top management. Purchase of office stationery is a minor decision which can be taken by office superintendent.

6. **Individual and Group Decisions**

When the decision is taken by a single individual, it is known as individual decision. Usually routine type decisions are taken by individuals within the broad policy framework of the organisation. Group decisions are taken by group of individuals constituted in the form of a standing committee. Generally very important and pertinent matters for the organisation are referred to this committee. The main aim in taking group decisions is the involvement of maximum number of individuals in the process of decision• making.

7. **Policy, Administrative and Executive Decisions**

Ernest Dale has classified decisions in business organisation as under
(a) Policy decisions,
(b) Administrative decisions and
(c) Executive decisions.

Policy decisions are taken by top management or administration of an organisation. They relate to major issues and policies such as the nature of the financial structure, marketing policies, outline of organisation structure.

Administrative decisions are made by middle management and are less important than policy decisions. According to Ernest Dale the size of the advertising budget is a policy decision but selection of media would be an example of administrative decision.

Executive decisions are those which are made at the point where the work is carried out. Distinguishing between these three types of decisions Dale writes, "policy decisions set forth goals and general courses of action, administrative decisions determine the means to be used and executive decisions are those made on a day-to- day basis as particular cases come up".

3.4   Why Study Decision Making

We study decision making for the following reasons:

(i)   Managers face problems everyday and in solving these problems mangers are taking decisions. Decision making is so much part of the manager that it is now identified as a major intellectual focus. It is also pervasive.

(ii)   Because of value judgment. That is, that some bad decisions are good or bad. People thus, ask, what makes a good or bad decision?

(iii)   The need to survive and keep afloat because of the assumption that it is only good decisions that could keep one afloat. So people now study decision making process to train managers to avoid pit-falls.

3.5   Levels of Decision-Making Process

Management remains "the least efficient activity in any organisation", according to management thinker Gary Hamel, and is increasingly disconnected from what is happening on the front line, a point surely underlined by the recent debacles over Libor. Nonetheless, despite thousands of books written on the subject, and billions invested in it to streamline organisations, unwieldy hierarchies remain stubbornly in place and here is where decisions usually are made.

When "flat organisation" structures were first being promoted by the likes of Peter Drucker nearly 30 years ago, the renowned organisational psychologist Elliott Jaques contended that all organisations had four real decision-making levels, which he termed "requisite hierarchy". Those at the front line made day-to-day calls, managers' outlook was month to month, directors were paid to decide on matters affecting year- to-year performance, and the board was there to oversee the development of the business a year and beyond.

In line with new Public Management, we shall adopt John Spence (2015) Four Level Decision Making. According to him, A while back when I was running one of the Rockefeller foundations I had a fairly large staff but had designed our team with a very flat organisational structure. When a company is organised in such a manner, successful delegation and quick decision making is a must. To foster such an environment I developed a pretty straight-forward four level decision making protocol to quickly identify who should be making which kinds of decisions.

Level 1 = Delegation
This is the kind of decision that I do not need to be involved in at all. You do not need to tell me about it – just make the decision completely on your own and implement it right away. You own this decision.

Level 2 = Discussion
Talk to me, or someone else in the organisation, to get input, information and suggestions, but make the decision completely on your own. You also own this decision.

Level 3 = Consensus
On a decision like this let's get the team together and talk it through. Let's get everybody's ideas, expertise and input, then we will make the decision together as a management team. We all own this decision together and will do whatever the team agrees is the best course of action.

Level 4 = My Call
A level 4 decision is ultimately my choice as the leader. I will get everyone's input, ideas, suggestions and expertise. We will talk it through together. But at the end of the day I will make this decision for the entire organisation and it will be completely my responsibility. I own this decision 100%.

I rarely had to make any level 4 decisions, and as we worked on this system together we were able to push more and more things down to level 1 or 2 – thereby freeing up a lot of my time and letting people play

a much bigger role in how they ran their part of the business. The way we implemented this was also simple. I handed out a sheet that explained the levels, and then every time someone came to me to make a decision for them, I would say: "That is a level one – you handle it" or "That is a level 2 – am I the best person to give you input on that topic?" and so forth, until people could pretty much figure out what sort of decisions fell into which category and they could just do what was appropriate. Of course there are many other factors involved in effective delegation, such as; adequate training, transparency, empowerment, acceptable risk taking and such, but I found this system to be a nice way to help my team make better and faster decisions.

3.6   Factors Affecting Decision-Making

Whenever we are involved in making decisions a number of factors can affect the process we follow and ultimately the decision we make. We can organise the factors affecting decision making into three major groups: Perception Issues, Organisational Issues and Environmental Issues

1.   Perception Issues

Perception can be described as the way in which individuals interpret their environment. An individual's perception can influence how they make decisions and solve problems. For example, when information about a problem needs to be gathered the individual's perception will impact on where the information is sought and the type of information regarded as relevant. Perception can be influenced by the following:

The Perceiver
The perceiver, the individual perceiving the object, will be heavily influenced by their personal characteristics. The types of personal characteristics that can affect an individual's perception include: Background and experience, Personal values, personal expectations and Personal interests.

The Object
The object, which refers to any person, item or event, can have an impact on the way it is perceived. For example, when a manager receives a number of reports to read he may be more inclined to read the one with the most colourful cover as this one stands out. The relation an object has to other objects can also affect the perception of the perceiver. For example, an individual team member may be judged on the actions of the whole team even when it is more appropriate for them to be judged on their own merits.

The Situation
Time, location and other situational factors can influence our perception of an object. For example, a Team Leader may notice team members who work late on the same evenings as the Team Leader. However, team members who work late on other evenings may not be noticed by the Team Leader.

2.   Organisational Issues

A number of Organisational issues can impact on the decision making process. These issues include: Policies and procedures, Organisational hierarchy, Organisational politics.

Policies and Procedures
Many organisations have formalised policies and procedures which have been developed to resolve common problems and to guide managers when making decisions. For example, many organisations have documented disciplinary procedures which guide managers through a process of resolving issues with staff members.

Organisational Hierarchy
Organisational hierarchy refers to the management structure of the organisation. Most organisations have different levels of management which carry with them different degrees of authority. The degree of authority directly impacts on the nature of the decisions an individual can make. For example, a Customer Contact Centre Team Leader cannot make decisions about the overall goals of the organisation. However, the Team Leader can make decisions about how their team contributes to the achievement of the organisation's goals.

Organisational Politics
Organisational politics refers to behaviour displayed by individuals and groups which is designed to influence others. Individuals and teams will often use politics to: Advance their careers, Advance their interests and ideas, and Increase their rewards. Organisations are made up of individuals with different beliefs, values and interests. These differences are often the driving forces behind organisational politics. For example, two teams believe they require an extra team member.

Unfortunately the organisation can only afford one new employee. The two teams may well use politics in an attempt to influence their manager to allocate the new employee to their team.

3.   **Environmental Issues**

Environmental issues are the external factors that affect the organisation. The types of external factors that can have an effect on decision making include:
The market in which the organisation operates
The economy
Government legislation
Customers' reaction to the organisation's products and services

4.0   CONCLUSION

People make decisions about many things. They make political decisions; personal decisions, including medical choices, romantic decisions, and career decisions; and financial decisions, which may also include some of the other kinds of decisions and judgments. Quite often, the decision making process is fairly specific to the decision being made. Some choices are simple and seem straight forward, while others are complex and require a multi-step approach to making the decisions. In this, we have successfully addressed decision making, in the context of meaning, characteristics and types of decisions people make. We also look at why we study decision making, levels of decision making process and lastly, factors that influence decision making,

5.0   SUMMARY

Decision making is an important area of research in Public Administration. Understanding the process by which individuals make decisions is important to understanding the decisions they make. There are several factors that influence decision making. After an individual makes a decision, there are several differing outcomes, including regret and satisfaction.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the factors that affects decision making?

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MODULE 2   DYNAMICS   OF   PUBLIC POLICYPROCESS AND POLICY AND DECISION-MAKING THEORIES

Unit 1   Policy Formation: Problems, Agenda and formulation
Unit 2   Approaches to Public Policy Making
Unit 3   Dynamics of Public Policy Formulation, Implementation and Evaluation
Unit 4   Theories of Public Policy Making
Unit 5   Theories of Decision-Making

UNIT 1   POLICY FORMATION: PROBLEMS, AGENDA AND FORMULATION

CONTENTS

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2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
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        3.2   Policy Agenda
        3.3   Who sets the agenda?
        3.4   How to Get Problems onto the Agenda
        3.5   Why Some Issues Are Ignored
        3.6   Policy Formulation
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

The policy process refers to the methods, conditions, procedures, activities, interactions and stages by which policies are made. It refers to how policies come about or are made and what is involved in the processing of policies from problems identification to the policy outcome. However, having x-rayed the complete process in the last unit, we purposefully used this unit to equip the student with the latent knowledge about the dynamics and idiosyncrasies of the pre-decision stage of the whole process called the policy formation stage. The need for the emphasis is because of its relevance in the entire process.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the nature policy problems definition
- describe Policy Agenda and Policy Agenda Setting
- state Policy Formulation and its importance in policy process.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Policy Problems

As Anderson (1997) observed, older studies of policy formation devote little attention to the nature and definition of public problems. Instead, problems were taken as "given", and analysis moved from there. However, it is now conventional wisdom that policy study that does not consider the characteristics and dimensions of the problems that stimulate government action is less than complete. It is important to know both why some problems are acted on and other are neglected and why problem is defined in one way rather than another. This helps one determine where power lies in the political system. Moreover, whether a problem is foreign or domestic, a new item or the outgrowth of an existing policy, or limited or sweeping in scope helps to determine the nature of the ensuring policy making process. Evaluating a policy also requires information on the substance and dimensions of the target problem in order to appraise the policy effectiveness.

Policy Problem can be defined as a condition or situation that produces needs or satisfaction among people ad for which relief or redress through government action is sought. Such conditions as dirty air, unwholesome food, the practice of abortion, urban congestion, crowded prison that may become problems if they produce sufficient anxiety or dissatisfaction to cause people to seek for a remedy. For this to happen, people must have some criterion or standard by which the troubling condition is judged to be both unreasonable and unaccepted and appropriate for government to handle.

Something in effect needs to tell us that inflation and unemployment will have unacceptable economic effect.   If people think that a condition is normal, inevitable, or their own responsibility, then nothing is likely to happen because it is not perceived as a problem. If a group of people, for instance, is afflicted by depressed economic condition but regards these conditions as inevitable and legitimate and neither does anything about them nor somehow elicit actions by others on their behalf, then, according to the definition, no problem exists because conditions do not become public problems unless they are defined as

such, articulated by someone, and then brought to the attention of the government. This action can be and frequently is taken by legislators and other government officials who are often scouting around for problems that they can claim credit for solving.

As stated earlier, to be converted into a problem, a condition must also be seen as an appropriate topic for governmental action and further as something for which there is a possible governmental remedy or solution. As Wildavsky contended "a problem is a problem only if something can be done about it. It means that government or government officials cannot is unlikely to deal with a problem unless it is coupled with a solution.

Conditions can be defined as problems, and redress for them can be sought by persons other than those who are directly affected. Again, there is always a possibility that others will define a problem differently than those affected. Indeed, problems are often defined differently by individuals and groups possessing varying interest and values. Although many problems are persistent, how they are defined may change as values and conditions change because conditions that at one time was accepted as the normal order of things may later, because of social change, be treated as problems. For centuries, wife-beating, child abuse and other forms of family violence were regarded as private matter, today; they are no longer so treated. Changes in public attitude, media attention, the women's movement and other factors changed our notions about acceptable conduct in family matters. A variety of national or state laws pertaining to family violence now are on the statute books. There is still however uncertainty as to the pervasiveness of family violence.

The definition of a problem is often a political process whose outcome will help determine appropriate solutions. Another facet of problem definition is causation, hence a condition may be defined as a problem but what causes the condition? Many problem- crime, poverty, unemployment, inflation, air pollution have multiple causes.

Again, the nature and scope of some public problems may be difficult to specify because they are diffuse or invisible. Because measurement may be imprecise, policy makers may be uncertain about the magnitude of the problem and in turn about effective solution or even whether there is a need for governmental action

3.2   Policy Agenda

We frequently read about demands being made by this group or that individual or some public officials for action by a governmental body on some problems, whether it be IPOB demand to secede or curbing corruption in the public sector. Of the thousands of demands made, only a few will receive serious consideration by public policy makers. This process is called policy agenda.

The policy agenda is composed of the demands that policy-makers agree to consider. It is not the sum of all political demands, and is ranked according to the political priorities of the policy decision-makers. A number of individuals or groups can try to get their issues onto the policy agenda, including leaders, interest groups, crisis or disaster, mass organisations or protests, media attention, etc. "Non-decisions" are the decisions to avoid considering certain issues.

Since it is not all the demands on government that gets to be considered by the government, the question that comes to mind is how then do problems reach the agendas of governmental organisations such as the National Assembly. Professor John Kingdon proposed agenda setting which is the process by which problems and alternative solutions gain or lose public and elite attention. Group competition to set the agenda is fierce because no society or political system has the institutional capacity to address all possible alternatives to all possible problems that arise at any one time. This may be it is contended that Agenda setting is not a rational process, but a struggle over the definition of the problem. All interests are not equally represented in this struggle, and some problems are more likely to reach the agenda than others. Hence, the rational approach assumes that no important problems are unperceived and that all problems are accurately defined by all participants who agree on an objective definition. May decision-makers assume that if a problem has not been brought to their attention, then it does not exist. The implications of this assumption are like the ostrich with its head in the sand.

In actuality, there is no agreement on what the problem is or even whether it is a public issue. There is no agreement on the values or tradeoffs that should be made in areas of conflict (e.g., environmental protection versus jobs). Conflict arises because different groups would be affected in different ways by any potential definition of the problem or any potential solution. Interest groups place issues where they will have the most control over the decision-makers. Not all problems create "publics" or equally powerful groups. Corporations and institutions are more likely to survive and get their issues on the agenda over the long term. Also, within a capitalist system, a high degree of business success must be supported by public policy.

A problem must be accepted on the agenda for the policy-making system to take action. Once on the agenda, it is hard to displace an issue (e.g., poverty, education, health). Issues get onto the agenda through:

-       influential publications, mass mobilisations, dramatic events (e.g., Sputnik)
-       perception that something is wrong and that government can help;
-       cycles of enthusiasm for issues, followed by realisation of what it will cost, the seriousness of the problem and the low odds of solving it, followed by decline in popularity (environment, women's rights, war on drugs, etc.)
-       formal points of entry, as well as informal points, such as official and unofficial participants, linkages, ideologies, external events, institutional and constitutional challenges
-       problems must be conceptualised, named and defined, for example, is the "drug problem" one of enforcement, education, supply and demand, public health?

Agendas are to some degree an abstraction, represented by legislative calendars, speeches by politicians, government regulations, etc. There are two conceptual agendas:

A.   **Systemic Agenda,** some important parties agree that something should be a public concern; all issues that are commonly perceived to merit public attention, involving matters within the legitimate jurisdiction of existing governmental authority; they have widespread awareness or attention; the concern is shared by a large segment that some action is required; there is shared perception that the matter requires government attention and falls within the authority of some governmental unit; should government deal with it at all?

B.   **Institutional Agenda**, what those in power are prepared to deal with (which excludes pseudo-items on the systemic agenda); most conflict occurs over which agenda the item belongs on (turf wars), either fighting to retain popular items or fighting to get rid of unpopular items; what should government do? Items specifically, actively, and seriously up for consideration by authoritative decision-makers.

3.3   Who Sets the Agenda?

Pluralist theory-policy-making is divided into many arenas, those without power in one arena may find it in another arena; there is a marketplace for competing policies, groups, and interests; any group

may win in some arena; actors accept the rules of the game (elections determine who gets to decide on public policy).

Elitists--power elite dominates the process to serve their own interests; the same interests have power in all arenas and always win; few people actually organise   into interests groups with time, money and skills; the elite must keep key issues off the agenda to retain control and power; elite suppression of issues threatens democracy.

Institutional--legislative committees and bureaucratic institutions vie for control of the agenda; individuals benefit little from these agenda decisions; social interests have little impact on what is actually considered; this leads to somewhat more conservative policy alternatives than under the group scenario but less conservative than under the elite scenario.

3.4   How to get Problems into the Agenda

1)   Political leaders are the major initiators of policy issues, and the major participants in the national or civic debates on policy. Politicians may support one another in exchange for getting a favoured   item onto the policy agenda.

2)   Political and policy elites, lobbyists, think tanks, those with access to power.

    Groups may have access because a decision-maker is a member of that group or identified with it. Groups have resources, including mobilisation of voters. Some groups are so powerful that their demands cannot be ignored (big business). Some groups are held in greater esteem and/or thought to have better technical knowledge (e.g., doctors). Some groups may have better access through one branch or level of government than others (e.g., civil rights groups and courts).

3)   Political Parties can generate issues, especially in an election year.

4)   The Media can elevate issues to gain public attention and get onto the systemic and then the institutional agenda (Ralph Nader). The media can publicise issues that are unknown, or it can pick up on themes important to decision-makers and push those themes. It can stimulate controversy among the constituency and get them to contact their representatives. It can structure public debate in that way that issues are reported, the terms used to frame the debate, and the illustrative stories

presented. The media can also choose not to report on certain issues which the editors deem unworthy such as crisis, natural disasters, unforeseen events, international events. Access is a function of the perceived legitimacy of the group or individual; and is also influenced by the prevailing socio-political and cultural climate.

5)   Natural Disaster/Crisis Or Spectacular Events: Items may achieve agenda status and be acted upon as a consequence of some kind of crisis or spectacular event, such as natural disaster, Aba women riot of 1939, fuel subsidy removal protest of 2012 in Nigeria. These serve to dramatise and issue and attract wide attention, causing public officials to feel compelled to respond. There may be awareness, discussion, and continued advocacy of action on some matter; but without broad interest being stirred or policy action obtained some sort of "triggering" even seems needed to push the matter into the policy agenda.

3.5   Why Some Issues are ignored

i.   Effective responses require information, capacity, and political will.

ii.   Vague demands or trivial issues are ignored; issues may be deemed vague or trivial if their demands would threaten or conflict with the interests of the power elite.

iii.   Issues not requiring government action; many issues have been deemed to belong to the private sector and will not be considered by government.

iv.   Politics As Usual: Policy action is limited by previous government decisions, poor political skills or lack of resources of the underlying group, the entrenched interests, the issue has not been in the public eye long enough to garner support, or everyone considers the issue to be settled;

v.   Established bureaucracies are usually defenders of the status quo and established privilege; they are not neutral; they can control access by outsiders; they may resist challenges by resisting appointments from outside; generally accommodate the wishes of the elites; care little for adequate public representation.

vi.   Faded issues: the energy crisis of the 1970s was a result of the oil embargo, and largely faded away when the embargo was lifted. Concerns about unemployment may be displaced by concerns

about inflation; environmental protection in Alaska may be displaced by energy independence (oil drilling).

vii.   Issues may die in committees or subcommittees; they may never be scheduled or be held back until it is too late; they may be postponed in favour of more routine issues that are easier to deal with; they may be tabled until more information is available; or referred to an investigatory panel.

However, some issues seem to be ignored because:

- issues are too hot to be handled
- there is a decision not to intervene
- there is only a symbolic but meaningless response
- there are disappointing or unexpectedly negative results
- there is a delayed response
- there is a response at an inappropriate level
- the response is neither predictable, nor immediate, the commitment is not all-out, there is a decision but not action, and the problem is not resolved
- There are too many issues to consider all at any one time
- Delay may wear down the resources of opponents and/or supporters
- Conflicting values make an immediate response infeasible
- Partisan mutual adjustment politics (group theory) takes a long time
- Some issues are like forest fires and must be dealt with at once, displacing other issues
- Support for some issues comes only from politically powerless groups and can be successfully ignored for some time
- Politicians may alter issues to suit their own needs
- Publics may be inarticulate about what they actually want or need
- Some issues are better left alone because there is really nothing government can do.

3.6   Policy Formulation

Policy formulation is the second stage of the policy process in which policymakers propose courses of action for addressing agenda issues. It often provides policymakers with several choices for resolving agenda items. Effective policy formulation is comprised of analysis that identifies the most effective policies and political authorisations.

Formulation of policy consists of policymakers discussing and suggesting approaches to correcting problems that have been raised as part of the agenda. Sometimes it is necessary to choose from

among multiple potential paths forward. The issue of traffic safety has been solved by various policies throughout time. Here are a few examples of solutions: more highways were built in the 1950s, safer cars were required in the 1960s, and jailing drunk drivers was the solution in the 1980s and 1990s.

Thus, policy formulation involves developing pertinent and acceptable proposed courses of action (often called alternatives, proposals or options) for dealing with public problems as policy makers are confronted with several competing proposals for dealing with a problem or they have to struggle with devising their own alternative.

The ultimate policy that is chosen to solve the issue at hand is dependent on two factors. First, the policy must be a valid way of solving the issue in the most efficient and feasible way possible. Effective formulation involves analysis and identification of alternatives to solving issues. Secondly, policies must be politically feasible. This is usually accomplished through majority building in a bargaining process. Policy formulation is, therefore, comprised of analysis that identifies the most effective policies and political authorisation.

The idea of policy formulation suggests several images. The literature typically features one or the other, rarely both simultaneously. The technically minded see this as an act of correct analysis, finding the optimal solution to a complicated problem. The politically minded see it as gaining support for a policy through the cumbersome legislative process. The former casts policy formulation in terms of rationality; the latter in terms of compromise and majority-building. Here, both are right.

When policy formulation is defined as the development of effective and acceptable courses of action for addressing what has been placed on the policy agenda, two parts to this definition are discerned:

1. **Effective formulation** means that the policy proposed is regarded as a *valid, efficient, and implementable* solution to the issue at hand. If the policy is seen as ineffective or unworkable in practice, there is no legitimate reason to propose it. Policy analysts try to identify effective alternatives. This is the analytical phase of policy formulation.

2. **Acceptable formulation** means that the proposed course of action is likely to be *authorized* by the legitimate decision makers, usually through *majority- building* in a bargaining process. That is, it must be *politically feasible*. If the policy is likely to be rejected by the decision making body, it may be

impractical to suggest it. This is the political phase of policy formulation.

These two parts to the definition call to mind those who are involved in policy formulation. A mere mention of government agencies, presidential organisations, legislators, interest groups etc will suffice here as they will be detailed in future unit

4.0   CONCLUSION

Problem identification/definition, agenda setting and policy formulation constitute the pre-decision segment of the policy process in that they do not involve formal decision on what becomes public policy. They are important as they help in determining which issues will be considered, which will be given further examination and which will be abandoned. Thus, they involve political conflict and help set the
terms for additional conflate. It is because of these conflicts that this unit becomes necessary to shed more light on the pre-decision stage of public policy making process as its idiosyncrasies determine the policy outputs and outcomes.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, the dynamics of Public Policy making was unravelled as the core issue with public policy has been the definition of what constitute public problem, getting these concerns to the policy agenda of policy makers and determining which of the competing problems defined to be given further consideration or acting upon. The dynamics and idiosyncrasies were highlighted in this unit, while discussing policy problems, policy and agenda setting and policy formulation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Policy formation constitutes problem identification, agenda setting and policy formation. Expatiate.

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UNIT 2   APPROACHES TO PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

CONTENTS

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        3.5   Organisational Process and Political Bargaining Models
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

According to Ikeanyibe (2013); approaches to policy making refer simply to the method of producing public policies. A study approaches is an investigation into the "how of public policies. Having substantiated that policy making is more or less a decision-making process hence policies all about decision taken in relation to possible alternatives to tackle a problem, we approach the explanation of the "how of public policies in line with the various paradigms and models espoused by scholars such as the Rational-comprehensive model of Charles Lindbloom, the incremental model of Robert Dahl, the Mix Scanning model of Amitai Etzioni, the Satisficing Model of Herbert Simon and the Organisational Process and Political Bargaining model of G. Allison.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   state approaches to policy making
•   explain the five models through which we can approach policy making.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Rational-Comprehensive Model

The rational-comprehensive model of policy making can be described as a system analysis approach based on principles of scientific investigation and scientific problem solving. It aims at producing a

comprehensively rational decision, i.e. one that most effectively achieves a given end. It is comprehensive because it seeks to consider all possible solutions/options to a problem and to choose the alternative that produces the nest result in terms of efficiency, economy and effectiveness. It therefore involves the calculation and quantification of all cost and benefits, or value achievements and sacrifices and the choice of the alternative with most net benefit (Ikelegbe, 2005).

This model has five features namely:

1.   Classification of values
2.   Mean-ends analysis
3.   Choice of most appropriate means to achieve desired ends
4.   Comprehensive analysis; and
5.   Analysis that is theory based (Lindbloom, 1959)

The Rational-comprehensive analysis defined the problem, develops alternatives solutions, place values on the consequences of various alternatives, assesses the probability that they will occur and makes a decision based on logical rules. The model attempts to serve the ideal contained in Max Weber's view of bureaucracy in which decisions are on impersonal rules and techniques. It also draws heavily on the economists' vision of how a rational "economic man" should make decision. In addition, it relies on rational decision-making models developed by Mathematicians and psychologists. (Olaniyi, 1998:64).

3.2   Incremental Model

As propounded by Robert Dahl and Charles Lindbloom (1959) who are among the top critics of the rational comprehensive model, the incremental model recommends an incremental approach to policy making. Instrumentalism views public policy as a continuation of past government activities or policies with only incremental changes or modifications. Because an in-depth analysis of the costs and benefits of every conceivable alternative for dealing with a problem in public policy is often very time-consuming and expensive, public organisations may resort to a practical shortcut in deciding on possible improvements to existing programmes. Only a few of the many possible options or alternatives and their consequences are seriously considered or examined. Policy-makers generally accept the legitimacy of established programmes and agree to continue previous or existing policies. They accept previous policies because of the uncertainty and lack of information about the consequences of completely new or different policies. In this model, existing programmes or policies or expenditures are considered as a base and only small changes, and not radical innovations, are made to existing policies. There is no optimal policy

decision - a good policy is one that is acceptable to all groups rather than what is best to solve a problem.

Incremental policy-making is essentially remedial; it focuses on small and gradual changes to existing policies rather than dramatic fundamental changes or radical innovations. In this model, policy-making is also serial, you have to keep coming back to problems as mistakes become apparent and are corrected, and new approaches to the issues are developed gradually. The model suggests that major changes occur through a series of small steps, each of which does not fundamentally 'rock the boat.' "The policy process is one of muddling through" (Lindblom, 1980). An example of instrumentalism often cited concerns increases or decreases in annual government budgets, ranging from 5 to 10%.

3.3   The Mix Scanning Model

The mixed-scanning model is a reaction to both   rational   and incremental model. According to Etzioni (1967:27) who is the scholar of this model, none of the two models is completely satisfactory in explaining, predicting and guiding decision- making, hence his rejection of both models. Instead, he postulates that the right kind of analysis is a kind of mixed-scanning, which is a mixture of both rational and incremental models depending on the problem, the need and the situation. Thus in circumstances requiring fundamental decisions, the rational model could be used while the incremental model would be used in situations requiring incremental policies.

3.4   The Satisfying Model

This model is postulated by Herbert Simon in 1947 in reaction to the observed constraints of the rational comprehensive model. The satisfying model is the process of finding a decision alternative that meets the decision maker's minimum standard of satisfaction. The model focuses on the administrative actor in the decision-making situation. To the model, there are so many constraints to rationality that the administrator does not look for economic rationality or net value decision but for the satisfactory alternative. The ultimate choice is the alternative that is good enough, feasible, satisfactory and meets the decision makers' standards and expectations. Where no satisfactory alternative is found, the level of aspiration would be reduced so that eventually an alternative that is satisfactory matches the new level of aspiration is found (Simon, 1995:134).

3.5   Organisational Process and Political Bargaining Models

A decision or policy making approach that seems to differ somewhat from those explained above is those that see public policy as more of a

political action than formal problem-solving procedure in which decisions are disinterestedly taken in relation to the relatively rational solution to a problem. This approach sees public policy as nothing but a compromise arising from conflict and bargain (Ikeanyibe, 2013). This approach is political bargaining and government politics model.

The organisational process model as postulated by G. Allison assets that decision-making within organisations is different from individual decision making because decision process in organisations is fragmented among departments and individuals, as are the goals, objectives, values and perception of means for attaining objectives. The input into the decision-making process is also disjointed because of their differing sources within the organisation. The number and variety of goals are limited by the need to maintain the organisation might be manipulated to project or project certain interest. Organisational decision, therefore, reflect the standard procedures, regular patterns of behaviour, features and interest of the organisation.

Meanwhile, the Political Bargaining model, also postulated by G. Allison, emphasized that decision-making in government circles is characterised by conflict, compromise and bargaining. The actors involved that is, individuals, groups and organisations have interest, which they project or protect when faced with decision- making situations. Each player invests this resources and influence in such a way as to advance his interest and policy is the outcome of the bargaining and tradeoffs between the actors. The policy itself reflects an outcome that has general support, accommodates several interests and is based on the consensus reached.

The model explains to a large extent how societal decisions are made and what determines the outcome. It particularly explains how a web of interrelated individuals and groups barging to produce policies congruent to their interests. This enables us to understand why certain policies are made, why governments choose not to act in certain policy areas and why such inaction or non-decision sometimes constitutes decisions. (Ikelegbe 1996).

4.0   CONCLUSION

The approaches policy making otherwise called models of decision making by Ikeanyibe (2013), namely, rational-comprehensive, incremental, satisficing, mixed- scanning Organisational process and political bargaining were analysed. The essence is to enrich your knowledge on policy-making approaches otherwise called models.

5.0   SUMMARY

Five models of policy making had been discussed in this Unit. Some of them are interrelated or mixed. The choice of any of them depends on circumstance and interest attached to a particular policy-making. These models have been substantially proven to be the same as the approaches to policy making.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the various approaches to policy making.

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UNIT 3   DYNAMICS   OF   PUBLIC   POLICY FORMULATION, IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Public policy making is not an easy exercise. In fact, it is rooted in politics and its nature and scope differs along the type of society. In a multi-ethnic nation like Nigeria, defining a public problem is more difficult than solving the problem. This is because all the interests of the federating units most be reflected before it can be accepted and because it is usually difficult to get such consensus, compromised and ground shifting (politicking) overwhelms our public policy space. Take for instance, the perennial violent clashes between Hausa/Fulani Herdsmen and Farmers from other regions has been going on for quite a long time without one absolute policy to curtail it, except of course the grazing bill that was so controversial that it was thrown out. To the Fulani Herdsman, his cows need green grasses to live and they are his means of livelihood. To the farmers, their crops are their means of livelihood and as such cows grazing on them will cause more hardship and penury to them then they are already in. unfortunately, in the law making chambers, the Hausa/Fulanis are more in number and majority of them if not all are the actual owners of these cows. Asking them to prohibit the herdsmen from grazing in these red zone will tantamount to them creating ranches for their cows which will cost them much both to incur and secure. Therefore, convincing a typical Hausa/Fulani policy-maker to approve or issue a policy that will prohibit the herdsmen from invading people's farmlands will be almost impossible.

As is evident in the literature, the first and the most important step in the public policy process is the identification of the issue or problem that needs to be addressed or resolved. This involves not only recognising that a problem exists, but also studying the problem and its causes in

detail. It is important to have a clear idea about what you want to achieve. Problems like Poverty-(causes of poverty; should it be eradicated or reduced? should be done by someone who is poor and who has nothing to lose if the policy is pronounced. In our case, the people that are expected to make this policy on eradicating poverty, hunger and unemployment are the same people who feed on the sweat of these people. These question are what takes centre stage at the agenda setting stage and that is why policy that will empower the youth and the aged will not see the light of the day in the senate but issues bordering on buying new cars for eth senators and taking life gratuities and pension are usually passed in huge haste. This drama is what characterises the Nigeria policy making space hence the study of the dynamics, especially as it relates to the implementation and evaluation stages.

2.0   OBJECTIVE

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

•   explain the dynamism of policy making process in Nigeria.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Public Policy Formulation

Every policy problem has inherent value dimensions.   It is on the basis of values that a state of affairs is perceived as undesirable, and thus acknowledged as a problem. This makes the process of defining and negotiating the meaning of a problem an essentially political process. Despite this, bureaucracy and expertise have a strong, if not increasing, influence over the formation of policy problems. An objectivist knowledge view predominates within the public managerial realm, which obscures the political dimension of problem formulation, while policy problems tend to be approached as a matter of efficiency. This thesis provides an account of mechanisms that shape and constrain the way a particular policy problem is understood and addressed. It analyses how policy actors make sense of particular problems, by drawing on different discourses (scientific, institutional, popular or media).

One of the most central aspects of politics is the contestation about how reality should be interpreted. At global, national and local levels there are constant struggles, not only over which issues are the most crucial but also about the essence of the social problems that are on the political agenda.

Controversies may concern whether a phenomenon should be considered a problem, and if so, what the major factors causing the problem are. Disagreement may also involve the magnitude of 'the problem' and the proper solutions to it. Embedded in the understanding of a social problem, or rather, social phenomenon, are assumptions about reality: about relationships, behaviours, incentives, identities and so forth.

The definition of a policy problem which is the starting point of policy formulation can be described as 'the discrepancy between the state of affairs as it is and the state as it ought to be' (Rittel & Webber 1973). Hence, values constitute the very foundation or essence of a problem. Values guide what ought to be and thereby constitute the discrepancy with what is perceived to be. The formation of policy is in this sense inherently political (Fischer 2003). Policy problems are not given, objective facts that are waiting to be discovered and solved. They are socially constructed conceptions arising through the interpretation of reality. As interpretations and constructs, they are constantly being represented, reproduced and potentially reformulated.

A policy problem appears when attention is directed towards a particular phenomenon that is considered to depart from the desired state of affairs. What problems we see depends on where our attention is directed (Jacobs 2009) and how it is framed (Lidskog et al. 2010). Our attention may be redirected through contextual changes, which may lead us to 'discover' or formulate new problems.

Defining and measuring a problem at one particular level therefore always entails a reduction of complexity and an exclusion of aspects of the phenomenon. Every attempt to alter the problem has repercussions that may change its conditions. A wicked problem is therefore essentially unique and contextual. Thus, it is more accurate to talk about governing wicked problems than about solving them.

Policy studies have historically been dominated by an aspiration to make policy more 'rational' and aligned with scientific findings, and to make public policy less dependent on politics (Stone 1997). However, the quest to find scientific solutions to social problems has not fulfilled its promises (Fischer 2003). Researchers increasingly recognise that social science and policymaking are inherently related; they are both involved in forming, negotiating and establishing the categories, boundaries and interpretations that give meaning to the social world. Together they provide the frames through which problems are identified and made sense of.

However, the rationalistic project still has a strong position within the academia. What is more, an objectivist knowledge view dominates within many public institutions and constitutes the foundation of most public organisations , which influence the way policy problems are perceived, as well as how they are governed. An expression of the objectivist influence on the policy practice is the spread of, and reliance on, what is often referred to as evidence-based solutions, a logic that embodies the objectivist epistemological assumptions (Webb 2001). Another expression of the objectivistic influence is the dominance of management by objectives within public organisations, which builds on a separation between value- based politics and value-neutral expertise. By analysing the process through which the policy actors strive to make sense of the policy problem, factors and mechanisms that enable and constrain the understanding of the problem are identified.

3.2   Public Policy Implementation

Public policy making and implementation is a very critical area that both government and non-governmental organisations are at divergent opinions in the process of making and implementing such programmes and activities. We have noticed that in Nigeria, the process of policy formulation and implementation is essentially the work of government and its agencies. Whereas in principles the civil society organisations may have roles to play but in practice they are far away from the domain of policy processes. (Dahida & Maidoki, 2013).

But because this section is entirely devoted to the dynamics of policy implementation, we say that in Nigeria, there is a missing-link between the government and the public and also the government and its agencies when it come to policy formulation and implementation and that explain why policies grossly fail in Nigeria. Our conclusion was drawn on the premise that, Nigeria's problem is not policy formulation but that of accurate implementation, because Nigeria has one of the best public policies in the world but the implementation has always been the problem. Imaging the current situation of the North East Nigeria devastated by the rampages of Boko Haram and a senior public office holder is alleged to have been found in an embezzlement scandal of the resources to the Internally Displaced Persons camps.

According to Taiwo makinde (2005), it has been observed that policy implementation is one of the major problems confronting developing nations. For emphasis sake, policy implementation as a stage of policy making between the establishment of a policy (such as the passage of a legislative act, the issuing of an executive order, or the promulgation of a regulatory rule) and the consequences of the policy

for the people whom it affects. It also involves a wide variety of actions such as issuing and enforcing directives, disbursing funds, making loans, assigning and hiring personnel, etc (Edward, 1980).

Implementation problem occurs when the desired result on the target beneficiaries is not achieved. Such problem is not restricted to only the developing nations. Wherever and whenever the basic critical factors that are very crucial to implementing public policy are missing, whether in developing or developed nations, there is bound to be implementation problem. These critical factors are communication, resources, dispositions or attitudes, and bureaucratic structure (Edwards, 1980).

The four factors operate simultaneously and they interact with each other to aid or hinder policy implementation. Where implementation orders are clear, consistent and accurately transmitted, the absence of adequate resources will result in implementation problems. Resources include both the human and material such as adequate number of staff who are well equipped to carry out the implementation, relevant and adequate information on implementation process, and the authority to ensure that policies are carried out as they are intended, and facilities such as land, equipment, buildings, etc. as may be deemed necessary for the successful implementation of the policy. Without sufficient resources it means that laws will not be enforced, services will not be provided and reasonable regulations will not be developed.

In addition to communication and resources, disposition or attitude is another key factor that affects policy implementation. Most implementers can exercise considerable discretion in the implementation of policies because of either their independence from their nominal superiors who formulate the policies or as a result of the complexity of the policy itself. The way the implementers exercise their discretion depends, to a large extent, on their disposition toward the policy. Therefore the level of success will depend on how the implementers see the policies as affecting their Organisational and personal interests. Where a policy will result in reduction of pay, low self-esteem, or loss of position to the implementers, the attitude/ disposition will be affected adversely. On the other hand, if a policy will enhance the status, the pay or the self-esteem of the implementers, such implementer will be favourably disposed to it (Makinde, 2005).

Stripped of all technicalities, implementation problem in most developing nations is the problem of a widening gap between intentions and results. Honadle (1979) tried to identify the problem associated with policy implementation as that of social carpenters and masons who fail to build to specifications and thus distort the beautiful blue print. Here he was equating policy with a building plan. Quoting him he said:

"Implementation is the nemesis of designers, it conjures up images of plans gone awry and of social carpenters and masons who fail to build to specifications and thereby distort the beautiful blue prints for progress which were handed to them. It provokes memories of "good" ideas that did not work and places the blame on the second (and second-class) member of the policy and administration team..." (p.6) The above quotation shows the importance that is attached to policy implementation and those that are responsible for implementing these policies. It also shows that no matter how beautiful the blueprint of a programme is, a defective implementation of it will make nonsense of the whole programme.

Unfortunately, the situation as described by Honadle above is what goes on in most developing countries, Nigeria inclusive. As stated by Egonmwan (1971) implementation in these countries often turns out to be the graveyard of policy where the intentions of the designer of policies are often undermined by a constellation of powerful forces of politics and administration in cooperation with people. Little attention is paid to the subject of policy implementation by policy decision makers while it is often taken for granted that once a policy is adopted by government it must be implemented and the desired goals achieved. The above lapse has often resulted in poor policy implementation, which, in effect, gives rise to implementation gap. There is policy failure when there is a sizeable gap between a policy decision and its implementation. Such a gap is characterised, for example, by the rich getting richer and the poor getting poorer in spite of stated policy goal to the contrary. Implementation gap thus manifests in the "widening of the distance between stated policy goals and the realisation of such planned goals" (Egonmwan,
1991).

3.3   Public Policy Evaluation

Evaluation is an ongoing or continuous process. It involves a study or review of how effective the new policy has been in resolving the original problem. In other words, evaluation is conducted for checking the effects of the policy (i.e. whether or not it has achieved the pre-determined objectives) and for assessing the impact of the policy in terms of efficiency, effectiveness, validity and its continued relevance. Based on the feedback or identified weaknesses, corrective action is taken.

Policies are formally and informally evaluated by government agencies, by outside consultants, by interest groups, by the mass media, and by the public.

Policy processes ideally involve different stages: agenda setting; formulation; implementation; and evaluation. Although this stages or phases approach to policymaking has been criticised for being too simplistic, insufficiently explicating that some phases may occur together, and not saying much about why policy turns out as it does, it does provide a way to discuss many of the ways policy is constructed, carried out, evaluated, and made again. All these activities include both attempts at rational problem solving and political conflict. Even the federal government has a department of monitoring and evaluation whose key functions are:

Develop and maintain a framework to support the monitoring, evaluation and reporting of government performance at the national and sub-national levels, in line with the national development goals and objectives;

Monitor and evaluate government performance at sectoral level (to measure performance of government policies in each sector of the economy), institutional level (to measure performance of government institutions) and program level (to evaluate the effectiveness and impact of public programs);

Develop and publish the Nigeria Country Report as the primary medium for the dissemination of performance information;

Develop evaluation capacities across government at the federal and state levels to ensure that the quality, results, and impact of programs and expenditure can be measured at reasonable cost;

Collaborate with Ministries, Departments and Agencies to develop results- focused, key performance indicators and clearly defined performance targets upon which progress will be measured;

Develop the data management system for the National M&E system, including data collection tools, identification of data sources, frequency of data collection and data transmission plan;

However, the maladies that kept the other stages especially the implementation stage down is still the issues with evaluation. In his exhaustively study, Mohammad Ahmad Wali (2010) analyses the social, cultural and economic obstacles Nigeria faces in its quest to modernise and improve the standard of living. Explains why, in spite of the country's relative wealth of human and natural resources, the great majority of Nigerians still struggle with crushing poverty; why there is very limited access to basics such as health care, education, clean water and safe housing. Wali shows how political instability, corruption and

prejudice, among other factors, conspire to prevent policy implementation of what, on paper, can seem to be perfect solutions.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Public policy is a dynamic process that is characterised by a course or pattern of activities carried out with the aim of achieving predetermined objectives. Public policy thus consists of all the constellations of activities carried out by governmental agencies, or their representatives, with the sole purpose of achieving stated objectives.

The process of policy formulation and implementation varies from one country to the other. In Nigeria for instance, adequate attention is given only to government and their agencies for the formulation and implementation of public policy. The non- governmental organisations, professional bodies, organised private sector and the civil society groups are completely ignored in this process. Over the years, we have seen so many beautiful policies formulated by the successive governments covering agriculture, health, education, poverty reduction, unemployment and social security among others.

However, it seems such beautiful and well articulated policies are not fully implemented. One can therefore conclude that the problem in Nigeria is not policy formulation but that of implementation. And this is caused by conflicting interest by the elite-class whom they differ sharply in ideological setting, self serving interest and manipulation of the instrument of policy making to their advantage, thus, creating a gap in the structure of public policy formulation and implementation in Nigeria.

5.0   SUMMARY

Public policy is a dynamic process that is characterised by a course or pattern of activities carried out with the aim of achieving predetermined objectives. Public policy thus consists of all the constellations of activities carried out by governmental agencies, or their representatives, with the sole purpose of achieving stated objectives.

The process of policy formulation and implementation varies from one country to the other. In Nigeria for instance, adequate attention is given only to government and their agencies for the formulation and implementation of public policy. The non- governmental organisations , professional bodies, organised private sector and the civil society groups are completely ignored in this process. Over the years, we have seen so many beautiful policies formulated by the successive governments covering agriculture, health, education, poverty reduction,

unemployment and social security among others. However, it seems such beautiful and well articulated policies are not fully implemented. One can therefore conclude that the problem in Nigeria is not policy formulation but that of implementation. And this is caused by conflicting interest by the elite-class whom they differ sharply in ideological setting, self serving interest and manipulation of the instrument of policy making to their advantage.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What makes public policy Nigeria dynamic?

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UNIT 4   THEORIES OF PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
         3.1   System theory
         3.2   Group theory
         3.3   Elite Theory
         3.4   Institutional theory
         3.5   Process Theory
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The theories of policy-making can be explained as the source of policy flow towards who wields policy-making powers in a society. Theories guide the policy analysis. It explains the phenomena and in so doing, it must be logical, sensible and empirically observable. A model, on the other hand, in policy analysis is made up of variables that are relevant to the problem of concern and the relations among the variables (Nachimias, 1979:91). In policy analysis, conceptual models are used. In this unit, we shall examine selected theories and models used in studying policy analysis.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   describe system model to the study of policy analysis
•   identify group theory as to the study of policy analysis
•   explain elite model to the study of policy analysis
•   state institutional model to the study of policy analysis.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Political Systems Theory

Public policy may be viewed as the response of a political system to demands arising from its environment. The political system, as defined by Easton, (1965) is composed of those identifiable and interrelated institutions and activities in a society that make authoritative decisions

(or allocations of values) that are binding on society. In puts into the political system from the environment consist of demands and supports. The environment consists of all those conditions and events external to the boundaries of the political system. Demands are the claims made by individuals and groups on the political system for action to satisfy their interests. Support is rendered when groups and individuals abide by election results, pay taxes, obey law, and otherwise accept the decisions and actions of the authoritative political system made in response to demands.

These authoritative allocations of values constitute public policy. The concept of feedback indicates that public policies (or outputs) may subsequently alter the environment and the demands generated therein, as well as the character of the political system itself. Policy outputs may produce new demands, which lead to further policy outputs, and so on in a continuing, and never ending flow of public policy. Political system theory is useful in understanding the policy-making process and its value to policy analysis lies in the questions that it asks:

What are the important dimensions of the environment that generate demands upon the political system?

What are significant characteristics of the political system that enable it to transform demands into public policy and to preserve itself over time?

How do environmental inputs affect the character of the political system?

How do the characteristics of the political system affect the content of public policy?

How do environmental inputs affect the content of public policy?

Finally, how does public policy affect, through feedback, the environment and the character of the political system?

The usefulness of systems theory for the study of public policy analysis is limited by its highly general nature. It does not say much concerning how decisions are made and policy is developed within the "black box" called that political system.

Nonetheless, systems theory is a useful aid in organising inquiry into policy formation. However, the usefulness of the system model is limited due to several factors. First, this model is criticised for employing the value-laden techniques of welfare economics, which are based on the maximisation of a clearly defined "social welfare

function". The missing ingredients in the systems approach are the "power, personnel and institutions" of policy making.

In examining these, there is need to note that decision-makers are strongly constrained by economic factors in the environment of the political system. Secondly, the model also ignores an important element of the policy process, namely, that the policy makers (including institutions) have also a considerable potential in influencing the environment within which they operate. The traditional input-output model would see the decision-making system as "facilitative" and value-free rather than "causative" that is as a completely neutral structure. In other words, structure variations in the systems are found to have no direct casual effect on public policy.

Finally, the extent to which the environment, both internal and external is said to have an influence on the policy-making process is determined by the values and ideologies held by the decision-makers in the system. It suggests that policy-making involves not only the policy content but also the policy-makers perceptions and values. The values held by the policy-makers are fundamentally assumed to be crucial in understanding the policy alternatives that are made (Basu, 2004:443).

3.2   Group Theory

According to the group theory of politics, public policy is the product of the group struggle. As one writer states: "what may be called public policy is the equilibrium research in this (group) struggle at any given moment, and it represents a balance which the contending factors or groups constantly strive to weight in their favour". Group theory rests on the contention that interaction and struggle among groups in the central fact of political life. A group is a collection of individuals that may, on the basis of shared attitudes or interests, make claims upon other groups in society. It becomes a political interest group "when it makes a claim through or upon any of the institutions of government. And of course, many groups do just that. The individual is significant in politics only as he is a participant in, or a representative of groups. It is through groups that individuals seek to secure their political preferences.

Public policy, at any given time, will reflect the interest of dominant groups. As groups gain and lose power and influence, public policy will be altered in favour of the interests of those losing influence. Group theory, while focusing attention on one of the major dynamic elements in policy formation, especially in pluralist societies, such as the United States, seems both to overstate the importance of groups and to understate the independent and creative role that public officials play in the policy process. Indeed, many groups have been generated by public policy.

The American farm bureau federation, which developed around the agricultural extension programme, is a notable example, as is the National welfare rights organisation. Public officials also may acquire a stake in particular programmes and act as an interest group in support of their continuance. Finally, we should note that it is rather misleading and inefficient to try to explain politics or policy formation in terms of group struggle without giving attention to the many other factors for example, ideas and institutions that abound. This sort of reductionist explanation should be avoided.

3.3   Elite Theory

In this approach, public policy can be regarded as the values and preferences of the governing elites. The essential argument of the elite theory is that it is not the people or the "masses" who determine public policy through their demands and action, rather, public policy is decided by ruling elite and effected by public officials and agencies. Dye and Zeigler, (1981) in the "Irony of Democracy" provide a summary of the elite theory:

(i)   Society is divided into the few who have power and the many that do not. Only this small number of privileged persons allocates values for society, the masses do no decide public policy;

(ii)   The few who govern are typical of the masses that are governed. The elites are drawn disproportionately from the upper socio-economic strata of society;

(iii)   Movement of the non-elite to elite positions must be slow and continuous to maintain stability and avoid revolution. Only the non-elite who have accepted the basic elite consensus can be admitted to governing circles;

(iv)   The elites share a consensus on the basic values of the social system and the preservation of the system;

(v)   Public policy does not reflect demands of the masses but rather the prevailing values of the elite. Changes in public policy will be incremental changes permit responses to events that threaten a social system with a minimum of alteration or dislocation of the system;

(vi)   Active members of the elites are subject to relatively little direct influence from apathetic masses. The elites influence the masses more than masses influence the elite. So, the elite theory is a rather provocative theory of policy formation. Policy is the product of the elite, reflecting their values and serving their ends, one of which may be a desire to provide for the welfare of the masses. Thus, elite theory does focus our attention on the role of leadership in policy formation and on the fact that,

in any political system, a few govern the many. However, whether the elite rule, and determine policy, with little influence by the masses is a difficult proposition to handle.

3.4   Institutional Theory

The study of government institutions is one of the oldest of political science. The approach focuses on the formal or structural aspects of an institution and can be adopted in policy analysis. An institution is a set of regularised patterns of human behaviour that persist over time. Some people, unsophisticated, of-course, seem to equate institutions with the physical structures in which they exist. It is their differing sets of behaviour, which we often call rules, structures and the like, that can affect decision-making and the content of public policy. Rules and structural arrangements are usually not neutral in their impact; rather, they tend to favour some interests in society over others, some policy results rather than others. Public policy is formulated, implemented and enforced by government institutions.

Government institutions give legal authority to policies and can legally impose sanctions on violators of its policies. As such, there is a close relationship between public policy and governmental institutions. It is not surprising, then, that political scientists would focus on the study of governmental structures and institutions. Institutionalism, with its focus on the legal and structural aspects can be applied in policy analysis. The structures and institutions and their arrangements and can have a significant impact on public policy. Traditionally, the focus of study was the description of government structures and institutions. The study of linkage between government structures and policy outcomes remained largely unanalysed and neglected.

The value of the institutional approach to policy analysis lies in asking what relationships exist between institutional arrangements and the content of public policy and also in investigating these relationships in a comparative manner. It would not be correct to assume that a particular change in institutional structure would bring about changes in public policy. Without investigating the actual relationship between structure and policy, it is difficult to assess the impact of institutional arrangements on public policies.

4.0   CONCLUSION

We have been able to describe theories and models of public policy analysis. Political systems theory, group theory, elite theory and institutional theory among others, provide useful framework for analysing public policy analysis. The political system is useful in

understanding policy-making process and its value to policy analysis lies on how the environmental inputs affect the character of the political system. The institutional model also helps us to study the linkage between government structures and policy outcomes.

5.0   SUMMARY

In summary, political systems theory, group theory, elite theory and institutional structures, arrangements and procedures can have a significant impact on public policy and should not be ignored in policy analysis. Neither, should an analysis of them without concern for the dynamic aspects of politics, be considered adequate. The systems theory paint a linear process, in which the political system converts into policy the demands, needs and orientations expressed in the environment. The elite and group theories explain policy making, rather from the perspective of who are the key actors and wields the greatest influence or power. The elite and group accept that the political system converts environmental stimuli into policy, but, it is the elites and groups, that dominate the articulation and expression of the content and direction of policy reaction by the political system. Thus, the theories enable for better explanation of the policy process.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Describe the role of institutional theory to the study of public policy analysis

2.   Describe the role of systems theory to the study of public policy analysis

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UNIT 5   THEORIES OF DECISION-MAKING

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Decision-making represents an aspect of policy science, which like its parent discipline is dynamic in nature. This means that decision making approaches differ from individual policy-maker to another, issue to issue and political system to political system. The process of decision-making has attracted a number of theories which inform the various ways in which decisions are made. In this unit, we shall discuss some of these decision-making theories.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   identify Rational Comprehensive Theory
•   explain Game Theory
•   state Expected Utility Theory
•   describe Attribution Theory.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Rational Comprehensive Theory

According to Johnson (2015), Rational Comprehensive Theory is a theoretical model of how public policy decisions are (or perhaps ought to be) taken, in which all possible options or approaches to solving the problem under study are identified and the costs and benefits of each option are assessed and compared with each other. The option that promises to yield the greatest net benefit is selected. The main problem

with rational-comprehensive approaches is that it is often very costly in terms of time and other resources that must be devoted to gathering the relevant information. Often the costs and benefits of the various options are very uncertain and difficult to quantify for rigorous comparison. The costs of undertaking rational-comprehensive decision-making may themselves exceed the benefits to be gained in improved quality of decisions.

Rational comprehensive theory is one of the major streams in planning theory that has since been developed. It is based on a normative model which values higher rationality in the face of multiple Organisational and political pressures. (Grant,1985)

It can therefore be concluded that rational comprehensive theory has two main characteristics. The first is the aspect of rationality, having specific cognitive skills which can be mastered, coupled with administrative expertise and appropriate aesthetic understanding for the planner to study options and present worked solutions to decision makers for choice.(Dror1968 in Grant,1985).The second characteristic of the rational approach is comprehensiveness ,the desire to analyse all rational alternatives available.

Accordingto Marios (1979). comprehensiveness implies the following; an attempt to satisfy all goals of various interest groups present in a pluralistic – democratic society that is to attain the general goals of the public interest (planning solutions that are of common benefit), and having a comprehensive view of a future desired state of affair , that is a view of a total utopian system for the future. It also refers to the idea of giving equal importance to all elements of the area of concern and the examination of these elements. Proponents of rational comprehensive planning thought that the more comprehensive the analyses of the problem were the better the plan would be.

However, these assumptions are difficult to attain in real world. There are many barriers associated with rationality. In rational comprehensive theory, all information required for alternative decisions are not available. All alternatives cannot be possibly obtained and consequences predicted. Beside, most societal values do not reach the decision agenda because of powerful elites and interest

3.2   Game Theory

According to Margaret Rouse (2016), Game theory is the study of mathematical models of negotiation, conflict and cooperation between individuals, organisations and governments. It is a set of concepts aimed at decision making in situations of competition and

conflict (as well as of cooperation and interdependence) under specified rules. Game theory employs games of strategy (such as chess) but not of chance (such as rolling a dice). A strategic game represents a situation where two or more participants are faced with choices of action, by which each may gain or lose, depending on what others choose to do or not to do. The final outcome of a game, therefore, is determined jointly by the strategies chosen by all participants. These are also situations of uncertainty because no participant knows for sure what the other participants are going to decide.

The study has direct applications in contract theory, economics, sociology and psychology. Game theory is applied in various areas of study to understand why an individual makes a particular decision and how the decisions made by one individual affect others. The application of game theory concepts and techniques to non-game activities is known as gamification.

Game theory research involves studies of the interactions among people or groups of people. Because people make use of an ever-increasing number and variety of technologies to achieve desired ends, game theory can be directly applied in areas of negotiation, such as contract theory and indirectly applied in practical pursuits such as engineering, information technology and computer science.

So-called games can range from simple personal or small group encounters or problems to major confrontations between corporations or superpowers. One of the principal aims of game theory is to determine the optimum strategy for dealing with a given situation or confrontation. This can involve such goals as maximising one's gains, maximising the probability that a specific goal can be reached, minimising one's risks or losses, or inflicting the greatest possible damage on adversaries.

Game theory was first devised by John Von Neumann. Later contributions were made by John Nash, A. W. Tucker, and others.

3.3   Expected Utility Theory

Decision making comes with high level of uncertainly which has resulted to a wide range of studies to at least cut down on these uncertainties. This search led to the introduction of several models and theories of decision making such as rational comprehensive and game Theory. However, their flaws have led to the coining of "Expected Utility Theory. Thus, Expected utility theory is an account of how to choose rationally when you are not sure which outcome will result from your acts. Its basic slogan is: choose the act with the highest expected utility. The expected utility of an act is a weighted average of the

utilities of each of its possible outcomes, where the utility of an outcome measures the extent to which that outcome is preferred, or preferable, to the alternatives. The utility of each outcome is weighted according to the probability that the act will lead to that outcome.

The expected utility theory deals with the analysis of situations where individuals must make a decision without knowing which outcomes may result from that decision, this is, decision making under uncertainty. These individuals will choose the act that will result in the highest expected utility, being this the sum of the products of probability and utility over all possible outcomes. The decision made will also depend on the agent's risk aversion and the utility of other agents. The term expected utility was first introduced by Daniel Bernoulli who used it to solve the St. Petersburg paradox, as the expected value was not sufficient for its resolution.

3.4   Attribution Theory

Some issues   in Public policy decision making in Nigeria like the Nigerian democracy and public policy making, the political parties and public policy making and the interest groups and public policy making as espoused by Okeke (2001) have raised questions why our elite and leaders cum official and institutional public policy makers behave the way they do. i.e., why the National assembly and the presidency will agree within a matter of days on how to be given life gratuity and pensions, whereas issues of making new or maintaining the existing federal roads have been an issue for more than decades without a sustained result. Why poverty and hunger have persisted while globally the country is ranked as wealth. Why the 70 person of Nigerians who dwell in the rural areas depending on the farming for livelihood cannot get fertilizer at a subsidised rate.

This state of deprivation and marginalisation has led to group coalition to pressure or aggregate their interest in order to influences public policy to be tilted if need be, to their favour. This process of coalition forming has been largely attributed to the attribution theory of decision of making which attempts to explain the world and to determine the cause of an event or behaviour (e.g. why people do what they
do).

Fundamentally, attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behaviour. Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, but Weiner and colleagues (e.g., Jones et al, 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology. Attribution theory assumes that

people try to determine why people do what they do, i.e., attribute causes to behaviour. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behaviour. A three-stage process underlies an attribution: (1) the person must perceive or observe the behaviour, (2) then the person must believe that the behaviour was intentionally performed, and (3) then the person must determine if they believe the other person was forced to perform the behaviour (in which case the cause is attributed to the situation) or not (in which case the cause is attributed to the other person).

The process by which group members form alliances or coalitions as mentioned earlier has been studied by game theorists (von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944),social psychologists (Caplow, 1956), and political scientists (Riker, 1962).

In addition, as organisational theorists began to view work organisations as political entities (Cyert & March, 1963), they also became more interested in coalition formation. It became clear that organisational goals and policies changed as coalitions formed, were able to dominate organisations, and were eventually replaced by other coalitions. In fact, some researchers (Gamson, 1961) have suggested that coalitions are formed with exactly these purposes in mind: influencing goals, policies, and the allocation of resources in the organisation. As such, it is not surprising that Duncan (1976) argues for the importance of coalitions as a topic for organisational research.

Such research, however, is still at an infantile stage, with researchers concentrating on such variables as cohesion among coalition members (Meltz, 1967) and the political ideology of coalitions (Lipset & Rokkan, 1967) rather than on how coalitions are formed. The more basic questions would seem to be concerned with how people come to be included in coalitions, especially if attention is focused on the strongest, or dominant, coalition in the organisation. It therefore seems reasonable to study the way that the people involved in coalition formation believe their coalitions were formed; that is, how they explain why some people became members of a dominant coalition and others did not. Some insight into this issue of dominant coalition memberships may be provided by attribution theory, which Kelley has defined as the "process by which an individual interprets events as being caused by a particular part of an environment" (1967, p. 193). Attribution research, then, is concerned with the "why" of events, and it can be useful in exploring how managers explain membership (or non-membership) in dominant coalitions. In addition to offering possible causes of events and describing how people come to choose one explanation or another, attribution theory suggests consequences of attributing an event to the different causes. For example, Weiner and his associates (Weiner,

Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1971) suggest four basic causal explanations for success or failure in any endeavour: ability or skill, effort, the nature of the task, and luck. Others (Fitch, 1970; Weiner & Kukla, 1970) have reported a tendency to attribute success to two of these causes—the internal causes of ability and effort. They further report a tendency to attribute failure to external causes—i.e., forces beyond the respondent's control, such as the nature of the task and luck. This coalition formulation is vital in understanding who gets what, how and when; the core issue in policy decision making of every society.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to discuss various theories of decision-making. All the theories help to describe and prescribe decision-making. The major theory is rational comprehensive theory decision-making. All others are reactive to it. They tend to reflect and describe decision making in the real world situations than the rational theory. However, it makes a decision-maker want to act rationally in decision- making or get net benefit of policies.

5.0   SUMMARY

Rational-comprehensive decision-making theory has been seen as a theoretical model of how public policy decisions are (or perhaps ought to be) taken. It emphasized that all possible options or approaches to solving the problem under study are identified and the costs and benefits of each option are assessed and compared with each other. Game theory is "the study of mathematical models of conflict and cooperation between intelligent rational decision-makers". Expected utility theory is an account of how to choose rationally when you are not sure which outcome will result from your acts. Its basic slogan is: choose the act with the highest expected utility. And Attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment" these are explanations on how to look at decision making press and policies made.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe the rational-comprehensive theory of decision making

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MODULE 3   PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

UNIT 1   PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Today, data, evaluation, and analysis are omnipresent in public and nonprofit organisations as managers and analysts work to craft cost-effective interventions, funders demand high   quality evidence of efficacy,   and   the   public   requires transparency in outcomes. In response to the transparency incomes, public policy analysis becomes imminent. The opening paragraph confirms and conforms that Public policy   analysis   is   indeed,   a   multi-disciplinary   and   systematic investigation aimed at gathering and analysing information about the likely consequences of public policies both before and after they occur, which is why it involves collection and interpretation of information in order to predict the consequences of alternative course of action. To achieve that lofty objective, it applies social science research techniques to formulate, execute and evaluate public policy in order make effective decision.

Because Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for policy making and helps to facilitate sound decision making and contributes to better policy implementation   and   performance,   this chapter talks the students to through the meaning of public policy

analysis, the basic elements of good public policy analysis, the importance of public policy analysis, the steps for successful public policy analysis and lastly the stages of public policy analysis; a full package that needed to be relished.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- State public policy analysis
- explain basic elements of good public policy analysis
- enumerate the importance of public policy analysis
- list the steps for successful public policy analysis
- give the stages of public policy analysis.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Conceptualisation of Public Policy Analysis

While Public policy refers to the rules, regulations, and guidelines formulated by governments for the purpose of solving problems that have an impact on the society and the general public, Public policy analysis involves evaluating issues of public importance with the objective of providing facts and statistics about the extent and impact of the various policies of the government.

Public Policy analysis, therefore, has been variously defined by scholars. Quade (1975) says it is "any type of analysis that generates and presents information in such a way as to improve the basis for policy-makers to exercise their judgment". On his part Chandler and Plano, (1988:96) posit that policy analysis involves "systematic and data-based alternative to intuitive judgments about the effects of policy or policy options". Ikelegbe (1994:5), defines it as the study of the causes, processes, formation, implementation and consequences of public policy. According to - Carl V. Patton, "The process through which we identify and evaluate alternative policies or programmes that are intended to lessen or resolve social, economic, or physical problems.".

The basic objective of public policy analysis is to assess the degree to which the policies are meeting their goals. Public policy analysis deals with the application of social science theories and methods to analyse matters of public importance.

Public policy analysis is a large, sprawling intellectual enterprise involving numerous   academic   disciplines,   private   research

organisations, and governmental agencies each sharing a common concern with the formulation, implementation, or consequences of public policy decisions. As currently practiced, policy analysis involves contributions from the entire gamut of scientific disciplines. Much present- day public policy analysis is undertaken by scholars from the various applied physical and biological sciences (for example, environmental impact studies, technology assessments, seismic risk analyses, and the like). The focus here, however, is on public policy analysis as it is conducted within the social and behavioural sciences, principally economics, political science, and sociology.

3.2   Elements of Good Policy Analysis

There are five basic elements of good public policy analysis. They are:

(I)   Validity

Validity, in general, refers to being accurate. In the context of policy analysis, validity refers to the internal consistency of logically drawing a conclusion that follows from the goals, policies, and relations, the external consistency with empirical reality in describing the relations between the alternative policies and the goals; the policies being considered encompass the total set of feasible alternatives (feasibility in this context refers to being capable of being adopted and implemented by the relevant policy makers and policy appliers); and the listed goals include all the major goals and only the goals of the relevant policy makers in this context.

(ii)   Importance

The concept of importance can be defined in two ways. First, does the research deal with issues on which there are big societal benefits and/or big societal costs being analysed? Second, does the research deal with a subject matter or a set of causal hypotheses that potentially have broad explanatory power? This is theoretical importance, as contrasted to policy importance.

(iii)   Usefulness

Usefulness as its lowest level involves doing policy research that is not referred to by the people who make policy in the subject-matter area. At the next level is research referred to by policy makers orally or in a citation, even if the research cited is not on the winning side. At a higher level is research that reinforces pre-conceived decisions. Policy researchers should be pleased if their

research accelerates a worthwhile decision that otherwise might be delayed. At the highest level is the rare case of policy research that converts decision makers from being negative to being sensitive, or vice versa, on an issue.

(iv)   Originality

Originality refers to the extent to which policy research differs from previous research, although even highly original research builds and synthesises prior research.

(v)   Feasibility

Feasibility is an additional criterion for judging proposed policy research, as contrasted to completed policy research. Feasibility is concerned with how easily research can be implemented given the limited time, expertise, interest, funds, and other resources of the researcher (Nagel, 1984).

3.3   The Importance of Public Policy Analysis

Because Public policy analysis seeks to answer the question of what the probable effects of a policy will be before they actually occur, it means that Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for public policy making, the content, the knowledge about the outcomes and impact of public policy and ways and means of improving public policy performances.

This position has been corroborated by Ikelegbe (2006) when he asserts:

Public policy analysis derives its importance and relevance in its contribution to the determination, study and assessment of public problems, public making, policy performance, impact evaluation, policy prescription and advocacy, and policy forecast, prediction and anticipation.

Therefore, the importance of public policy analysis as:

1.   **Problems solving:** because public policy analysis provides a systematic study of public problems, the scientific approach to problem solving which characterises public policy enhances the achievement of more rational, efficient policies.

2.   **Informed Opinion of Policy Preferences**. Public policy analysis constitutes an informed opinion on policy preferences and strategies. It involves policy advocacy which helps to influence future policies.

3. **Policy Performance**. Policy analysis contributes to better policy implementation and performance because of its importance in determining the consequences of Public Policy programmes.

4. **Policy Outcome Prediction.** Public Policy Analysis scientifically studies the impact of public policy through some techniques. Through its evaluation strategies, it helps to determine whether policies are implemented according to guidelines and whether policies are achieving their intentions or purposes.

5. **Making Impactful Changes Possible:** Because forecasting, prediction and anticipation fall within the purview of policy analysis, these properties are employed in bringing about impactful changes by resolving problems and improving situation.

3.4 Steps for a Successful Policy Analysis

Based on the ideas and approach followed by Carl V. Patton there exists a very simple pattern of ideas and points to be considered in doing an actual policy analysis. The six steps are as follows:

1. **Verify, Define, and Detail the Problem:** This is the most relevant and important of the steps because many times the objectives are not clear or even contradictory from each other. A successful policy analysis will have allocated and identified clearly the problem to be resolved in the following steps. This is the foundation for an efficient and effective outcome of the whole process. The analyst must question both the interested parties involved as well as their agendas of the outcome, and must locate the problem in such a way that eliminates any ambiguity for future references.

2. **Establish Evaluation Criteria**: In order to compare, measure and select among alternatives, relevant evaluation criteria must be established. Cost, net benefit, effectiveness, efficiency, equity, administrative ease, legality, and political acceptability must be considered. Economic benefits must be considered in evaluating the policy. How the policy will harm or benefit a particular group or groups will depend on the number of option viable Options more difficult than others must be considered but ultimately decided through analysing the parties involved with policy. Political and other variables go hand in hand with the evaluation criteria to be followed. Most of the time the client, or person or group, interested in the policy analysis will dictate the direction or evaluation criteria to follow.

3. **Identify Alternative Policies:** In order to reach this third step the other two must have been successfully reached and completed. As it can be seen, the policy analysis involves an incrementalist approach; reaching one step in order to go on to the next. In this third step understanding what is sought is very important. In order to generate alternatives, it becomes important to have a clear understanding of the problem and how to go about it. Possible alternatives include the "do nothing approach" (status quo), and any other that can benefit the outcome. Combining alternatives generates better solutions not thought of before. Relying on past experiences from other groups or policy analysis helps to create a more thorough analysis and understanding. It is important to avoid settling prematurely on a certain number of options in this step; many options must be considered before settling into a reduced number of alternatives. Brainstorming, research, experiments, writing scenarios, or concept mapping greatly help in finding new alternatives that will help reach an "optimal" solution.

4. **Evaluate Alternative Policies:** Packaging of alternatives into strategies is the next step in accomplishing a thorough policy analysis. It becomes necessary to evaluate how each possible alternative benefits the criteria previously established. Additional data needs to be collected in analysing the different levels of influence: the economical, political and social dimensions of the problem. These dimensions are analysed through quantitative and qualitative analysis that is the benefits and costs per alternative. Political questions in attaining the goals are analysed as to see whether they satisfy the interested parties of the policy analysis. In doing this more concise analysis the problem may not exist as originally identified; the actual problem statement from the first step may suffer a transformation, which is explained after evaluating the alternatives in greater detail. New aspects of the problem may be found to be transient and even different from the original problem statement. This modification process allows this method of policy analysis to allow for a "recycling" of information in all the steps. Several fast interactions through the policy analysis may well be more efficient and effective than a single detailed one. What this means is that the efficiency is greatly increased when several projects are analysed and evaluated rather than just one in great detail, allowing for a wider scope of possible solutions. Patton further suggests avoiding the tool box approach: attacking options with a favourite analysis method; it is important to have a heterogeneous approach in analysing the different possible alternatives. It becomes inefficient to view each alternative under a single perspective; it

is clearly relevant the need to evaluate each alternative following diverse evaluating approach singled out according to the uniqueness of each of them.

5.   **Display and Distinguish among Alternative Policies.** The results of the evaluation of possible alternatives list the degree to which criteria are met in each of them. Numerical results don't speak for themselves but are of great help in reaching a satisfying solution in the decision. Comparison schemes used to summarise virtues are of great help in distinguishing among several options; scenarios with quantitative methods, qualitative analysis, and complex political considerations can be melded into general alternatives containing many more from the original ones. In making the comparison and distinction of each alternative it is necessary to play out the economic, political, legal, and administrative ramification of each option. Political analysis is a major factor of decision of distinction among the choices; display the positive effects and negative effects interested in implementing the policy. This political approach will ultimately analyse how the number of participants will improve or diminish the implementation. It will also criticise on how the internal cooperation of the interested units or parties will play an important role in the outcome of the policy analysis. Mixing two or more alternatives is a very common and practiced approach in attaining a very reasonably justified policy analysis.

6.   **Monitoring the Implemented Policy.** Continuity must be Assured while determine whether they are having impact. "Even after a policy has been implemented, there may be some doubt whether the problem was resolved appropriately and even whether the selected policy is being implemented properly. This concern requires that policies and programs be maintained and monitored during implementation to assure that they do not change for unintentionally, to measure the impact that they are having, to determine whether they are having the impact intended, and to decide whether they should be continued, modified or terminated."

3.5   Stages of Public Policy Analysis

i.   Evaluation Research

The ultimate analytic question to be asked about any public policy is whether it produced (or will produce) its intended effects (or any effects, whether intended or not). The search for bottom-line effects- impact assessment—is one of two major

activities subsumed under the rubric of evaluation research. The other is so-called process evaluation, discussed below under "Implementation Analysis."

There are many formidable barriers to be overcome in deciding whether a policy or programme has produced its intended (or any) effects. First, the notion of "intended effects" presupposes clearly defined and articulated program goals, but many policies are enacted without a clear statement of the goals to be achieved. Thus, many texts in evaluation research recommend an assessment of the "evaluability" of the program prior to initiating the evaluation itself. A second barrier is the often- pronounced difference between the programme-as-designed and the programme-as-delivered. This is the issue of programme implementation, discussed below.

A final problem in doing evaluation research is that most policies or programmes are relatively small interventions intended to address rather large, complex social issues. The poverty rate, to illustrate, is a complex function of the rate of employment, trends in the world economy, prevailing wage rates, the provisions of the social welfare system, and a host of additional macro structural factors. Any given antipoverty program, in contrast, will be a relatively small-scale intervention focused on one or a few components of the larger problem, often restricted to one or a few segments of the population. Often, the overall effects of the various large-scale, macro structural factors will completely swamp the programme effects—not because the program effects were not present or meritorious but because they are very small relative to exogenous effects.

ii.   **Outcome Analysis**

Assuming that a programme has been adequately evaluated and an effect documented, one can then analyse that effect (or outcome) to determine whether it was worth the money and effort necessary to produce it. Outcome analysis thus examines the cost effectiveness or cost beneficiality of a given policy, programme, or intervention.

Cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analysis are intrinsically complex, technically demanding subjects. One complication lies in assessing the opportunity costs. A dollar spent in one way is a dollar no longer available to use in some other way. Investing the dollar in any particular intervention thus means that one has lost the "opportunity" to invest that dollar in something that may have been far more beneficial.

iii.   Implementation Analysis

Much is the slippage between the spoon and the mouth." A programme as it is delivered in the field is rarely identical to the programme as designed in the policy making process; sometimes, there is only a superficial resemblance. Since slippage between design and implementation might provide one explanation for the failure to achieve significant program effects, implementation analysis is an essential component of all capable policy evaluations.

There are many reasons why programmes-as-delivered differ from programmes-as- designed: technical impossibility, bureaucratic inertia, unanticipated conditions, exogenous influences. An elegantly designed policy experiment can fail at the point of randomisation if programme personnel let their own sentiments about "worthy" and "unworthy" clients override the randomising process. Many educational policy initiatives are subverted because teachers persist in their same old ways despite the programme admonition to do things differently. Welfare reform will mean little if caseworkers continue to apply the same standards and procedures as in the past. More generally, the real world finds ways to impinge in unexpected and often unwanted ways on any policy initiative; failure to anticipate these impingements has caused many a policy experiment to fail.

iv.   Utilisation

A consistent frustration expressed throughout the literature is that policy analysis seems only rarely to have any impact on actual policy. Utilisation is an ongoing problem in the field of evaluation research. A more detailed treatment of the Utilisation problem can be found in Chambers and colleagues (1992, chapter 1), Shadish and colleagues (1991), and Weiss (1988). For examples of ways in which evaluation can impact practice, see articles by Gueron, Lipsey, and Wholey in New Directions for Evaluation (1997).

Many reasons for non-Utilisation have been identified. One of the most important is timeliness. Good research takes time, whereas policy decisions are often made quickly, well before the results of the analysis are in. The negative income tax experiments mentioned earlier were stimulated in substantial part by a Nixon administration proposal for a modified negative income tax to replace the then-current welfare system. The shortest of the experiments ran for three years; several ran for five years; none were completed by the time the Nixon proposal was killed mainly on political grounds.

A second factor in the non-Utilisation of policy studies is that research is seldom unequivocal. Even the best-designed and best-executed policy researches will be accompanied by numerous caveats, conditions, and qualifications that strictly limit the safe policy inferences one may draw from them. Policy makers, of course, prefer simple declarative conclusions; policy research rarely allows one to make such statements.

Finally, even under the most favourable conditions, the scientific results of policy analyses are but one among many inputs into the policy-making process. There are, in addition, normative, economic, political, ethical, pragmatic, and ideological inputs that must be accommodated. In the process of accommodation, the influence of scientific research is often obscured to the point where it can no longer be recognised. It should not be inferred from this that policy analysis is not utilised, only that the research results are but one voice in the cacophony of the policy-making process.

Weiss has written extensively on the Utilisation problem and ways in which evaluation can be used effectively to change policy. She argues that "in its ideal form, evaluation is conducted for a client who has decisions to make and who looks to the evaluation for answers on which to base his decisions" (1972:6). This is often not the case; however, as evaluation results seldom influence important decisions regarding programmes and policies. Weiss's general conclusion regarding Utilisation is that evaluation results affect public policy by serving as the impetus for public discourse and debate that form social policy, rather than through extensive program reform or termination. His argument sums up eh entire stages as a system in process.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Public policy analysis is a multi-disciplinary and systematic investigation aimed at gathering and analysing information about the likely consequences of public policies both before and after they occur. It involves collection and interpretation of information in order to predict the consequences of alternative course of action. It entails the application of social science research techniques to formulate, execute and evaluate public policy in order make effective decision. Public policy analysis is aimed at improving the basis for policy making. It helps to facilitate sound decision making and contributes to better policy implementation and performance. To do know how it operate, w offered useful insight into the basic elements of Public Policy Analysis, its importance and the vital steps of successful Policy analysis as well as the stages of Public Policy analysis.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, via the importance of public policy analysis, we have been able to establish that the basic aim of Public policy analysis is improving the basis for public policy making, the content, the knowledge about the outcomes and impact of public policy and ways and means of improving public policy performances which, which seeks to answer the question of what the probable effects of a policy will be before they actually occur.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the benefits of public policy analysis?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   PLANNING AND PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Organisation need to know how many people and what sort of people they should have to meet present and future business requirements, This is the function of Administrators or workforce planning unit as sometime referred in public sector. In this unit, we shall examine the concept and strategies of planning. In this unit, we shall examine concepts and strategies of planning.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   describe the concept of planning
•   identify the processes and strategies of planning
•   explain the relationships between planning and public policy analysis.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Planning

Planning is preparation for action. It is an inherent part of individual and of co- operative or collective endeavour. Dimock et al. (1983:89) define planning as "the use of rational design as contrasted with change, the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken instead of improving after the action has started". It is the process of devising a basis for a course of future action. Chandler and Plano (1988: 92) explained planning from political point of view, thus:

Conceiving meaningful goals and developing alternative choices for future action to achieve these goals. It involves a systematic procedure for the reduction of many alternatives to an approved course of action. It determines not only goals but the sequential order in which they are pursued, the need for coordination and the standards for maintaining control.

From these definitions, these scholars regard planning as a technique which anticipates policy decisions. Planning in the context of administration begins where general policy stops. It is the means, by which ends can be brought to fruition (White, 1955). In other words, in public sector, government lays down the general policy, the Administrative planning unit gives it practical shape to that policy in the form of development plan for period of years envisioned. For our purpose, planning involves some strategies. It specifies a definite goal and prescribes the method and the mechanism by which concrete results may be achieved.

3.2   Characteristics of Planning

The following are the characteristics of planning Bhagwan and Bhushan, (2006):

(i)   Planning is closely associated with the goals of the organisation. These goals might be implicit or explicit. However, well-defined goals lead to efficient planning;
(ii)   Planning is primarily concerned with looking into the future. It requires forecasting of future situation in which organisation has to function;
(iii)   Planning involves selection of the best alternative to achieve the objectives of the organisation;
(iv)   Planning is comprehensive and includes every course of action in the organisation;
(v)   Planning is an inter-dependent and integrative process. It coordinates the activities of various departments, sections and sub-sections;
(vi)   Planning is flexible as it is concerned with future conditions which are dynamic;
(vii) Planning is a continuous affair. It needs constant review and re-adjustment in the light of achieved targets and future possibilities;
(viii) Planning as a process of formulation and evaluation is primarily a staff function.

3.3   Administrative Planning Machinery and Structure

It is significant to note that the structural aspects of the Organisational set-up for planning machinery changes from the traditional Organisational structure. It may involve re-drawing of hierarchical arrangements, increasing in programme and field units, shifting lines of reporting and communication, developing control mechanisms and improving methods of administration. For example, development planning in Nigeria is characterised by consultation with various federal ministries/agencies responsible for economic planning, National Planning Commission, National Economic Advisory Council, State government Ministries of Economic Planning, organised private sector and enterprises. People are involved in every project and programme implementation.

3.4   Planning Process and Strategies

Planning is conscious and deliberate effort. It is rational and determined approach to the achievement of an object. It involves three major processes: Formulation of plan, execution and evaluation of plans. A brief description of these three steps is as follows (Bhagwan and Bhushan, 2006):

i).   **Formulation of the Plan**

This is the first and most important step of planning process. An ill-conceived plan based on unreliable data and impractical targets may not only mean wastage of precious human and financial resources but may also create popular dissatisfaction. Formulation in this context entails formulation of goals and objectives, which should be clearly and unambiguously determined. This is followed by an assessment of the means or resources available to realise these goals, such as: money, men, material, equipment, ethical standards, political and administrative feasibility. The preparation of a work programme designed to achieve the determined objectives. The various available alternatives should be examined in the light of organisational objectives and planning premises and after objective evaluation of these alternatives the possible alternative should be selected.

ii).   **Execution of Plan**

The execution or implementation of the plan is as important step of the planning process as its formulation. A well conceived plan may be set at naught by poor implementation.

Effective implementation of plan has been the weakest link in the chain of the entire planning process. To ensure effective implementation, the planning body should provide adequate manpower, and financial resources, arrange sufficient officials, build up the character and morale of the plan executors and stimulate public cooperation.

iii).   **Evaluation of Plan**

As planning is a continuous process; it should be flexible enough to incorporate unexpected events and make necessary adjustment in the light of its appraisal. The appraisal of various plan projects particularly of a long duration plan is necessary to ensure its right direction. The uncertainty of the future necessitates continuous evaluation. The problems hindering the effective implementation can be drawn only through constant evaluation of the plan.

3.5   Relationships between Planning and Policy Analysis

Planning and policy analysis have their areas of commonalities. These include:
(a)   Problem identification or situation;
(b)   Collection of all the relevant facts;
(c)   Developing alternatives for future action to achieve these goals;
(d)   Sequential orders for achieving these goals; and
(e)   The need for coordination and control (Olaniyi, 1998).

However, notwithstanding of their areas of commonalities, the importance of planning in policy-making is seen in the fact that, it serves as its precedent and before any meaningful success can be recorded, planning programme should involve social research findings.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to define the concept of planning, the characteristics, planning process and the relationships with policy analysis. Planning in its general sense is thinking for future actions. It entails, establishing goals before setting out, identification of evaluation criteria, alternative proposals, appraising the consequences of each alternative and selecting the best alternative to be used.

5.0   SUMMARY

Planning represents a new interest among policy makers in analysing policy. It helps policy analysts know what to plan for, how to plan it and how to carry out the plan. Planning is thinking before acting,

establishing goals before setting out and appreciating the limitations. Apart from helping to generate ideas, it specifies a definite goal and prescribes the method and the mechanism by which concrete result may be achieved. However, it is the quality of planning that counts, rather than the extent and detail with which it is undertaken.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

(1)   Discuss what you understand as planning.
(2)   Explain the relationship between planning and policy analysis.

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UNIT 3   BUDGET AND PUBLIC POLICY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Though policy at any level is a vital instrument to resolve problems faced by societies, it is however just a mere statement of what government intends to do. Suffice to say therefore that policy itself needs some supportive device to get its goals concretised. One of these vital devices is the budget. This is because budget involves the determination of resources and their uses for the attainment of government policy objectives. Budget serves as an implicit policy statement as it sets relative levels of spending for different programmes and activities contained in the policy thereby making the policies explicit and operational. However, the marriage between policies and budget in Nigeria has been a failed one. Instead of budget facilitating achievement of policy goals, it serves as an element that retards the actualisation of the desired goals. The aftermath has been abandoned and improper implementation of projects within the country.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- identify Budget and Budgetary Process
- state the Relationship between Budget and Public Policy.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Concept of Budget

Different writers have looked at the concept of budget from different dimensions. For Sachdeva and Sogani (1980), budget in modern times means a financial scheme or statement or the document which contains estimates of revenue and expenditure for a year. This means that budget is a statement of the probable revenue and expenditure for the ensuing year, with financial proposal founded thereon. However, budget these days is something more than an estimate of revenue and expenditure. It has developed into an elaborate system of financial management which includes not only a plan of public revenue and expenditure but the whole of material finances which are disclosed in ministerial statement placed before the legislature and the orderly administration of the financial affairs of the government. Bhattacharya (2000) supported the above when he puts it succinctly that a budget is more than estimates of revenues and expenditures, but encompasses reports regarding how government managed affairs in the previous year, the condition of public treasury, programme of work for years to come and how such work should be financed. In this regard, the characteristics of budgets as can be deduced from the above are:

(i)   clear identification of all activities to be carried out within the budget period;
(ii)   Accurate estimate of the resources required to carry out the activities identified;
(iii)   Allocation of funds amongst competing departments and activities along predetermined priorities; and
(iv)   Formulation of appropriate policies to guide and support the implementation of the budget.

Emphatically therefore, budget is a management technique or a formalised approach for preparing and communicating organisation's expectation and accomplishing the planning, coordinating and controlling responsibilities of the management in such a way as to maximise the use of resources available (Fadeyi, 1999). Unlike ordinary budget which, according to Tayler, "Budget is a financial plan of government for a definite period". According to Rene Stourm, "A budget is a document containing a preliminary approved plan of public revenues and expenditure", in this context, we are looking at the budget as it pertains to Public Administration and this is called the Public Budget or Government Budget. A government budget is an annual financial statement presenting the government's proposed revenues and spending for a financial year that is often passed by the legislature, approved by the chief executive or president and presented

by the Finance Minister to the nation. The budget is also known as the Annual Financial Statement of the country. This document estimates the anticipated government revenues and government expenditures for the ensuing (current) financial year.

Furthering the explanation, Authors Robert W. Smith and Thomas D. Lynch describe public budgeting through four perspectives. The politician sees the budget process as "a political event conducted in the political arena for political advantage". The economist views budgeting as a matter of allocating resources in terms of opportunity cost where allocating resources to one consumer takes resources away from another consumer. The role of the economist, therefore, is to provide decision makers with the best possible information. The accountant perspective focuses on the accountability value in budgeting which analyses the amount budgeted to the actual expenditures thereby describing the "wisdom of the original policy". Smith and Lynch's public manager's perspective on a budget is a policy tool to describe the implementation of public policy (Smith, & Lynch, 2004).

The public budgets are different from other forms of budgets in many ways; here the voters delegate the power of spending their money to the politicians or the elected representatives. Now having understood the concept of budget in the last article, let us understand the different kinds of budget that are there in the public financial management:

Balanced Budget: As suggested by the name a balanced budget is that which has no deficit or surplus. The revenues coming are equal to the expenditures.

Revenue Budget: It is just the details of the revenue received by the government through taxes and other sources and the expenditure that is met through it. **Performance Budget:** This type of budget is mostly used by the organisations and ministries involved in the developmental activities. This process of budgeting, takes into account the end result or the performance of the developmental program thus insuring cost effective and efficient planning. With the increasing developmental challenges and awareness regarding the usage of tax payer's money, new methods of budgeting are required of which the performance based budgeting has emerged as a transparent and accountable method.

It relies on three aspects of understanding of the final outcome, the strategies formulated to reach those final outcomes and the specific activities that were carried out to achieve those outcomes. With a very detailed and objective analysis, this budgeting process is very result oriented in its approach.

Zero based budget: Zero based budgeting has its clear advantage when the limited resources are to be allotted carefully and objectively. It is quite flexible in nature and relies on rational methods, systematic evaluation to reallocate resources and justify the usage of funds. It starts from a zero base unlike traditional budgets where incremental approach is used. Here, the needs and costs of every function of the organisation are taken into consideration for the next year's budget. So the budget is futuristic and may or may not be equal or more from the last year's budget as traditionally calculated. The budgets in the parliamentary kind of system similar to what exists in a country like India become a tool of political negotiations where the budgeting powers are delegated to the Finance Minister of the country.

In a single party government, the entire party shares the same views regarding the spending of the resources however; the disagreement arises when individual members may differ on the cost of the distributive policies and would want the government funds to be diverted to their respective electoral constituencies. In a coalition government, the differing opinions are tackled through compromise and contracts approach where the coalition parties keep the check on the budget process ensuring that it lies within the boundaries of the agreed contract. The infamous fallout between the ruling UPA and the Trinamool Congress over the Railway Budget last year is worth citing in reference to the current discussion.

In the presidential kind of system too, the executive plays a somewhat similar process. A significant change that happened in US regarding the budget process was the Budget Enforcement Act passed in 1990s under the Bush administration, which protected the budgetary parameters against later modifications once cleared in the budget summit between the president and the legislature.

3.2   The Budgetary Process

The budgetary process, in theory, culminates the policy objectives that government intends to pursue in a given year. While we might think in such broad terms as pursuing the national interest, providing an adequate defence, producing housing for the poor, etc., the budget is actually much more specific. Attention must be paid to thousands of line items, each representing the precise program and estimates of cost to pursue each policy objective. How does government compile a budget? The overall process sounds simple: Review cost estimates of all government programs, cut those which are unnecessary or unproductive, and raise revenue for those which work. There are three sets of institutional stages in budget formulation:

- ▪   Budget requests are submitted from the operating agencies. These may be padded with wish lists or driven by dire necessity.
- ▪   Budget requests originate with the agencies of the government bureaucracy and go to a centralised Office of Management and Budget (OMB) within the executive branch. OMB is the nerve centre of the process. The appropriations are recommended by OMB to committees in both houses of Congress, which have the final say. In the American system, the legislature authorises funding, a Practice which extends to state government.

We should understand budgets in the policy cycle framework we are familiar with. We recognise that authorising a policy is one thing, getting it funded is quite another. The scrutiny of a program's budget forces a judgment of its worth. When budgets are reauthorised, they may be subject to a renewal of political issues which may have been temporarily resolved during the policy formulation stage. The setting of the annual appropriation for a Programme is not normally as decisive as the policy formulation stage. Legislation is a very different process from budget authorisation.. Yet, the budget is an ongoing process: never ending, interrelated, and complex.

Competition and politics runs through every stage of the policy cycle. Getting attention for an issue on the agenda involves a struggle among many eligible policy matters. Policy formulation includes the assessment of alternative strategies and the building of majorities, so the competition is among different ways of addressing what is perceived as a public problem placed on the agenda. In the political environment of deficit spending and resistance to tax increases, each program must actively compete against all others. New initiatives are rare. Increases in the price tag of a policy become acutely contentious. Many potential issues will never be seriously considered due to paucity of financial mean in the richest country in history.

Typically, the budget cycles occurs in four phases (Smith & Lynch, 2004). The first requires policy planning and resource analysis and includes revenue estimation. The second phase is referred to as policy formulation and includes the negotiation and planning of the budget formation. The third phase is policy execution which follows budget adoption is budget execution—the implementation and revision of budgeted policy. The fourth phase encompasses the entire budget process, but is considered its fourth phase. This phase is auditing and evaluating the entire process and system. See the associated points below:

Revenue Estimation performed in the executive branch by the finance director, clerk's office, budget director, manager, or a team.

Budget Call issued to outline the presentation form, recommend certain goals.

Budget Formulation reflecting on the past, set goals for the future and reconcile the difference.

Budget Hearings can include departments, sections, the executive, and the public to discuss changes in the budget.

Budget Adoption final approval by the legislative body.

Budget Execution amending the budget as the fiscal year progresses.

3.3   The Making of a Budget

How are annual budgets really determined? Does the budgetary process rely on rational comparisons of ach proposed expenditure against all potential alternatives? Are benefits arrayed against costs in a comprehensive methodology? Recall our previous discussion of the limitations of rationality within the policy formulation process. It broke down, giving way to the narrower logic of incrementalism. Well, it is still happening. Budget-making is an incremental process: The best guide to this Year's budget is last year's budget, plus or minus a small percentage. Budget determination is short run and incrementalism runs rampant. Why?

Too many decisions must be made by too many parties in too complicated a process with too little information and with too little time. The answer to this dilemma is to use the convenient shorthand of incremental decision-making. Rationality is again reduced in time and among alternatives. It is not pretty, tidy, or intellectually satisfying. It's another expedient within the policy cycle which cries out for reform.

As a method of decision making, incrementalism is a practicable device for coping with the overwhelmingly complex job of budgeting. This year's budget is simply based on last year's budget, with minor increases or decreases around the edges. So, the current budget decision is the product of previous decisions, which admits that precedent and past commitment in policy formulation is essential in the long term. This is reinforced by the rarity of termination, which we will see later in the course, and the failure of past efforts of reform, usually entailing more centralisation and rationalisation.

Why is incrementalism functional in the budget-making process? Incrementalism averts risk, provides an adequate rationale for decision-making, reinforces an existing equilibrium of political forces (potentially upset by a shift in party in either the executive or the legislative branch), averts intense and destabilising conflict, and is easily understood by all. Long range Policy commitments have been made and must be honoured, more or less. Mandatory programs have been authorised and their budgetary needs met, more or less. Powerful political forces will be unleashed if other methods, more radical such as overhaul or termination, are used.

Bargaining, negotiation, coalition formation coalesce into a rough agreement on the status quo, reflected in the tendency to continue the practice of incrementalism.

There might be a single advantage to a process often criticised as irresponsible and simplistic: Incrementalism allows the possibility that the decision-making process focuses more closely on the few new programs and the targeted major recisions which take much political controversy to enact. Such budget battles are great distractions, and must be fought one at a time, if they are fought at all.

3.4   The Government Budget - Public Policy Link

The marriage between public policy and budgeting cannot be divorced. It follows therefore that a bridge between public policy and budgetary process be made in order to make policy a breathing reality than a statement of wishes. In the advanced countries, citizens and the organised private sectors await annual budget release with nostalgia. This is because, budget outlines current socio-economic policies of the government. In the early days, budget was just a statement of estimated receipts and expenditures. The trend has changed in the modern times as it articulates government policies and programmes in every ramifications of the economy. Through budget, therefore, various interests, desires and needs of the citizens are consolidated into concrete programme of action.

The purpose of budget as an instrument of public policy might therefore be to correct one ailment or the other within the society, such as reducing poverty, unemployment and maladministration of resources. Thus budget has tremendous social and economic implications in any society. Ohanele (2010) substantiated this assertion thus:

A budget is the most important economic policy instrument for government.

It reflects a government's socio and economic policy priorities more than any other document. It translates policies, campaign promises, political commitment and goals into decisions where funds should be spent and how funds should be collected.

It is explicit from the above that a well functioning budget is vital to the formulation and execution of government policies. In the same manner, a weak budget exacerbate socio-economic problem in an economy.

Over the years, budgeting within the Nigerian context has sabotaged public policies in Nigeria. Chegwe (2010) corroborated this when he declared that budgets at the state or federal administration have not been able to achieve up to a mere 45% annual budget implementation in the last twelve years. This ugly experience no doubt according to him has sabotaged policies in key public infrastructural provision such as transport, power, communication among others. The consequence manifests in the increase in cost of doing business in Nigeria. As such foreign investors are scared away and several others relocated to neighbouring countries or are contemplating doing so. Ayogu Eze quoted in Onuba (2010) did not mince words when he asserted with regret about the low performance of budget to realise objectives of public policies. He emphasised that:

the Senate is not satisfied with budget performance and neither is the minister of finance satisfied with the budget performance, because in some places, the performance is as low as 15 percent, in others, 27 percent and also 30 percent in some other places.

In another occasion, Ohanele (2010) attested to the above when he stated that: Every year, Nigerians hear of trillions of Naira budget by all tiers of government. But at the end of the year, our people are always at a loss as to where the monies were invested.

Actually, year-in-year-out, the description of budget by the government is always in laudable terms, but however, usually ends up in decreased standard of living of the Nigerian citizenry. Drawing from the above, Nigerian budgets have consistently failed over the years to achieve intended policy goals of government. Many analysts have blamed the failure on improper formulation and poor execution of budget policies.

3.5   Factors Responsible for Budget Failure in Nigeria and the Way Forward

The general consensus among analysts is that budget failure in to capture the essence of public policies in Nigeria set in at two critical stages in the budget cycle. These are at the level of making and

implementing the budget. Some of the factors responsible for the failure in specific terms are discussed as follows:

Delay in Preparation, Submission and Appropriation. In most cases budget details from the presidency to the legislature are not sent on time to allow time for discussions and negotiations that would eventually result into an approved budget. Ahmed (2011) captured this situation in this form:

Everything that could possibly go wrong with Nigerian budgets has gone wrong. The estimate is submitted late, and the national assembly takes too long a time to pass it.

To a large extent, Ahmed has demonstrated explicitly this scenario as associated with the Nigerian budgetary system. From 1999 to date, budgeting in Nigeria has been characterised with delays in preparation, submission and appropriation. In some cases, budgets were approved at third quarter of the fiscal year. Worse still, supplementary budgets were usually concluded at the end of the financial year. The late passage of 2009 budget is a good example. The Senate passed the 2009 appropriation bill in December 2008; the House of Representatives did not pass same until April 2009 or thereabout (Ojo, 2009). The implication is that only few months were left for effective budget implementation. The resultant effect is improper execution and poor coordination of projects.

Another Factor is the Bureaucratic Process of Securing Funds Release. Funds are not released as at and when due. Ojo (2009) corroborated this. For him, so many hurdles are crossed before approvals can be cash backed. The irregularities in the release of the funds are usually due to the delay in processing payment. However, a good practice to address delays between warrant release and cash-backing has now evolved in the form of collaboration between the budget office and office of the Accountant General of the Federation. Draft warrant is now first reconciled by the two bodies before a final one is issued (Obadan, 2008). This then makes cash backing almost automatic.

Again, short fall in revenue is also a factor. This is perhaps the main reason for the late release of funds. President Yar'Adua cited in Ojo (2009) admitted the poor performance of the 2009 budget. For instance, he attributed the short fall in revenue to global economic crisis, fall in oil revenue and the Niger Delta crisis. Consequently both oil and non-oil revenues were about 17% and 21% respectively. This was far below the budget level of 2009. The implication was that projects attracted insufficient budget allocation, non-attainment of original set targets,

delays in completion of projects to many years after the initial completion dates. The case of three problem projects of Ministry of Works in 2008 budget vividly illustrates the points. The projects are: the construction of Bodo Bonny road with a bridge across the Opobo channel in Rivers State; construction of Itigidi Bridge along Aba Omega Ediba Ugbe road (Cross River State), and construction of Kaduna eastern by-pass (Kaduna State). The first project mentioned above is handled by Gitto Construction Nig. Ltd. The contract sum was N24,045.26 million, and awarded on 14/10/02 with the stipulated date of completion as 03/12/05. The physical progress certified was 26.10% and amount paid to date is N11,253.13 million (Obadan, 2008). The insufficient annual funding thwarted the completion of the three projects as mentioned above.

Further, lack of implementation plan is another factor. The World Bank Director in Nigeria OnnoRhul quoted in Daily Trust of 27 May, 2011 reiterated this factor. He was of the opinion that what is really responsible for budget failure is lack of plan. He said that "government should budget for what it can spend". Due to the improper planning, government commits resources to projects without assessment of the results to be achieved. With proper plan in place, government should be able to prioritise choices in the face of dwindling revenues and thus, resources channelled to the projects that can be completed and make maximum impacts.

Inadequate Monitoring of Budget Performance is Another Factor. Monitoring of budget is a constitutional role of the legislature. In the performance of this function, the National Assembly can visit any MDAs and project sites and conduct assessment of budget implementation. But this function is not given the needed attention in the Nigerian budget cycle. Where it is done at all, the reports are never debated or made public. Ojo (2009) attested to this fact thus:

Inspite of plethora of inquiries into MDAs, the reports of the probes have neither been debated at plenary nor made available to the public. This fuels the speculations that the motive behind such flurry of probes is self-serving and not in national interest.

The consequence of the limited or lack of monitoring is also that projects implementation tends to be delayed or projects are not executed or are abandoned.

Yet another factor is the contractors and the supplies themselves. This in most case affects budgetary implementation. The problem manifest in: late commencement of project activities, supply of second-hand equipment by some contractors, use of substandard materials by some contractors, etc.

Closely related to the above and the most serious is corruption. The delay in budget enactment, low budget allocation, downward review of allocation, problem with contractors/suppliers, delay in the release of funds are all deliberate corrupt tactics to thwart effective performance of budget for personal gains. A statement to this effect was made by Ahmed. It goes thus:

A top government official working with one of the agencies of government under the presidency said in 2007, that members of legislature inputted about N100 billion into the agency's budget and later came back after the budget was signed by the president for the amount inputted (Ahmed, 2011).

In this respect, the official in the agency asked whether he was expected to go to the bank and withdraw N100 billion. The culprit was dumbfounded. It is obvious that this happens in all ministries. It is such that any MDAs which refused to play with the law makers would hardly get the budget approved on time if not totally frustrated.

It is therefore not surprising that Nigeria was rated 134th position out of 178 countries by Transparency International corruption perception index 2010. Of course, Nigeria's mono-cultural economy, deficit budget, delay passage of the budget by the legislature, ineffective oversight function by the National Assembly, late budget release by the relevant authorities such as federal ministry of finance, Office of Accountant General of the Federation as well as Central Bank of Nigeria, are all factors responsible for budget failure to realise the target of public policies. However, a critical assessment of all the factors suggests that there are elements of corruption embedded here and there. In the house, time allotted for discussion is not enough to afford exhaustive debates on grants. Much time is spent in debating and discussing expenditure where the amount involved is meagre simply for the sake of discussion.

4.0   CONCLUSION

It is beyond every reasonable doubt that a budget well formulated and properly implemented would contribute to the overall development of a nation. Over the years, these traditional functions of the budget have been a dying legacy, and unfortunately, it has retarded the realisation of socio-economic policy potential in Nigeria. The perennial challenge of the poor performance of budget has been blamed on several factors such as inadequate revenue, poor budget planning, inordinate political wrangling between the executive and legislative arms of the government and above all corruption. These factors have been dealt with extensively in the paper and ways forward charted accordingly.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have dealt with the concept of budget and budgetary process, revealed the types of government wherein we asserted that for public policy, public or government budget suffices. We also looked at the making of the budget in Nigeria and also established the link between the budget and public policy as a marriage of necessity. This unit is practical and the students are advised to engage national issues relating to public policy and budgetary process to ascertain why some public policies never see the light of the day.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Establish the link between effective implementation of public policy and effective budgetary process.

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UNIT 4   TECHNIQUES IN PUBLIC POLICY ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Policy analysis involves the use of different types of modern management decision techniques and strategies, depending upon the nature of the decisions to be taken. These techniques are largely different aspects and applications of system analysis and include operations research, system engineering and network analysis tools embracing programme evaluation and review techniques (PERT) and Critical Path Method (CPM), scheduling, planning and programme budgeting system (PPES), cost-benefit analysis and statistical methods. Others are scenario construction and paradigms, organisation analysis, management-by-objectives, etc. Most of these techniques have been developed or given greater attention and aimed at clarifying the task of policy analysts, policy planners and policy-makers. Almost all of these techniques are based on scientific methods for solving problems and will lead to rational decision-making. In this unit, we shall examine various analytical tools and techniques used for policy analysis.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

• identify general operational research tools for policy analysis ii
• describe tools and techniques of policy analysis.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   System Analysis

System analysis is a systematic approach to helping a decision-maker chose a course of action by investigating the problem; searching out objectives and alternatives; and comparing them in the light of their consequences, using an appropriate framework- insofar as it is possible/analytic – to bring expert judgment and intuition to bear on the problem. Since, system analysis generates and presents information in such a way as to improve the basis for decision-makers to improve the basis for decision-makers to exercise judgment, which has the same purpose as policy analysis. System analysis as a key technique in the process of decision-making has recently been receiving considerable attention; a few comments on its limitations would, therefore, be in order.

In spite of its acclaimed usefulness as a tool in the processes of decision-making, system analysis is in general, ineffective where the problems to be solved are behaviour-oriented and therefore, do not lend themselves to quantitative measurement. Secondly, its successful application has been impeded by the lack of the necessary skills. Thirdly, the attitudes and perceptions of professional systems analysts have in many cases proved to be at variance with needs to be met. More specific weaknesses and difficulties associated with the application of systems analysis as a tool of policy analysis in developing countries could be categorized as follows:

i.   Imprecise formulation and frequent and radical changes in the definition of national goals; this undermines the stability of policies;
ii.   The dearth of reliable data; and
iii.   Alien foundation and orientation of the policy-making processes, stemming in most cases from the influences of colonial administration of pre- independence days.

3.2   Cost-Benefit Analysis

It is an analytical technique for analysing decision of programmes or project. It involves evaluating all the costs of a programme or project whether tangible or not and all the benefits accruing to the programme or project whether there are in short term or long time in qualitative and quantitative terms. The net benefit (subtracting cost from benefit) is what paves away to choice or decision. It helps to determine the most effective and alternative decision-decisions with net social benefits. Moreover, it helps in project evaluation so that decision can be taken on

its choice or feasibility. In other words, cost-benefit analysis techniques are useful for decision-making and evaluations.

Cost-benefit analysis is in theory a much more powerful tool for decision- making than cost effectiveness. It can be used, for example, to choose between such diverse alternatives, such as: allocating funds to build educational institutions, a bridge or dam with irrigation and flood control as goals to providing ante- and post- natal facilities to reduce maternal and child mortality. If the project's cost about the same thing, it is merely a question of choosing the project for which the benefits exceed the cost by the greater amount. In the exercise, we should not forget to cost and value the indirect consequences resulting from a project- the so-called externalities, side-effects and spill-over, for example, the Bar Beach that over-flowed its bank rendered shipping unusable; affected tourists and small road-side businesses. It should also be noted that a project may still find favour in public policy even if the costs outweigh the benefits. In circumstances, such as this, the government usually takes political and social factors into consideration as well.

3.3   Cost-Effectiveness Analysis

It is a tool for determining the least cost of alternative programme or project. It bears some similarity with cost benefit analysis. The differences between costs-benefit analysis and cost –effective are that the former emphasises net social benefit, while the latter emphasises least cost of alternative or higher benefits (Ikelegbe, 1996). Cost effectiveness requirements are based on the realisation of the obvious difficulties of quantifying and monetizing the benefits of public policy programmes. To an analyst using this technique, the benefits are assumed, and the search is for the lower cost, but maximally effective alternative to attaining the benefits. Cost effectiveness requires a clear statement of objectives and output. It requires the comparison of alternatives in relation to alternative objectives. The alternative that achieves most at the same cost is preferred.

Cost effectiveness is useful and applicable to policy makers or project managers in situations where the objectives and benefits of a programme accomplishment are fixed and identical and the issue is only the determination of the least cost alternative with highest effectiveness. Moreover, where the budget allocations or funds to perform certain activities are fixed and the issue is the determination of the alternative that would utilise the given level of funds to achieve greater benefits or higher level of effectiveness. Cost effectiveness is particularly useful because of the limited and inadequate resources available to governments and corporations amidst so much problems, demands and

needs (Ikelegbe1996:50). Governments and Corporations would often like to know the efficiency and effectiveness of resources expended.

However, effectiveness measurement could present a problem. However, the problem could be solved by measuring effectiveness on a scale that depends on the nature of the goal. For example, if we were to evaluate the effectiveness of educational programmes to improve reading performance, we could directly relate the effectiveness on a standardised reading test. We are often able to use cost- effectiveness to rank competing alternatives that seek different goals, for example, to decide on the best overall use of money when we have several long-range objectives in mind. That requires something more, for instance, that there is a way to compare the worth or benefit for a particular cost of achieving certain effectiveness for one goal with that of another.

3.4   Comparing Cba and Cea Similarities

(1)   Aside from this major distinction, the two forms of economic analysis are basically identical;

(2)   Both approaches attempt to assess the desirability of alternatives;

(3)   Both look at short-and long-run costs and benefits;

(4)

Consequently, both are troubled with the same kinds of methodological problems

Differences

(i)   The potential merit of cost benefit analysis over cost effectiveness analysis is that the former allows for analysis across subject areas. When the expressed ratio of benefits to costs of a program is 1.0, costs are equal to benefits. As the ratio increases, the benefits accruing have increased. In contrast, cost-effectiveness analysis would not allow such direct comparisons since the effects would be expressed in time saved and families able to sustain themselves. It has limited utility it takes benefit as given;

(ii)   The technique does not help to justify the costs to benefits of alternative programmes;

(iii)   Beside, its Utilisation is difficult because of the quantification or monetisation or enumeration of the benefits of the programme or its alternative;

3.5   Critiques of Cba and Cea

Critics have observed that both tools of analysis have certain limitations which make them inadequate as tools of analysis and they include:

(1)   The first critical problem of either approach is that of estimating what are the causal relationships operative in the problem under analysis. In examining alternative programs, the analysis will be required to make some assumptions about causation in order to proceed. Some reliance can be placed upon earlier experiences or evaluation of existing programs of similar character.

(2)   In some cases, there may be little available material from which to make an assessment of causal relationships. This is the case particularly when new technologies and materials must be developed as part of the project being analysed. In other words, predictions, estimates or guesstimates must be made regarding the relationships between resource inputs and technological breakthroughs;

(3)   There is the issue of what gets counted as a cost and a benefit. Determining the financial costs of existing programs is often difficult, because accounting systems are designed to produce information by Organisational unit and not by program as specified in program structures. Even, when this matter is resolved, all that is produced are the direct financial costs to government. Indeed, a standard criticism of economic analysis is that it tends to consider only the costs to government and not the costs imposed upon others. Failure to consider all costs tends to weight the analysis in favour of the proposed project under review.

(4)   Indirect costs as well as benefits imposed or granted to others are referred to as externalities or spill over, secondary and tertiary effects. These are costs and benefits that affect parties other the ones directly involved. Most government expenditure decisions involve the same kinds of spill-over effects. The costs of an urban renewal program may be assessed in terms of the outlays required for purchasing and clearing land to the exclusion of spill over costs upon families, businesses and industries that must be relocated. However, the argument is made that there are no such things as secondary or spill over effects that anyone or anything affected by a program should be part of the explicitly considered benefits and costs of that program.

(5)   Related to spill over costs and benefits are redistributive effects, a matter which analysis often ignores. Involved here is the matter of whether some groups in the society will be benefitted more than other groups. Other criteria for judging re-distribution

include: race, educational level, and occupational class.

(6)   Even, if an ideal model was designed, displaying all of the relevant types of costs and benefits or effects, the problem of quantifying these remains. Much of the problem of setting naira values in the analysis stems from the fact that governmental programmes do not entail market prices. Much of economic analysis in the public sector, however, must input the prices or values of programmes.

This practice is known as shadow pricing. The procedure is easiest in dealing with business-like operations of government such as in providing water and electrical power and most difficult in areas involving social values. Thus, the relevant concept of the cost of a public expenditure is the value of the benefits forgone by not leaving the money in the private sector, where it would be consumed or invested.
However, a naira diverted from the private to the public sector is not just an equivalent naira cost or dollar benefit forgone. As Feldstein (1965) has written, "part of the money taken from the private sector decreases consumption immediately, while the rest decreases investment and, therefore, future consumption". Thus, the value of a naira removed by government expenditure is worth the "discounted value of the future consumption that would have occurred if the investment (in the private economy) had been made. Some charge must be made against that naira removed from consumption in order to arrive at the current value of future consumption forgone. This charge is variously known as the discount or interest rate (Banks and Kotz, 1966: 283-92).

Moreover, most investment projects involve an early expenditure of heavy capital costs followed by a tapering off to operating costs. Returns are non-existent or minimal for the first few years and then increase rapidly. The comparison of costs to benefits over time makes the necessity for discounting obvious. Higher costs occur earlier in most projects. The higher benefits which occur later are valued less because of the time factor. Costs and benefits must, therefore, be compared within each time period (usually each year), and the differences summed over the lifespan of the project. This is in essence what a discount rate accomplishes. The longer it takes for returns to occur, the more their value is discounted. In effect, it is compound interest in reverse. Costs, occurring earlier, are subject to less discounting. Thus, for a project to be economically feasible, total benefits must exceed the discounted costs, but the discounted values of benefits must exceed the discounted costs.

The importance of the discount rate will vary in terms of the similarities or dissimilarities of program alternatives being compared. Dissimilar projects may have significantly different discount rates. The social

opportunity costs of money invested in health services, for example, may be quite different from the costs of money invested in water resources. The same discount rate applied to both of these could be highly misleading.

There are other means than analysis for providing help to a decision-maker, who has to arrive at a choice between alternatives. These include (Oshionebo, 1998:77-83):

▪   Perceived needs of the people that is, relevance of programme irrespective of cost;
▪   Political and social expediency
▪   Pure intuition with or without divine guidance and
▪   muddling-through" – a sort of trial and error process in which naturally occurring feedback from what actually happens, supplemented by limited analysis, serves to provide the help.

3.6   Critical Path Method (CPM)

Critical Path Method (CPM) is project modelling technique. It is commonly used with all forms of projects. Any project with interdependent activities can apply this method of mathematical analysis. The term is generally applied to any approach used to analyse a project network logic diagram. CPM is commonly used with all forms of projects, including construction, aerospace and defence, software development, research projects, product development, engineering, and plant maintenance, among others. Any project with interdependent activities can apply this method of mathematical analysis.

Derivatively, The Critical Path Method (CPM) is a project modelling technique developed in the late 1950s by Morgan R. Walker of DuPont and James E. Kelley, Jr. of Remington Rand. CPM is commonly used with all forms of projects, including construction, aerospace and defence, software development, research projects, product development, engineering, and plant maintenance, among others. Any project with interdependent activities can apply this method of mathematical analysis. Although, the original CPM programme and approach is no longer used, the term is generally applied to any approach used to analyse a project network logic diagram.

The technique is used in planning and control of well-defined projects or programme and their implementation, particularly with a simple management. It helps to determine the relationships between the activities and sequence of activities, in terms of what should be done first or later and the completion time. This scheduling activities is within a time frame and lead to event or milestone, and programme completion

or achievement (terminus). Under CPM the earliest completion time of an event and the entire programme are determined. It helps to estimate time duration for the completion or various activities events and the entire programme.

3.7   Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)

The Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) is a statistical tool, used in project management that is, designed to analyse and represent the tasks involved in completing a given project. It is used in conjunction with Critical Path Method (CPM). It was able to incorporate uncertainty by making it possible to schedule a project while not knowing precisely the details and durations of all the activities. It is more of an event-oriented technique rather than start- and completion- oriented, and is used more in projects where time, rather cost, is the major factor. It is applied to very large-scale, one-time, complex,   non-routine   infrastructure   and Research Development projects.

PERT was developed for the US Navy Special Projects Office in 1957 to support the US Navy's Polaris nuclear submarine project. It was able to incorporate uncertainty by making it possible to schedule a project while not knowing precisely the details and durations of all the activities. It is more of an event-oriented technique rather than start- and completion-oriented, and is used more in projects where time, rather cost, is the major factor. It is applied to very large-scale, one-time, complex, non-routine infrastructure and Research Development projects.

It is a planning and control technique based on network analysis. It is used for planning and organising tasks and activities in relation to programme completion. PERT can be used to analyse the involved tasks in completing a given project, especially the time needed to complete each task, and to identify the minimum time needed to complete the total project. PERT was developed primarily to simplify the planning and scheduling of large and complex projects with multiple management. It is more concerned with activities or jobs. PERT is similar to CPM in several ways. Both are flow charts. Both calculate expected completion times. Both determine the critical path. In fact, CPM can be subsumed in PERT analysis, because PERT involves CPM.

PERT, however, differs from CPM. First, it is concerned with events, unlike CPM that is concerned with activities. Second, PERT enables the calculation of variances in the expected completion times. In uncertainties, the most probable time for determining events can be determined. PERT is also more rigorous and sophisticated. It is designed to manage large-scale and complex projects, with overlapping and

multiple managements, logistic problems and imprecise objective. This is in contrast to CPM which is more applicable to a well defined programme with single management.

3.8   Planning, Programming, Budgeting System (PPBS)

It is an integrated system of planning which involves systematic consideration of alternatives in the choice of strategies, and programming in the determination of manpower, material and other needs for accomplishing a programme. Then, budgeting is added to provide financial backing. In this unit, we shall examine the components of PPBS, the advantages and disadvantages.

PPBS constitute five following elements:

(i)   A program structure – a classification of the courses of action open to an organisation for attaining its objectives;
(ii)   An approved program document that includes precise, quantitative data on needs, resource inputs, and program outputs extending a number of years into the future;
(iii)   A decision-making process that establishes the functions, rules, and timetables for the actions required by the PPBS;
(iv)   An analysis process for measuring effectiveness and for weighing alternatives; and
(v)   An information system that supplies the data required to implement the system.

PPBS is a management tool for providing a better analytical basis for decision- making and for putting such decisions into operation. The PPBS specifies that these activities should be integrated and coordinated within an organisation. The integral components of PPBS involve:

(i)   Setting of specific objectives
(ii)   Systematic analysis to clarify objectives and to assess alternative ways of meeting them.
(iii)   Establishing resource requirements for each alternative
(iv)   The framing of budgetary proposals in terms of programmes directed towards the achievement of the objectives;
(v)   The projection of the costs of these programmes for a number of years in the future;
(vi)   Estimating benefits to be gained from each programme alternative in terms of probable outcome;
(vi)   The formulation of plans of achievement on yearly basis for each programme and
(vii)   Testing the long-range fiscal implication of the plan by analysing both direct and indirect costs;

(viii) Evaluating the annual budget
(ix)   Evaluating the success with which programme benefits are
        achieved; (x)   Revising planning standards; and
(xi)   Repeating the cycle to accommodate changes and objectives,
        goals, available resources and the institution/agency's
        environment.
(xii)   An information system for each programme to supply data for the
        monitoring of achievement of programme goals and for the
        reassessment of the programme objectives as well as the
        appropriateness of the programme itself (Oshisami, 1994).

In other words, the organisation's budgeting must be integrated with its
plans and programmes, such that the activities of the organisation are
clearly organised, guided and appraised. The budget time in PPBS is
that of critical reviews and decisions regarding plans, programme and
project reviews, projections and accomplishment levels. PPBS is,
therefore, a comprehensive planning and budgeting system, which
unifies the entire organisations in terms of coordinating the entire
activities and functions of the organisation. It is aimed at attaining
organisational goals in an efficient and effective manner. Institutions
and governments are often committed to PPBS because it permits the
evaluation of:

i.   The efficiency and economy of programme;
ii.   Alternative programmes or ways of implementing the same
        programme; and
iii.   Giving priority to various programmes to determine their overall
        effectiveness.

3.9   Management by Objectives (MBO)

It is management techniques that emphasises establishing, clarifying and
operationalising objectives, such that different sets of activities
operations and personnel within the organisation or programme could be
directed and managed in accordance to defined objectives and achieve
such objectives. The belief is that the clarification of purposes and
planned organisation to achieve them is considerably important to
efficient and rational management and effectiveness. MBO is not just a
technique but a philosophy or belief in subordinate-manager
participation in goals setting and management and cooperation in the
joint act of achieving effectiveness.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to examine various tools and techniques
of decision-making. Some of these techniques include: system analysis,

cost-benefit analysis, cost of effectiveness analysis, path analysis, scenario construction, models and so on. These tools are adopted to analyse and rationalise choices in policy making.

5.0   SUMMARY

Over the years, attempts have been made by government to improve the contents of government decision making process. There are several tools and techniques which are used in the planning, analysis, evaluation and management of government policies and programmes. These tools include; system analysis cost- benefit analysis, cost-effectiveness analysis, forecasting, path analysis and management by objectives. These tools are adopted to analyse and rationalise choices in policy making.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe how cost benefit analysis tool can be used to analyse policy.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Policy Research, Analysis and Effective Public Policy-Making in Nigeria.* Lagos: Concept Publications Ltd.

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UNIT 5   APPROACHES IN POLICY ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
         3.1   The Prescriptive Approach
         3.2   The Descriptive Approach
         3.3   Micro Approach
         3.4   The Macro Approach
         3.5   Qualitative Approach
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         3.7   Programme Evaluation
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

Several approached are used in the study of Public Policy Analysis. In this unit, you are given prescriptive, Descriptive, micro and approached as well as qualitative and quantitative approaches in policy analysis. This will enable you understand their definitions, meanings and characteristics.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

• explain the Perspective approach b
• analyse Descriptive approach c
• stateThe Micro approach and d
• describeThe Macro approach e
• explain the Qualitative Approach f
• Describe the Quantitative approach

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Prescriptive Approach

The prescriptive approach basically is the generation of information and analysis directed at better policy making and performance. It proffer policy options or alternatives, solution and strategies based on analysed

data which could emanate from the social and policy problems, social indicators, evaluation of existing or past programmes and projects.
There are four characteristics of prescriptive approach and are as follows:

i)   It is analytical. It emphasises the generation of data analysed with social science techniques and methodologies, models and concepts, especially quantitative techniques
ii)   Prescriptive approach is goal and problem oriented. It directed at specific problems and the goal is to proffer solutions and advice.
iii)   It is tended to be more clients oriented. Such actors have suggested prescriptive approach address issues relevant to policy actors or that. The emphasis is on the practice and relevance of public policy analysis to real life and societal needs.

3.2   The Descriptive Approach

Descriptive studies describe and explain public policies. Its focus of research is on history, development,causes, implementation, consequences and problems of public policies. Descriptive studies also focus on the description of the national and state policy process and individual policy or policy sector processes. The Descriptive Approach characteristics are:

i)   It is more of academic studies whose intentions and goals are not informed by the needs of prompts of clients or policy actors;
ii)   Descriptive approach seeks the understanding of policy processes, policy problems and situations. It particularly seeks to explain the causes of public policy, the nature and trends of expenditure in policy sectors or areas, and the problems of public policies, among others.
iii)   It is more concerned with the investigations of policy contents implementation, output and impact of particular policies.
iv)   Descriptive approach is evaluatory and therefore retrospective and relates the studies of on-going or completed programmes.

3.3   Micro Approach

The micro approach relates to the scope of research studies undertaken and focuses on the study of specific public policies and policy problems. Its aims are a thorough investigation of a particular policy's process of formulation, enactment, implementation, output, performance, impact and problems.
The approach generally involves intensive studies of the policy involving examination of reposts, documents and other sources of information on the development, implementation and impact of the

policy. It also involves historical narratives, accounts and chorological presentations of information on the policy. It reports or describes the policies as they were or are and involve limited explanations of causes and problems.

Micro approach enhances understanding of the workings of the policy and political process and particularly enlightens us on how the various institutions of government, interest groups and influential elites interact and contribute to policy development and implementation. It broadens our outlook to the input and effects of various persons groups and institutions in the policy process. While as some researches may study a specific policy as a whole, seeking to understand and describe it, other focus on aspects of the policy such as the policy formulation, implementation and impact.

3.4   The Macro Approach

Macro approach is broad and place more emphasis on the development of knowledge, understanding and generalisations on the nature of public policies. It focuses on general aspects of public policy analysis such as types of policies, policy process models and policy areas. Macro approach comprises wide range studies and analyses of policy issues. The aim is to provide broad structures of analyses or basic organisation of policy studies and guides for analyses of more specific policy areas. Such studies also provide broad concepts, tool, models, generalisations and knowledge for understanding and analysis.

There are four broad categories in macro approach studies. First, it focuses on the nature of policies themselves. Second, it also focuses on thorough investigation of the policymaking process and implementation. Third, it develops models, theories and concepts to explain or interpret policy issues. Fourth, it focuses on public policy areas rather than on specific policies.

The macro approach contributes immensely to enriching our understanding of policy activities and providing a better framework for the systematic study of public policy. (Ikelegbe: 1996:26)

3.5   Qualitative Approach

This is a narrative approach to policy analysis. The approach eschews quantification of information and the use of statistical techniques for data analysis. Decisions are not informed by any inferential analysis of statistical data, but rather by mere logical reasoning. Emphasis is placed on philosophical, legal, and ethical dimensions of policy issues, problems and incidents. Descriptions and narrations are the main tools

of policy analysis. The policy process is described, the implementation is narrated and the impact is reported with no reference to any rigorous quantitative method. Both the descriptive and prescriptive approaches to policy analysis can be analysed qualitatively.

3.6   Quantitative Approach

In contrast to qualitative methods of describing policy analysis, there is quantitative approach. In this approach, policy analysis relies very heavily on quantitative data and quantitative techniques of data analysis. The techniques used can vary from simple calculation of means or percentages to the complex analysis of variances. Linear regression is commonly used in policy analysis. Both the descriptive and inferential statistics are employed to analyse policy. Policy decisions are informed by the result of statistical analysis.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Approaches in the study of public policies are important to enable you understand the public policy analysis better. This is why we chose to bring it immediately before Public Policy Analysis Units. In this unit, we have been able to explain the descriptive, prescriptive, qualitative, quantitative, micro-analytical and macro-analytic approaches to the study of policy analysis. The approaches relate to the study of policy research. Descriptive studies are usually qualitative with some mix of quantification. Prescriptive studies, on the other hand, could also use qualitative or quantitative methods, but are largely quantitative. However, most policy research uses more than one approach as illustrated from the unit. Sometimes, the two approaches are combined.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we discussed prescriptive, descriptive, micro and macro approaches as well as quantitative and qualitative approaches in the study of public policy analysis. It is recommended that you revise them often for better understanding. In summary, the effort is geared towards improving public policy outputs. It is concerned with the application of systematic knowledge, structured rationality, and organised creativity to better policy-making. Those who advocate the prescriptive paradigm are concerned with how to improve policy in order to alleviate social problems that bedevil the society. In spite of all these submissions, the debate between the two schools of thoughts is still on, as to what should be the limit of policy analysis and there appear not to be a ray of hope on the resolution of the debate on the horizon. Both the descriptive and prescriptive approaches to policy analysis can be analysed quantitatively, qualitatively.

6.0   TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNEMENT

Differentiate between Micro and Macro Approaches.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READING

Dror, Y. (1971). *Venture in Policy Sciences*. New York: Eisenhower Eneanya, A.N. (2010). *Policy Research, Analysis and Effective Public Policy-Making in Nigeria.* Lagos: Concept Publications Ltd.

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MODULE 4   PUBLIC POLICY PROCESS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Unit 1   Bureaucracy and Public Policy Making
Unit 2   Determinants of policy success or failure
Unit 3   Actors in Public Policy Process
Unit 4   The Public Policy Makers And Their Environment
Unit 5   Impact of the Environment on Policy Making and Implementation

UNIT 1   BUREAUCRACY AND PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
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        3.1   Meaning of Bureaucracy
        3.2   Functions of the Bureaucracy
        3.3   The Bureaucracy in Public Policy Making Process
        3.4   Managing Discretion and Abuse of Administrative Power
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The federal bureaucracy performs three primary tasks in government: implementation, administration, and regulation. When the National Assembly passes a law, it sets down guidelines to carry out the new policies. Actually putting these policies into practice is known as implementation. This is where the role of the bureaucracy comes in. This role heralds the use of administrative discretion. In public administration, administrative discretion refers to the flexible exercising of judgment and decision making allowed to public administrators (Rabin, 2003; Cann, 2015). Regulatory agencies have the power to exercise this type of discretion in their day-to- day activities, and there have been cases where regulatory agencies have abused this power. Administrative law can help these agencies get on the path of following regulations, serve the public, and in turn, a reflection of the public's values and beliefs.

The work of Harold Less well on the development of policy is widely used as a way to understand the different stages where an issue is developed into a policy before it is effectively implemented. With this 5 stage process while bureaucrats are also involved in the agenda setting stage, its first point of contribution is within the formulation of a policy. Habitually, this role was carried out in a system of diverse and complex organisations . Peters (2001) found that this structural composition is an attempt to limit policy choice by bureaucrats providing them with limited resources and obstructive procedure to work amongst. Harut and Radu (2009) argue that the role of bureaucrats within these organisations is that they operate as atomised and invisible hands compiling ideas of particular issues into a policy package on which a decision can be made. One of the key aspects of the role is the prerogative of bureaucrats to exercise discretion in formulating policy.

Even with government led visions on policies, it is always prone to modification as the bureaucrats identify and supply the problem to parliament, and of course this leaves room for bureaucrats to mould issues as they deem fit. This unbridled control over the identification of issues and tools for policy making provided another aspect for dissent on the role of the bureaucrats in policy making, with many dissatisfied that unelected officials has this access to apply personal bias and choice in the allocation of national resources.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what bureaucracy is all about
- identify the role of bureaucracy in public policy making process
- state the administrative discretion/power and its control measures.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy refers to both a body of non-elective government officials and an administrative policy-making group. Historically, a bureaucracy was a government administration managed by departments staffed with non-elected officials. Today, bureaucracy is the administrative system governing any large institution (Tony & Dagmar 2015). The public administration in many countries is an example of a bureaucracy. Since being coined, the word bureaucracy has developed negative connotations (Raadschelders, 1998). Bureaucracies have been criticised as being inefficient, convoluted, or too inflexible to individuals (Ronald & Gary, 1994).

Others have noted the necessity of bureaucracies in modern life. The German sociologist Max Weber argued that bureaucracy constitutes the most efficient and rational way in which one can organise the human activity and that systematic processes and organised hierarchies are necessary to maintain order, maximise efficiency, and eliminate favouritism. On the other hand, Weber also saw unfettered bureaucracy as a threat to individual freedom, trapping individuals in an impersonal "iron cage" of rule-based, rational control (George, 2004; Richard & Agevall 2005)

A bureaucracy is a way of administratively organising large numbers of people who need to work together. Organisations in the public and private sector, including universities and governments, rely on bureaucracies to function. The term bureaucracy literally means "rule by desks or offices," a definition that highlights the often impersonal character of bureaucracies. Even though bureaucracies sometimes seem inefficient or wasteful, setting up a bureaucracy helps ensure that thousands of people work together in compatible ways by defining everyone's roles within a hierarchy.

Today a bureaucracy is a large administrative organisation that handles the day-to-day business of a government or society. Here in America, the government's bureaucracy operates on national, state, and local levels. Bureaucracies have four key characteristics that make their resemblance to beehives all the more apparent.

A Clear Hierarchy - Bureaucracies have a firm chain of command. Every worker has his or her own place in the chain, and everyone's work is overseen by someone on the next level up. Power flows down from the top of the hierarchy and diminishes as it approaches the bottom. Just think of the beehive. The queen bee stands at the top, and each worker bee or drone has its own place in the hive's chain of command.

Specialisation - Everyone in a bureaucracy has a specific job to do and often becomes an expert at it. Bees have specific jobs, too, collecting pollen, making honey, or populating the hive.

A Division of Labour - In a bureaucracy, nearly every task is broken down into its component parts, and different people work on different parts of the task. Together they get the job done, just like bees in a hive who divide their labour for maximum efficiency.

A Set of Formal Rules - These so-called standard operating procedures are the clear, written instructions for each specialised job at every level of the hierarchy. Workers who follow them can be sure that they are on the same page as their colleagues and are doing their jobs properly.

According to beekeepers, bees, too, have a sophisticated system of communication that keeps their hives running smoothly.

3.2   Functions of the Bureaucracy

The main functions of bureaucracy are the implementation of government policies and programmes.

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

2. **The Bureaucracy Provides Necessary Administrative Functions   like Conducting Examinations, Issuing Permits and Licenses, and Collecting fees** Essentially, it handles the paperwork of everyday government operations. Anyone who has a driver's license has come face-to-face with bureaucratic administration through the required written and behind-the-wheel exams, learning permits, fees at all stages, and finally applying for and receiving the driver's license itself.

3. **The Bureaucracy regulates various Government Activities**

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

3.3 The Bureaucracy In Public Policy Making Process

According to Ayuba, et al. (2012), in Nigeria and across the world in general, the word bureaucracy is one of the most frequently, used by many authors in modern writing about organisation. This is because the public bureaucracies are entrusted with public property and they are charged with responsibilities of specific method of allocating resources within a large organisation. A synonym for this sense might be bureaucratic decision making. Furthermore, they are also referred to as essentially civil servants primarily established to help in the formulation and implementation of government's policies. Therefore, if you ever wonder as a Nigerian why sometimes that governments do things that no one seems to be interested or understand in your particular state, local government or your village in spite of huge population, political or economic activities, and yet you don't feel the presence of federal, state or local government. While, if you take statistics or compare the area with others, you would discovered that there were more presence of government better than other areas. Then why does such happened? Who are responsible in shaping government decision making and implementation. Furthermore, have you ever wondered to know who these bureaucrats behind the political scene charged with the responsibility of helping the governments in taking and sharpening decisions that affect policy making process?. The answer is that they are called season civil servants who have a strong background experience as administrators in critical thinking skills as well as decision- making abilities. Thus;

It is ironic that bureaucracy is primarily a term of scorn. In reality, bureaus are among the most important institutions in every part of the world. Not only do they provide employment for a very significant fraction of the world's population, but they also make critical decisions that shape the economic, educational, political, social, moral, and even religious lives of nearly everyone on earth...The ability of bureaus to outlive their real usefulness is part of the mythology of bureaucracy... (Downs, 1967);

In spite of the important roles of the civil servant in Nigeria in achieving many of government's laudable policies and programmes, however, not much of such are fully and excellently implemented or achieved but in many instances, as many of them have been marred by poor implementation strategies (i.e. bureaucratic procedures). This become so, as the civil service has a way of putting obstacles or frustration in the way policies are being formulated by the political officials, especially those policies on which they hold divergent opinions or are not of direct benefit to them. As such, they employed so many varieties of tactics "to thwart such implementation". From the fore-going, as stated by Okotoni

(2001) that we can summarise the role of the federal bureaucracy as coordination of federal ministries, advising the political officials, formulation and implementation of government's policies, gathering and supplying of data for policy makers, ensuring continuity of services and public relations services. All the roles highlighted above are so crucial to the smooth running of any administration to the extent that one may be tempted to conclude that bureaucracy is indispensable in public Policy formulation and implementation.

3.4   Managing Discretion and Abuse of Administrative Power

On the line of executing the policies of government, the bureaucrats/administrators are given certain administrative powers. Administrative power is the power to administer or enforce a law. Administrative powers can be executive, legislative, or judicial in nature. Administrative power intends to carry the laws into effect, practical application of laws and execution of the principles prescribed by the lawmaker. Therefore, it qualifies as administrative discretion.

According to Laksheyender (2011), administrative discretion means choosing from amongst the various available alternatives but with reference to the rules of reason and justice and not according to personal whims. Such exercise is not to be arbitrary, vague and fanciful, but legal and regular.

However, there is a problem with administrative powers/discretion. The problem of administrative discretion is complex. It is true that in any intensive form of government, the government cannot function without the exercise of some discretion by the officials. It is necessary not only for the individualisation of the administrative power but also because it is humanly impossible to lay down a rule for every conceivable eventually in the complex art of modern government. But it is equally true that absolute discretion is a ruthless master. It is more destructive of freedom than any of man's other inventions. Therefore, there has been a constant conflict between the claims of the administration to an absolute discretion and the claims of subjects to a reasonable exercise of it.

Discretionary power by itself is not pure evil but gives much room for misuse. Therefore, remedy lies in tightening the procedure hence keeping the administrator accountable as discretions are, according to Ikeanyibe (2013) usually informal and therefore unprotected by the safeguards inherent in formal procedure. Yet it is inevitable since rules and regulations can never be too detailed to the extent that everything an administrator may have to do is clearly prescribed for him/her. Every form of public policy will inevitably see variations from the original

intended policy goals as part of the discretionary process (Theodoulou and Kofinis, 2007).

Policies are not implemented in static environment and exercising discretion to meet the changing political ad administrative environment is a necessity for sustainable long term effectiveness (Wong, 2007). In his support for administrative discretion, Brodkin (2007) sees administrative reforms as a likely way to manage administrative discretion and thus, identified two basic methods of reforms:

i.   Managerial and structural repositioning of the bureaucratic organisation through formal rules and regulations, monitoring, rewards and penalties, or even persuasion and exhortation. It involves the use of standard instrument the "old" public administration. This is the formal bureaucraticinternal mechanism of control.
ii. Administrative reforms in the light of the New Public Management Approach.

The New Public Management (NPM) approach to public service production and delivery runs counter to the old ('traditional') bureaucratic approaches that were born with the emergence of the modern states systems across most of the Western world. It rejects the idea of a specific culture for public organisations and typically argues that such organisations should be managed in the same way as any private sector organisation (Riccucci, 2001, Page, 2005; Dunleavy, Margetts, Bastow and Tinkler, 2006). This approach was developed during the 1980s as part of an effort to make the public service more "businesslike" and to improve its efficiency by using private sector management models. As with the private sector which focuses on "customer service"; NPM reforms often focused on the "...centrality of citizens who were the recipient of the services or customers to the public sector." NPM reformers experimented with using decentralised service delivery models, to give local agencies more freedom in how they delivered programs or services. In some cases, NPM reforms that used e-government consolidated a program or service to a central location to reduce costs. Key themes in NPM were "...financial control, value for money, increasing efficiency...,identifying and setting targets and continuance monitoring of performance, handing over power to the senior management" executives. Performance was assessed with audits, benchmarks and performance evaluations. Some NPM reforms used private sector companies to deliver what were formerly public services.
Still, many scholars have found certain deficiencies in this method though it proposes reducing the role of bureaucracy in policy implementation, it seeks to increase its role in policy making, and hence

the use of discretion cannot be stamped out the powers of bureaucrats (Ikeanyibe, 2013).

4.0   CONCLUSION

Administrative discretion allows agencies to use professional expertise and judgment when making decisions or performing official duties, as opposed to only adhering to strict regulations or statuses. For example, a public official has administrative discretion when he or she has the freedom to make a choice among potential courses of action. The failure to exercise reasonable judgment or discretion is abuse of discretion. However, for the good of public policy, this power of the administrator needs to be checkmated. This is the thrust of this unit.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able to establish that bureaucracies is involved in every stage of the policy making process hence the bureaucrats inevitably become involved in the policy-making process as they develop experience, accumulate information and gain expertise on matters of public policy. This experience enters not only the policy formulation and implementation stage, but also the final process of evaluation, review and assessment. The evaluation state is the process where an organisation, whether public or private, evaluates and revises its policies on whether it was effective in resolving the targeted issue.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the role of the bureaucracy in the public policy making process?

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UNIT 2   DETERMINANTS OF POLICY SUCCESS OR FAILURE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Excessive Demand for Policy Outputs
        3.2   Over-Ambitious and Unrealisable Policy Goals
        3.3   Accurate and Inaccurate Theory or Causation of Social Problems
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4.0   Conclusion
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

In a study of public policy analysis, an examination of possible determinants of policy success and/or failure in a particular society is imperative. This is to enhance the richness of the lecture series, because, it will be unfair to student if after running the marathon of public policy conceptualisation to theories and models of public policy analysis without expressly hinting on the factors that can inhibit the success of a certain policy, hence this unit, because, Governments produce policies, some of which succeed and some of which fail. Policies may also inhabit the ground in between. They survive, albeit bruised, or they become precarious and hang on the edge of outright failure. The logic of the policy cycle and indeed the public face of governments is that they seek successful policies, want to avoid failure, and are prepared to learn from mistakes when they happen. These are exceptionally high- stakes issues. Put crudely, success provides social benefits, while failure creates risks and dangers for target groups, as well for governments, who face backlash and the predicament of how to retain control of policy and political agendas.

Yet, for all the seriousness and significance of issues surrounding policy success and failure, there are real difficulties in understanding the phenomena. This unit reveals the determinants.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- identify the reason behind public policy failures in Nigeria
- explain the reason behind public policy success.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

Determinants of Policy Success or Failure
Ingram and Mann (1980) recognise six factors as the main determinants of success or failure of policies:

3.1   Excessive Demand for Policy Outputs

This is due to the high increase in population of the country as a result, there is high increase in scope of government policies and programmes and it continue changing day by day and area by areas. For examples, the demands for the construction of more roads, dams and boreholes, health care delivery and hospitals, industries, schools to mention but a few are too enormous. Today, many communities are left unattended without social services and marginalised particularly the rural areas. The resources of the government are getting inadequate to meet the demands of every community in the country.

3.2   Over-Ambitious and Unrealizable Policy Goals

Most people are impatient and over overzealousness as such policy formulated by the government, people hardly waits to see the aspects of it as they would just be condemning it without giving it. Similarly, some of the programmes and policies are unrealisable due to the complexity of the programmes. For example, in April, 2011, the federal government of Nigeria through the Independent National Electoral commission (INEC) promised the nation of organising free, fair and credible election and at the end of the 2011 General Election, the outcome resulted into post election violence across some part of the country.

3.3   Accurate and Inaccurate Theory or Causation of Social Problems

Here many people make mistake by assuming that there is no difference between theories and policies. Theories are assumptions mainly good for laboratory or pilot test but not necessarily good for the larger populace. In Nigeria and indeed all over the world, many

governments came in with a conceivable style of administration. In Nigeria for example, when President Goodluck Jonathan came into power in May, 2011 with transformational agenda and promised to tackle the problems of power, corruption, insecurity etc. Today, Nigeria is not only one of the most corrupt countries but also unsecured ranging from, kidnapping, bombing, arm robbery and destruction of government properties etc.

3.4   Types and Effectiveness of Policy Instrument Chosen

These are the actual devices government has at their disposals for implementing policy among policies. For example, mass campaign using people to stop scandalising electrical cables and pipelines. Public policy is a kind of sloppy governance, which is working outside of actual law provisions, and is often unconstitutional. The variety of policy instruments to policy makers to address a policy problem is limited only to their imaginations. Many of such schemes are either pitched at high level of abstraction making them difficult to apply in practical terms or dwell on the idiosyncrasies of particular tools, thereby limiting the range of the descriptions and explanation.

3.5   The Vagaries of Implementation of Policies

This relate to changes in the activities of the programmes as well as changes in schedule of implementation. Furthermore, the continue change in administrations which at the end lead to policy adjustment is considered as one of the major problems affecting policy implementation because most programmes initiated by a particular administration are hardly completed by another administration after the termination of that government rather; the incoming government would come in with its own agenda. Example, the previous government both military and civilian administrations came in with their established programmes, among these are; Code of Conduct Bureau by the Murtala administration in 1975, Ethical Revolution by Shagari's civilian administration in 1979, War Against Indiscipline and Corruption by General Buhari administration in 1984, Mass Mobilisation for Self Reliance, Social Justice and Economic Recovery by General Babangida in 1985, Failed Bank Tribunals by General Abacha in 1994, Anti-Corruption Bill by Obasanjo in 2000. From 2007, the administration of Yar'Adua has made it a cardinal policy to observe rule of law to enhance public accountability and stamp out corruption and indiscipline in the Nigerian society. While President Jonathan came in April, 2011 with programme called transformational agenda.

3.6   Failure of Political Institutions

By political institutions here, we mean these institutions or organisations of the state, society or subsystem. However, some of these institutions exist in a mutually undefined relationship (Ayuba et al, 2012).

4.0   CONCLUSION

How can we know if policies succeed or fail, and what are the causes of such outcomes? Understanding the nature of these phenomena is riddled with complex methodological challenges, including differing political perspectives, persistent mixed results, ambiguous outcomes, and the issue of success/failure "for whom"? Ironically, the key to understanding policy success and failure lies not in downplaying or ignoring such challenges, but in accepting politicisation and complexity as reflective of the messy world of public policy. Gaining insight from such messiness allows a better understanding of phenomena like "good politics but bad policy," the persistence of some failures over time, and widely differing perspectives on who or what should claim credit for policy success and who or what should be blamed for policy failure (Allan, 2017). This is what this unit just did.

5.0   SUMMARY

Whether policies are successful or not, and what factors produced success/failure, will continue to be intensely political issues. It is doubtful that there will ever be widespread agreement on such issues, just as it is doubtful societies founded on pluralism and diversity will reach consensus on policy problems, priorities, and the best means of tackling them. Nevertheless, we should not stop developing our understanding of policy success/failure, and perhaps nudging policy in more effective and accountable directions. This unit reveals the factors responsible for public policy failures and success in Nigeria. The essence is to allow the students an in-depth understanding of the course and guide them even in making personal policies and advancing a course in public policy analysis.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the determinants of public policy success and failure in Nigeria?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   ACTORS IN PUBLIC POLICY PROCESS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Across the globe and from one country to the other, societies are bedevilled by myriads of problems. Indeed, such problems span all areas of human endeavours- political, socio-economic, cultural, environmental, religious and security to mention a few. Over the years, human beings, through their various governments, engage one major and potent instrument called "policy" to address and solve problems of societies and issues that are of public concern. Policy process is an intricate process involving certain actors in government as well as those outside government (who find relevance in the existence of government). These actors or participants are crucial and influential in the sub-processes of policy initiation, choices, formulation, implementation and evaluation. It is against this backdrop that this paper examined the crucial actors/participants involved in decision making and policy process.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- state how to categorise the actors in policy making process
- differentiate the official and unofficial actors in public policy process
- describe the roles of actors of both classification.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

Actors in Public Policy Process
Anderson (1979) categorised the crucial actors in the policy-making process into two, namely: official and unofficial policymakers. The two categories of participants are involved in one way or the other in the

policy process, and they are crucial and influential in the sub-processes of policy initiation, choices, formulation, implementation and evaluation.

3.1   The Official Policy Makers

According to Anderson, the official policymakers are those who possess legal authority to engage in the formulation of public policy. Those involved in this category are the legislators, the executive, the administrators and the judiciary. Each of them performs policy-making responsibilities in a different way from the others. They are governmental actors who occupy formal public positions and political offices and serve as the actual policy makers. Official policymakers are in turn categorised by Anderson (1979) and Egonmwan (1991) into: (i) primary policymakers; and (ii) supplementary policymakers. The primary policymakers are constitutionally empowered to engage in the formulation of policies. It is their constitutional assignment and responsibility. Consequently, they need not depend upon other governmental agencies or units or structures to perform their policy- making roles.

In Nigeria, for example, they are members of the National Assembly (the Senate and the House of Representatives) and states' Houses of Assembly. In Nigeria's current democratic dispensation, other significant primary policymakers include the president, his aides, administrators and judges. They, as well, contribute as supplementary policymakers. The supplementary policymakers, expectedly, receive their authority to act in policy making process from the primary policymakers such as the National Assembly in Nigeria. They are expected to be responsive to the interests and requests of the National Assembly. Examples of supplementary policy makers are persons, agencies or bodies that need authority from others in order to act as they are dependent on, or are controlled by, others. They include ministries, departments and other governmental agencies that initiate policies and push for them. There are politicians in the policy-making process and these refer to all elected political office holders and those who occupy political posts/offices. They include the president (as the chief executive), his political aides and advisers, legislators in the National Assembly (the Senate and the House of Representatives), and members of the states' Houses of Assembly.

In specific terms, the official or institutional actors (Mathew, 2012) are:

The National Assembly and states' Houses of Assembly
Legislators are members of parliaments, for example, the National Assembly and state assemblies in Nigeria. As indicated earlier, the

legislators constitute the primary policymakers. They possess direct constitutional authority to initiate and formulate policies. As elected law makers, they represent their people from their various constituencies.

Consequently, they are expected to collate the views, interests, demands and problems of their constituents, harmonise them and translate them into policy proposals for the legislature. Such policy proposals are subjected to the entire legislative processes of reading, debating and scrutiny (by the relevant standing committees). Policies formulated from such proposals are then forwarded for the president's assent.

Formulated policies will set up policy programmes and required actions which the executive will then implement and evaluate. Legislators do not generate and develop policy proposals from their people only. They also develop draft policies from their fellow legislators and the executive.

In reality today, legislators appear to have practically and largely abdicated their constitutional responsibility of policy making to the executive. Ikelegbe (2006) declared that legislators no longer exert considerable influence on the initiation and formulation of policies.

They just (in most cases) mainly formalise and legitimise policies already formulated by the executive. They look up to the executive for legislative leadership. Certain factors are responsible for such abdication of responsibility in Nigeria. Firstly, legislators are fragmented, not only along party lines, but also along ethnic and religious lines.

Consequently, they lack the necessary cohesion to generate, initiate and formulate policies that will benefit the majority of citizens. Secondly, many legislators lack the intellectual depth, professionalism, skills and technocracy needed to tackle the complex problems of modern-day societies and governance which the executive functionaries have.

Thirdly, most legislators demonstrate flippancy. They have little understanding of the weight of their assignment. Basically, they are not well-positioned to meet the increasing need for expertise in governance.

Fourthly, the "executive – centred era" (as manifested in the possession and deployment of enormous resources and power by the executive) has put the legislators at a great disadvantage. They are easily tempted with cash or threatened with removal by the executive to do its bidding.

It is important to state, however, that legislators are still active in the policy-making process in developed democratic dispensations and that they play significant policy roles in the presidential system of

government. They are inactive or rendered redundant in authoritarian and totalitarian regimes.

The President and the Executive Bureaucracy
Like National Assembly, the president is mandated by the Constitution as a partner in the policy process. But, unlike Congress, the president can only approve or disapprove legislation, he or she has no power to amend. Thus, the policy priorities of the president cannot be directly legislated. Rather, presidents must rely on legislative partners in both houses, and on the power to persuade.

The executive comprises the president, prime minister, premier or governor, (as the case may be), ministers, special advisers, special assistants, top political aides and the administrators. The main responsibility of the executive is to implement public policies and to supervise, coordinate and manage ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) that are involved in the implementation of policies.

But the executive in democratic dispensations, for example, the president in Nigeria plays a crucial and pivotal role in the policy-making process. Indeed, he plays dominant roles in the initiation, formulation and implementation stages of the policy process. This era is referred to as an "executive-centred era," in which the effectiveness of government depends substantially upon executive leadership both in policy formation and in policy execution. The Nigerian president's authority to exercise legislative leadership is both clearly established and accepted as a necessity to the president (Omotoso, 2010). In this "executive-centred era", the president and his chief aides and advisers in the presidency have become the major source of policy proposals initiation. It has become crystal clear that the president who gives executive leadership is also expected to provide legislative leadership. Egomwan (1991) cited the Babangida and Obasanjo administrations in which the two presidents made significant impact on policy issues. There were policy proposals on the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), privatisation programme, local government reform, new constitutions, and the Global System of Mobile Communication (GSM), to mention a few. Egomwan further observed that during the elected civilian government of the Second Republic headed by President Shehu Shagari, the National Assembly expected the president to present policy recommendations to it and provide it with draft bills containing his recommendations. The same expectation subsists till today.

All these confirm that the executive president is looked upon, not only for executive leadership, but also for legislative leadership. He plays dominant roles in the policy process that transcend mere implementation

because of certain glaring factors. Firstly, the president (as the chief executive) parades an array of ministers, advisers, technocrats, professionals, skilled and experienced administrators on various policy issues ranging from political, social and economic matters to foreign and military relations. Secondly, the power of the executive has been constantly increasing because of the increasing complexity of policy problems which require a high degree of professionalism and specialised knowledge to tackle. Thirdly, the legislature, which is constitutionally empowered to formulate policies, largely appears to have abdicated that constitutional responsibility to the executive. The fragmentations of the legislature and mode of operation have incapacitated them from having adequate time and the necessary cohesion to address policy matters. As a result, a good number of policy proposals (especially the sensitive ones) will have to be initiated and sponsored by the president. Fourthly, the executive has enormous funds, ample facilities and the power of patronage at its disposal to push for the acceptance and passage of its policy proposals.

In the areas of foreign and military policy, Anderson (1979) declared that presidents possess great constitutional powers and operating freedom, especially in the United States of America. Foreign policy is largely a creation of presidential leadership and action. It is to a great extent the domain of the executive, and this is the case in all nations of the world. Egomwan (1979) corroborated this assertion by declaring that in some cases, the president is an 'adopter' of any policy initiated singly by the presidency itself in its own right. He cited the example of President Babangida who donated money to a university in Sierra Leone and sent relief funds and materials to South-West People's Organisation (SWAPO) in Namibia without any recourse to the Armed Forces Ruling Council. In developing countries, the scenario is that power is more highly concentrated in the executive. As a result of this, the executive has more influence in forming public policies and in the entire policy process.

The Courts
The influence of judges in interpreting laws has an equally significant impact on policy. This actor Popoola (2016) prefers to call the judiciary. The essence is to enable for a resounding analysis of the role of the judge and the court that make up the judiciary in public policy process. The judiciary comprises judges and the courts. Their constitutional responsibilities are the interpretation of the constitution and the laws, as well as adjudication in conflicts between individuals, groups, governmental institutions and the arms/levels of government. It is instructive to note that the judiciary is not constitutionally empowered to initiate, formulate or implement policies.

However, through the interpretation of the constitution and laws, it contributes significantly to the policy making process. Egomwan (1991) identified four important instruments that the judiciary employs to react to policies. These instruments are:

(a)   **Judicial Review**: This refers to the power of courts to determine the constitutionality of the actions of the legislative and executive branches and declare them unconstitutional, null and void, and of no effect if such actions violate any section(s) of the constitution.

(b)   **Statutory Interpretation of Cases Brought Before the Judges:** This instrument refers to the power of courts used in interpreting and deciding the meaning of constitutional provisions which are prone to conflicting interpretations. Judges in their courts clarify constitutional provisions and whatever interpretation they give becomes binding on all parties involved.

(c)   **Formulation of Economic Policies**: This has to do with the decisions of courts on matters like contracts, ownership of property and employer-employee relationship. When matters relating to these are brought before the courts/judges, their decisions can translate to policymaking, or policy fine-turning, or "repolicying" altogether.

(d)   **Judicial Activism:** This instrument refers to the regulation of social and political activities in line with changing times. In this process, the courts specify what government cannot do and what it has to do in order to satisfy legal and constitutional obligations. Consequently, the courts can venture into, and adjudicate on, areas like the rights of individuals to social welfare services. It can also adjudicate in the operation of public institutions like schools, colleges and universities.

Through these instruments, the judiciary brings about judicial intervention which can, not only modify policies, but also redirect policy and action as well as moderate implementation activities. In a nutshell, the judiciary is that actor that ensures propriety, fairness, constitutionality, justice and moderation in the policy process.

3.2   Unofficial Policymakers

According to Popoola (2016), unofficial policymakers do not occupy formal public positions or political offices. They are not in government but they derive their relevance and policy-making roles from government and the official policy makers. Mainly, they harness their interests and demands, harmonise them and influence official

policymakers to factor them into the policymaking process. The unofficial policy makers (as described by Anderson) are people who do not possess legal authority to make binding policy decisions.

They do not occupy formal public positions or political offices. They are not in government but they derive their relevance and policy-making roles from government and the official policymakers. They are engaged, mainly, in harnessing their interests and demands, harmonising them and influencing the official policymakers to factor these interests and demands into the policy making process. These unofficial policy makers comprise interest groups, political parties and individual citizens.

Interest Groups
Interest groups are a fundamental partner in policy making. Citizens participate in the policy process through communication with policy makers. Such communication takes place individually (e.g., letters to elected representatives) and collectively. Interest groups facilitate collective communication. They are associations of individuals who share common interests, beliefs and aspirations regarding their demands.

They are civil society organisations that advance and advocate their interests and demands with a view to influencing the policy process.

Abutudu (1995) identified five such groups. The first group is made up of professional associations, labour and students such as the Nigerian Bar Association (NBA), Nigerian Medical Association (NMA), Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC), and National Association of Nigerian Students (NANS). The second group consists of the human rights groups like Civil Liberties Organisation (CLO) and Committee for the Defence of Human Rights (CDHR). The third group is made up of primordial groups that struggle for state power and the national cake such as Arewa Consultative Forum (ACF), Middle Belt Forum, Afenifere and Ohaneze.

The fourth group comprises the business class in manufacturing, banking and finance, agriculture, mining and commerce under the umbrella of the Nigerian Chamberof Commerce. The fifth category consists of numerous groups that are voluntary in nature and essentially mutually supportive in character such as town unions and community development associations. All these groups, according to Anderson (1979), perform an interest articulation function, that is, they express demands and present alternatives for policy actions. They may also supply public officials with much information, often of a technical sort – concerning the nature and possible consequences of policy proposals. In doing so, they contribute to the rationality of policymaking. Interest groups submit memoranda and draft policy proposals to the legislature, for example, the Nigerian National Assembly. They also mobilize the

public to support their advocacy on particular policy proposals. Besides, they work through their constituencies' representatives in the National Assembly to influence the policy process. Official policy makers cannot ignore interest groups because of the large following they command and because of their good organisation and prominent activities.

Political Parties
They refer to groups of like-minded people who have come together with the sole intention of gaining the control of the machinery of government. As they pursue their primary interest of gaining governmental power, they play prominent roles in the policy process. A political party that controls the lever of power tends to influence their members in government to formulate policies that will project and protect their party programmes and manifesto. Political parties that have minority members among official policy makers try to advocate and build coalitions for factoring their party programmes into policy proposals. Apart from this, they also wield considerable influence by providing alternatives to existing policies. Political parties are distinct from other citizen organisations. Rather than attempting to influence existing policy makers, parties seek to get their own members elected to policy-making positions. While interest groups seek influence on specific policy issues, parties seek influence on a wide spectrum of policy issues. Parties develop issue platforms, draft candidates, campaign on behalf of candidates, and work to get out the vote. In short, parties work to bring together citizens under a common banner.

While most people may think of parties only during election cycles, their policy influence extends beyond campaigns. While the rise of the media over the last thirty years has de-emphasised the power of parties in electoral politics, Eldersveld accurately points out that parties continue to play a dominant role in policy outcomes. First and foremost, the party that emerges dominant determines the direction policy will take.

The Media
The media are influential to policy outcomes because they help define social reality. The work of McCombs and Shaw supports the assertion that the media influence the salience of issues. As Lippmann observed in 1922, perceptions of reality are based on a tiny sampling of the world around us. No one can be everywhere, no one can experience everything. Thus, to a greater or lesser extent, all of us rely on media portrayals of reality.

Graber argues that the way people process information makes them especially vulnerable to media influence. First, people tend to pare down the scope of information they confront. Second, people tend to think schematically. When confronted with information, individuals will

fit that information into pre-existing schema. And, since news stories tend to lack background and context, schemata allow the individual to give the information meaning. In such a way, individuals recreate reality in their minds.

The data collected by Iyengar and Kinder show that television news, to a great extent, defines which problems the public considers most serious. Iyengar and Kinder refine the agenda setting dynamic to include what they call "priming."

Priming refers to the selective coverage of only certain events and the selective way in which those events are covered. Since there is no way to cover all events, or cover any event completely, selective decisions must be made. But, there are consequences.

By priming certain aspects of national life while ignoring others, television news sets the terms by which political judgments are rendered and political choices made (Iyengar and Kinder 1987:4). The implications for public policy are serious. If policy is a result of the problem recognition model that Theodoulou summarised earlier, then the problems that gain media recognition are much more likely to be addressed.

Individual Citizens

The interests and desires of common citizens are consequential for public policies (Lindbloom, 1986). Governments, all over the world, tend to listen and pay attention to what their citizens desire in order to minimise social unrest and avoid violent agitations. Consequently, citizens play vital roles in the policy making process. Citizens are voters, and through the electoral process, they help to produce basic changes in public policy (Anderson, 1979). Citizens can vote out any political party or the personalities involved if they are not satisfied with their policy programmes. Thus, they can bring about discontinuity in policy programmes with their voting power.

Individual citizens with great intellectual depth and versatility can make considerable impact on policy issues and policy choices. Government cannot ignore such people in policy matters because of their intellectual skills, analytical minds, and their facts and figures. Again, there are also citizens who, themselves, have served in governmental positions and capacities. Through their experiences and exposure in government, they influence the policy process by engaging in political activism and submitting memoranda on policy issues. They also articulate their policy proposals through the media (print or electronic) and through press conferences.

4.0   CONCLUSION

All actors in the policy process need to be alive to their responsibilities of formulating good and beneficial policies. Formulated policies should be faithfully implemented for the good of the generality of the people in a country. Corruption, which is a cankerworm in the implementation stage, must be confronted headlong. It is generally believed in Nigeria that most of our current policies are good, but implementation is woefully poor because of the hydra-headed problem of corruption. Policy evaluation is also fundamental as policies need to be reviewed and fine-tuned periodically, so as to ensure that they remain relevant and useful in solving the problems for which they were formulated, as well as emerging challenges.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able identify the key actors in public policy making and the roles they play. While Popoola (2016) categorised them alongside Anderson as Official and Unofficial actors, Mathew (2012) classified them as institutional and non-institutional. The difference in nomenclature notwithstanding, the actors are the same as well as their role as shown in this unit.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Who are the official and unofficial actors in Public policy process?

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UNIT 4   THE PUBLIC POLICY MAKERS AND THEIR ENVIRONMENT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Policy making cannot be studied apart from the environment or context in which it occurs. According to systems theory, demands for policy actions stem from problems and conflict in the environment and are transmitted to the political system by groups, officials, and others. At the same time, the environment both limits and directs what policy makers can effectively do. The environment broadly viewed includes geographical characteristics such as climate, natural resources, and topography; demographic variables such as population size, age distribution, and spatial location; political culture; social structure or the class system; and the economic system. Even other nations become important when defence or foreign policies are made. This discussion in this unit will focus on pair of these environmental factors that have received much attention from political scientist, although not always from a policy studies perspective; political culture and socio- economic culture.

2.0   OBJECTIVE

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

• identify how the environment affects public policies vis-à-vis the public policy makers.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Policy Environment and the Policy Makers

The environment where a policy is formulated and implemented exercises a lot of influence on the making and successful implementation of that policy. Constraints of the policy makers also come from the environment. These constraints can be political, economical or social issues.

3.2   Political Culture/Ecology

Every society, according to Anderson (1997), has a culture that differentiates its members' values and life-style from those of other societies. Most social scientists seem to agree that culture shapes or influences social action but do not fully determine it.

The political environment involves the Leadership styles as well as Political system. The leadership style and political system in any society plays is major impact on the nation policy. Hence Politics is a function of the environment in which it is practiced consequently politics is the same anywhere in the world. However the political terrain is different due to social, political, economic and cultural dimensions and the difference in environmental variables makes the practice of politics different from country to country. The Nigeria's environment is not different and its political culture is probably the most difficult to generalise not only because of its cultural and linguistic diversity of the Nigerian people also because of other factors such as religion, ethnicity, regional. There is no denying that a country with so much cultural and linguistic diversity, will present analytical problem of political and cultural dimension. Many authors and scholars in recent years have tried to overcome this problem by advancing several approaches and perspectives, which include ethnicity, ethnic pluralism, and ethno politics, institutional, structural, political economy approach with emphasis on materialism, probendalism, class and underdevelopments, clientelistic patronage politics.

However from a general point of view, political instability in Nigeria over the years has immensely affected political behaviour of Nigerian society and this was prevalent in Nigeria before 1999 (3rd republic). The main indices of political instability in Nigeria include the high turnover of governments (regime, structure, institutions, and personnel). Occasioned by military coups, inconclusive and contested electoral outcomes, frequent changes in policy, political violence, and crisis of legitimacy, for example between 1960 and 1999 there were ten known military coups. Six of these were successful involving of government

being overthrown 1966 (2), and in   1975, 1983, 1985, 1993 even 1998, in a replacement malaise, due to the demise of Army dictator Abacha. These were in addition to many unsuccessful coups. Within the same period the country had three civilian government, Tafawa Balewa, Shagari, and perhaps Shonekan. The period of rule during this period was averaging three years in any life of Nigeria government until the third republic that is now relatively stable.

The situation is no different at State and Local levels, the situation is even more complex, for example at the inception of Nigeria, the states membership was three, but now 36, in addition to the federal territory and the local governments that were 306 now stands at 774 in 2014.

One important factor in the formation of political culture in Nigerian society is the character of the state. This can be broken down into three elements; the colonial nature of the state, its lack of relative autonomy, and the federal system of government. The basic point about the post colonial state in Nigeria is that it originated under the colonial rule, and that the perceptions and attitudes which attended the later rule is a legacy of the colonial rule even though efforts have been made by successive governments to put those perceptions to rest, but to no avail. The post colonial Nigeria is built around law and order, which was the hallmark of colonial legacy and the colonial government was itself an authoritarian authority, which relied on law and order as an instrument of coercion to sustain state power, both of which are conducive to military governance that characterised Nigeria for most of her existence as an independent entity. To facilitate its regulatory role and extractive roles, the post-colonial state centralises the 'production' and distribution of national resources and in the context of state capitalism, this encourages the perception of the state as an instrument of accumulation and the patron-client ties as the dominant of political relations.

Another attribute of the pre-colonial state with deep political roots in the colonial past is the negative attitude to government and its operators. The colonial state, was imported from Europe grew apart from state, and the society meant to serve the coloniser's interests. The nationalists led the anti- colonial movement, developed a notion for the society that the state was alien, what Osaghae (1998) described as 'interest begotten idea. The perception becomes ingrained in the national consciousness. The consequence was that society failed to develop any interest or stake in the state's well being, and sustenance, such that would have generated accountability, transparency, responsiveness and other aspects of moral ethos. Consequently, (Oyinbo or Ebo) white man does not deserve the citizen's obligations or duties, could be plundered to feather private nests. It is a popular Nigeria saying that 'government business is

nobody's businesses and therefore there is nothing wrong in stealing from government funds, especially if not strictly for the benefit of the individual but also member of his community. This negative attitude may have served the needs of anti-colonial situation, negative attitudes towards the state and government became Achilles heel of the post- colonial state and many of the problems afflicted and disabled. In the past successive governments have tried to rectify this problem, there have been efforts such, as Green Revolution, JaJi Declaration (Obasanjo 1977) the Ethical Revolution, (Shagari) Anti-Corruption and Patriotism, Discipline and Self Reliance Mobilisation Program (Military regime, 1980s and 1990s) War Against Indiscipline (WAI,), Mass Mobilisation for Economic Recovery, Self Reliance and Social Justice (MAMSER) War Against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAIC) Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) to mention but few.

Also important to political behaviour is the government role in its distribution role. The state in playing this role has run into counter-productive gesture as 'Father Christmas' who distributes the national cake by the vast majority of the society. This perception has seriously hindered the development of the necessary social and political correlates of public finance. Most people believe that the government is a reservoir of what Osaghae (1998) reluctantly calls 'free money.

Another key factor is that a change in government usually results in policy change and new formation, with the capacity of destroying an old political cultural formation. This regime change at the federal, state and local levels, have also been attended by massive structural, institutional and policy change. Government ministries, departments, agencies, parastatals and other institutions were in an almost permanent state of restructuring with their executive heads constantly changed. These changes were necessary to affect discontinuity with previous dispensation as part of its legitimating process. Particularly notable in this regard were frequent changes in the revenue allocation system, taxation, monetary and financial regulation announced in the annual budget.

Conclusively, any country's political culture reflects the impact of its history on the way people think about policies and their society as a whole. In Nigeria's case, the lack of unity and support for the regime and, at times, for the very existence of Nigeria has plagued it since the country gained its independence. What's more, the actions of the elite since 1960 have undoubtedly left the country more alienated and polarised than it was forty years ago. That alienation and polarisation, in turn, are reflected in what average people do politically, thus adding yet another strain to an already overloaded system.

3.3   Social Culture / Ecology

This includes such factors as: (1) level of literacy. If level of literacy is low, ignorance will be on the high side. This will also reduce peoples participation in policy making thereby firing the policy makers, and policy implementers the opportunity their selfish interest.   (2) Ethnicity. Nigeria is a heterogeneous country with many cultural differences which influence the life styles and values of the people. Each of their tribes tries to protect the interest of their people. Often times this is done at the expense of others with the result that most policies in Nigeria are crippled became of ethnic sentiments or interest. (3) Religion. Nigeria is a 'secular society' but finds it hard to make a unified policy that can accommodate every member of the society. Sharia practices and policies are offensive to other religious practices. (4) Dichotomy between the haves and the have-nots. There is a sharp distinction between the rich, who are in the minority, and the poor. The former uses their position to influence the policy in their favour.

3.4   Economic Culture/ Ecology

It is true that a society's level of economic development will impose limits on what government can do in providing public goods and services to its citizens. This fact is nonetheless occasionally overlooked by those who assume that the failure of government to act on problems is invariably due to official recalcitrance or unresponsiveness or citizens' reluctance to pay higher taxes, rather than limited resources. Clearly one factor that affecting what governments can provide in terms of welfare program is the availability of economic resources.

To that effect, Nigeria is classified as a mixed economy emerging market, and has already reached lower middle income status according to the World Bank, with its abundant supply of natural resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, transport sectors and stock exchange (the Nigerian Stock Exchange), which is the second largest in Africa. Nigeria is ranked 31st in the world in terms of GDP (PPP) as of 2011. Nigeria is the United States' largest trading partner in sub- Saharan Africa and supplies a fifth of its oil (11% of oil imports). It has the seventh- largest trade surplus with the U.S. of any country worldwide. Nigeria is the 50th- largest export market for U.S. goods and the 14th-largest exporter of goods to the U.S. The United States is the country's largest foreign investor. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) projected economic growth of 9% in 2008 and 8.3% in 2009. The IMF further projects a 8% growth in the Nigerian economy in 2011.

Unfortunately, previously, economic development had been hindered by years of military rule, corruption, and mismanagement and the

corruption factor has not left us we were deeply into economic recession that led to some state not paying their workers' salaries again but for the intervention by the federal government. These are more impact on public policies.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The social, political and economical environment (milieu) within which policy development takes place is critical to the type and nature of the policy formulated. The environment is, therefore, both the source and the recipient of the policy that is developed. Within the social environment are various competing, conflicting and collaborative institutions, individuals, groups and both formal and informal structures with an interest and role in policy formulation.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit examined the environmental effects of the policy making and its implementation. We hope you have learnt the necessary feature of the policy making and implementation. In the next unit, we will discuss the political system process and forms of government.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the importance of ecology in public policy process?

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UNIT 5   IMPACT OF THE ENVIRONMENT ON POLICY MAKING AND IMPLEMENTATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
      3.1   Political Environment
      3.2   Economic Environment
      3.3   Social Environment
      3.4   Major Contributors to Public Policy Making and Implementation in Nigeria
      3.5   The Situation Today
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Environment within which polices are enunciated and implemented exerts a lot of influence in the result of such polices. The impact of the environment could be perceived from the socio-political and economic factors. These factors contribute immensely in shaping the nature and direction of policies (Sule, 2003). Taking Nigeria's economic, political and social milieu into account, you will begin to appreciate why a Nigerian who scored 230 in JAMB will not get admission into the Federal University in his State, while someone who scored 200 from state far from where the university is situated will get admission. This same environment makes itself so pronounced during the general elections. Even after the elations, the activities of the legislature are usually tilted towards the ethnic groups whose member won the elections and so it goes on even in the appointment of selected political appointees who assists those elected in administering their mandate. Unfortunately, the same environment is paramount in the national assembly and even the judiciary. What plays out usually is the power of coalition, necessitated by ethnicity and religious fanaticism.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the Political environment affect the formulation and implementation of public policies
- describe how the economic environment affect the formulation and implementation of public policies
- state how the social environment affect the formulation and implementation of public policies.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Political Environment

Political environment refers to forces and issues emanating from the political decisions of government, which are capable of altering the expected outcome and value of a given economic action, by changing the probability of achieving business objectives. Ibeto (2011) described the political environment as factors arising from changes in government policies and programmes,which influence the ability of economic entities in achieving their goal. Some of the sub-factors as:

(i)   **Leadership Style:** The nature of public policy could lead to the emergence of political leadership that falls within either of the following – Autocratic (Military or Civilian Dictatorship style); Laissesz-faire; and Democratic. Similarly, the type of leadership style can influence the type of policy making that a country or society is to embark upon.

(ii)   **Political System:** The nature of a political system could be as a result of the existing public policy. Thus, a political system could be Capitalist or Socialist; Multi- party or One-party (Unitary); Democratic or Autocratic; Civilian or Military. Once a particular policy is put in place, it could affect the perpetuity or otherwise of the country's political system. The only exception is where the people themselves are dissatisfied with a particular policy and call for a change. Sometimes, these changes come peacefully or violently through agitation and confrontation.

(iii) **Political Stability or Instability:** Certain obnoxious policies, could lead to political instability. Yet, we need political stability for orderly progress of the nation both socially and economically. The political instability which Nigeria has been witnessing since her independence can be attributed as the cause of the deplorable state in which the Nigerian citizen is living.

There is however,a link between the political and economic environment which is why several studies such as Richard, Devinney, George and Johnson (2009), and Ibeto (2011), have shown that the effort expended by multinational business managers in achieving their goal in Nigeria has not been very successful. Richards et al (2009), maintain that the successful performance of multinational companies depends to a great extent on the political environment of the host country. The multinational business managers in Nigeria operates in a dynamic political environment characterised by risks of multiple taxation, currency devaluation, inflation, repatriation, expropriation, confiscation,

campaigns against foreign goods, mandatory labour benefit legislation, kidnapping, terrorism, and civil wars (Griffen,

2005). Actions taken by government such as regulatory, legal framework, and political changes may decrease business income and acts as barriers to foreign investment (Mark & Nwaiwu, 2015).

3.2   Economic Environment

The economic environment is that part of society pertaining to systems of production, consumption and management of resources. Elements within these systems include financial systems operating within a country, money, industry, goods and services, employment and the various stakeholders associated with these elements. Policy makers will need to consider the economic environment in which health policy is to be designed and implemented and the effect of this environment on health and well-being. This is seen as significant in countries where new economic models are emerging in countries with new democratic governments. "Economic issues acting at the country level influence clinical practice. In terms of public expenditure on health services, the overall level of economic development along with the relative importance attached to health in relation to other social needs has a profound effect upon the extent and quality of the clinical services available. Economic cycles of growth and recession which may affect different subgroups of the population in different ways, influence the direct funding of health services, the provision of welfare benefits, expenditure on health research and such cycles have indirect effects mediated by levels of employment (Tansella & Thornicroft, 1998). "Economic perspectives contribute to policy at a macro-or system level, in terms of analysis of the overall organisation and financing of mental health services, as well as consideration of the effects of mental ill-health on the economy as a whole (such as lost productivity and unemployment). At a more micro-level of service providers and users, key concerns include need assessment, the cost-effectiveness of different treatment strategies and elicitation of user preferences (Chisholm, 2000).

Specifically, there are

(i)   Government's Fiscal and Tax Policy which indicates the rate of socio-economic development;

(ii)   Employment Opportunities for qualified citizens'

(iii)   Technological Development: here, we find that policies are enunciated so that a country at the lower rung of technological

ladder can strive to move ahead. Once a country is developing technologically, he will not only be able to provide the basic infrastructural facilities for the welfare of the citizens, but will also provide the necessary tools for individual development. In addition, public policies are made more effective by using the instrument of technology though the process of effective data/information gathering analysis and decision-making.

3.3   Social Environment

The social environment involves Social structures and systems together form a society. They include nuclear, extended families and kinship networks, community, neighbourhood and social networks leadership patterns, religion, caste and class systems. Social structures and systems also include cultural perspectives on illness attribution and management. This includes the formal and informal belief systems that influence the understanding of mental health and mental illness in a culture and the culturally accepted methods by which help is sought. It has been argued, "every country must formulate a mental health policy based on its own social and cultural realities" (Gureje & Alem, 2000).

Some scholars refer to it as socio-cultural environment, and they consist of
a.   Population growth rate and age profile
b.   Population health, education and social mobility, and attitudes to these
c.   Population employment patterns, job market freedom and attitudes to work
d.   Press attitudes, public opinion, social attitudes and social taboos
e.   Lifestyle choices and attitudes to these
f.   Socio-Cultural changes

The most resounding of this social factor are

(i)   **Multi-ethnic** delivery in which we have cultural differences within a heterogeneous society as witnessed in Nigeria. The culture influences the values and life-style of the society. Since every ethnic group tries to protect its own cultural views and strongly opposes any attempt to subsume its culture under others; it becomes difficult to make policies that can take care of the interests of these diverse groups in countries like Nigeria.

(ii)   **Directly related to ethnic diversity is Religion.** The practice of which in Nigeria is Secular. Yet, it makes difficult, policy formulation that can take care of every member of the society. For instance, the policy of SHARIA legal system is highly opposed by Nigerians who practice some other religious faiths.

(iii)   Level of Literacy: Here, we find that where the level of literacy is low ignorance is high. Hence, very few people participate in the policy making process. By so doing, they capitalise on the ignorance of the society and sometimes make obnoxious policies that would not be in the interest of many. For instance, Deregulation of the "Down-stream Oil Policy" in Nigeria is seen as an attempt to impose on Nigerians the will of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) which is not in the overall interest of many; rather, it is in the interest of the few who constitute the Authority and policy makers.

(iv)   Dichotomy between the Rich and the Poor: Here, economic disequilibrium often leads to the creation of class distinction among the citizenry. On the one hand is the very rich group comprising mall section of the society, on the other side, is the majority group who are socially and economically under-privileged. The small but rich group uses its advantageous position to influence policies in order to protect its selfish interests.

Generally speaking, the social environment acts as a Catalyst for positive change in the direction which policies should go. In the area of provision of social amenities, a lot can be achieved if a responsive government can listen to the yawning of the people by ensuring equitable distribution of social amenities. Secondly, where there are glaring cases of inequity, certain government policies can be put in place to correct such imbalances. For instance, in Nigeria, we have the following among others: Federal Character Policy; dimension Polices into Secondary Schools/Colleges; Recruitment in Federal Service Policy such as Catchments Area Policy; National Industrial Policy or Expatriate Quota Policy. Etc.

3.4   Major Contributors to Public Policy Making and Implementation in Nigeria

Policy making is done at the strategic level while policy implementation is done at the Operational level of an organisation's hierarchy, and those who operate at the strategic Level particularly in government are members of the political class while members of the Bureaucratic class carries out activities at the operational level. This, therefore, presupposes that the public servant who naturally belongs to the bureaucratic class is not and should not consider himself as a policy maker.

This position could submit itself to debate on two fronts. First, the public servant is a partner with the politician in the collaborative effort

of policy-making ; and secondly, it is the people who decide policy-not the policy servant or the politician. As earlier posted, public policy is a sanctioned course of action addressed to a particular problem or group of related problems which affect society at large. Public policy-making, therefore, denotes the whole process of articulating and defining problems, formulating possible solutions into political demands, and channelling the demands into the political system.

Seeking sanctions or legitimating of preferred courses of action, legitimating and implementation, monitoring and review (feedback), and who participates in what role in this process all depend to a great extent on the structure of political decision- making.

In view of the foregoing, it was equally posited that a member of the bureaucratic class is not and should not consider himself as a policy-maker. Admittedly, he has an important role to play in this process. He can collect, collate and analyse data; and he can pose options or alternative courses, of action. He can also advise on possible consequences of various options. But the question of choice of a course of action and the sanctioning of same is political action which is the domain of politicians. For instance, in Britain today, Ministers are determined to demonstrate that they and not the public servants make policies.

3.5   The Situation Today

The democratically elected civilian administration, which came into being in Nigeria in May, 1999, hopefully portends the beginning of an enduring democracy in the country and an apparent movement away from the drift. This has so far, justified applicability of our knit arrangement in the levels of operation in policy making and implementation. A clearer picture is, therefore, emerging. At the apex of the strategic level of operation are the elected officials or political class" represented by the Legislature. By convention and constitutional provisions, this group makes laws and passes bills. The fact that must be appreciated is that each of these members is armed with his party's 'manifesto', which arguably, enhanced his being voted into position. This, therefore, presupposes that whatever laws made or bills passed into laws are, to a large extent, influenced by their party's manifesto. These laws are then passed on to the executive – a political class comprising of both elected and appointed members, for implementation. Still operating at that strategic level, the executive translates the laws into policies and passes them down to it machinery of implementation, which is the bureaucratic class. The bureaucratic class therefore, religiously implements the policies within the confines of their discretions.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Public policy making and implementation constitute the bedrock of government business in that it is the first activity that would channel activities of government towards its goal of improving the welfare of the people. In the conduct of government business numerous other activities take place but these must be determined by the public policy. For instance, in the pursuit of improving the health care delivery for the citizens, there must be formulated policy such as immunisation, roll-back malaria, maternal health; HIV and AIDS etc. this unit seeks to bring to the fore the impact of both the political, economic and social environment on such issues. The unit equally discusses the contribution of the major factors such as members of the political class and members of the bureaucratic class and how they formulate and implement policies. The relationship between the legislative, the executive and the bureaucratic class in this quest is informative.

5.0   SUMMARY

The corruption and mismanagement of public resources that has always been associated with any political administration in Nigeria is driven by three factors
i)   the power of capitalism which seeks to transfer public wealth into private hand,
ii)   ethnic cleavages which translates into winner takes it all politics in the country and
iii)   Religious fanaticism. The three points reflects the environment of Nigeria public- making process. Before now, the economic ills of the society were blamed on political instability occasioned by military coups in the country. It later shifted to ethnic politics that is still rampant today but corruption is now blamed world over for the underdevelopment of the country during the PDP's 16 year domination in the country democratic escape.

These points and lots more were treated in this unit to give the student clearer view of the why of public policy in Nigeria.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

How does the environment affect policy making and implementation?

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