

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

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Introduction

Introduction

This course, PAD810: Public Policy Analysis is a 3 -credit unit course consisting of 20 units. It is one-semester course for students offering Master in Public Administration. Each unit is to be covered in 2 hours and it is a core course.

This course, PAD810: Public Policy Analysis is a three (3) credit unit compulsory for students studying public administration and related programmes in the Faculty of Management Sciences.

The course has been arranged for you in twenty distinct but related units of study activities. In this course guide, you will find out what you need to know about the aims and objectives of the course, components of the course material, arrangement of the study units, assignments, and examinations.

Course Contents

The course has 5 module and 25 units. Characteristics, (3units) Methods and Approaches in Policy Analysis (3 units) Theories of Policy Making, (4 units), Modules of Policy Making (3 units), and Tools and Techniques in Policy Analysis with 3 units including a case study of National Industrial Policy. The citing of the case study is to enhance your understating of the gap between policy making and policy implementation in Nigeria.

Course Guide

The aim of this course is to enrich your knowledge on the concept of policy, its features and implementation process. Therefore, you are introduced to:

1. Concepts of Public Policy and Policy Analysis
2. Different methods and approaches in Policy Analysis. System elite
3. Institutional and Group Theories
4. Models in policy-making techniques and tools of in policy analysis.

Measurable Learning Outcomes

Upon successful completion of these modules, you will be able to:

- Explain the Policy Conception and Characteristics
- Explain the Concept and Field of Public Policy Analysis
- Outline the Uses and Types of Public Policies
- Discuss the Prescriptive, Descriptive, Micro and Macro Approaches
- Discuss the Methods and Approaches in Policy Analysis
- Explain the Perspective, Descriptive, Micro and Macro Approaches in Policy Analysis
- Discuss the Approaches to Public Policy Analysis
- Discuss the System and Elite Theories
- Explain the Theories of Policy Making
- Discuss the Institutional and Group Theories
- Explain the Rational-Comprehensive, Satisfying and Mixed Scanning Models
- Discuss the public policy process and implementation
- Discuss the actors in Policy Analysis.

Self-Assessment-Exercise (SAEs)

Two Self-assessment Exercises each are incorporated in the study material for each unit. Self-assessment Exercise helps students to be a realistic judge of their own performance and to improve their work. Promotes the skills of reflective practice and self-monitoring; Promotes academic integrity through student self-reporting of learning progress; Develops self-directed learning; Increases student motivation and Helps students develop a range of personal, transferrable skills.

Summary

Each Unit contained a summary of the entire unit. A summary is a brief statement or restatement of main points, especially as a conclusion to a work: a summary of a chapter. A brief is a detailed outline, by heads and subheads, of a discourse (usually legal) to be completed: a brief for an argument.

Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

The materials contained Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content. The possible Self-assessments answers enable you to understand how well you're performing in the contents. It is a way of analysing your work performance and any areas for growth. Reflecting on your strengths, weaknesses, values and accomplishments can help you determine what goals to work toward next.

Course Material

The course material package is comprises of following Modules and unit structure:

MODULE 1

Unit 1: Concept of Policy and Public Policy

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 Definition of Policy
 - 1.3.2 Concept of Public Policy
- 1.4 Public Policy Hierarchy
- 1.5 Characteristics of Public Policy
- 1.6 Forms of Public Policy
- 1.7 The Role of Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

This unit will be discussing concept of Public Policy, Public Policy Hierarchy, Explain the Forms of Public Policy. As you all know, Government policies are becoming increasingly convoluted, vague, and unpredictable as a result of a wide range of competing interests. Citizens are becoming more discerning, demanding, and well-informed, all of which contribute to a rise in the need for individualized assistance. Important policy concerns, such as socioeconomic need, low educational accomplishment, and poor health, are inextricably linked and cannot be solved by single departments or agencies. Government reform initiatives in Nigeria, like those in other nations, focused primarily on increasing the effectiveness of service delivery to the general populace. According to the materials, the process of formulating policies entails first determining what should be done, which entails analyzing the underlying rationale behind policies as well as their efficacy, then determining how the tasks should be accomplished, and finally evaluating, on a continual basis, the degree to which the desired results are being achieved. Though not a precise science, policymaking is notoriously difficult to put into practice. As with any process, there are a variety of tools and strategies that can facilitate the required effort.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Define the term Policy
- ii. Explain the concept of Public Policy
- iii. Outline the Public Policy Hierarchy
- iv. State the Forms of Public Policy



1.3 Concept of Policy and Public Policy

1.3.1 Definition of Policy

Simply put, what does it mean when we talk about "policy"? The definition of policy is "a plan of action adopted or proposed by a government, political party, corporation, or individual." Policymaking is the process by which governments implement their political agenda through programs and actions to bring about the "outcomes" (or results) desired change in the real world. The process by which governments formulate their policies has been labeled as such. Non-intervention, promotion, distribution, redistribution, and regulation (via means such as licensing), encouragement of voluntary change (through means such as grant aid), and direct provision of public services are all examples of possible policy approaches. One typical policy strategy is to do nothing (Musa, Ibrahim and Yakubu, 2020).

1.3.2 Concept of Public Policy

Public Policy

The term "public policy" has been variously defined by academics. According to Ikelegbe (2006), public policy is the intended direction of government or a government agency. Public policy, according to Egonmwan (2000), is "significant governmental action." Public policy, as described by Olamiyi (1998), is the allocation of time, money, and other resources to solve an issue via public administration. Public policy, according to Ikelegbe (2006), is any action or course of action taken by the government, or any action or suggested course of action taken by the government, with the intention of achieving a certain goal or set of goals. The preceding makes clear that public policy is governmental intervention in an effort to address social issues. One explanation of "public policy" is the government's endeavor to solve a problem by passing or carrying out some set of rules or regulations or making some sort of decision or taking some sort of action. Crime, education, foreign policy, health, and social problems are just few of the many areas where public policy can be put to use. It's true that public policies are more common in the United States, but they're also in effect in a number of other countries, including the United Kingdom. There are three stages in the procedure for developing a new public policy: Setting goals, developing alternatives, and putting them into action might take anywhere from a few weeks to several years.

George and Klauss (2000) define public policy as "an publicly proclaimed objective that is backed by a sanction," where the sanction can be either a reward or a punishment. "a law, a rule, a statute, an edict, a regulation, or an order" is the form "a public policy" can take while being implemented. Non-intervention, regulation (through means like licensing), encouragement of voluntary change (through means like grants), and direct provision of public services are all examples of public policy's many conceivable manifestations.

According to Geurts (2010), governmental action taken in reaction to a political problem or national emergency is public policy. According to our principles, we arrived to this

conclusion. In order to close the gap that exists between these ideals and standards and a given circumstance, policies are developed. When applied in this setting, the term "public policy" always refers to the decisions and acts taken by the government, as well as the goals that serve as the basis for those decisions and activities. The decisions and activities of the government that have the best chance of achieving a desired goal are those that are guided by policy.

Edward (1987) suggests that the process of formulating public policy should be seen of as one that is decision-centered and goal-driven.

According to Egonmwan (2000), other characteristics of public policy include the following:

(a) The formation of public policy is an exercise in power; it involves the manipulation of dependence relationships; and to the extent that it involves the solution of societal problems for constrained circumstances, it invariably involves political conflict.

b). It is not simply a continuous process of decisions and activities; it takes place primarily but not entirely inside the formal and legal organizational structure and agencies of the state. c). It is not only a process that is ongoing (public bureaucracy). It requires a range of decisions to be made, but the primary course of action or specific instructions to be followed might not be one of them. For example, you might not be allowed to utilize your own personal discretion.

c). Because it is focused on the future, this entails that it is perpetually concerned with probability and economic conditions that are open to transformation. As a result, it necessitates the use of logic rather than the simple use of power.

On the other hand, while it is believed that public policies will express and consolidate the goals that will serve public interests as justified by the government, sectional or self-seeking motivations may be uncovered after conducting a thorough investigation.

Interaction with a broad spectrum of a critical mass of external interest group is typically required for the development of public policy. Examples of such groups include civil society organizations, advocacy groups, traders, farmers, professionals, industrialists, and other development associations.

According to Egonmwan (2000), the steps involved in the policy formulation process are as follows: (i) Goal formulation, in which multiple groups operate with different and frequently conflicting objectives; (ii) Problem identification and definition as a result of the partial ignorance problem; and (iii) Agenda setting, which involves attempts by individuals and groups to influence policy decisions. (iv) Identifying alternative policies and assessing those alternative policies (analysis of policy option) (v) Policy choice. According to Egonmwan (2000), the results of the process described above are typically articulated in the official papers of the government. These documents might take the form of legislative acts, decrees, policy statements, directives, laws, and guidelines.

Formulation of policy draws from a variety of models and theories, the most prominent of which are the rational comprehensive model, the satisfying model, the instrumentalist model, the mixed scanning model, the facet design model, and the choice theory of planning. In the context of the Nigerian environment, the choice theory of planning,

which was developed by Thomas Reiner and Paul Davidoff, and the facet design theory of planning, which was developed by Dror, are not particularly popular.

James (1960) provides a definition of policy as a deliberate plan of action that is carried out by an actor or group of actors in order to address a problem or other subject of concern. This idea of policy places the emphasis on what was really done, as opposed to what is proposed or planned, and it distinguishes a policy from a decision, which is a selection made from a number of options that are in competition with one another. The policies that constitute public policy are those that are formulated by governmental agencies and authorities. The fact that a political system's "authorities" are the ones who establish public policies gives these policies their distinctive qualities, as a result of which they are called "public." The Provisional Ruling Council, the Armed Forces, the Ruling Council, the Presidency, the Legislature, Councillors, and so on is all examples of such authorities. According to Mbiele (2006), the definition of public policy is the general articulation of the intentions, goals, and objectives of the people, along with the adoption of actions that are practical for the achievement of targeted interests and the fulfilment of needs.

To put it another way, public policy is comprised of the objectives and presumptions that guide the actions of the government and do not in any way contradict what has been said above. It serves as guidance for the actions and inactions of the government (Starling, 1974) (Starling, 1974).

In order to formulate policies, the government must make decisions, such as whether or not to do something, how much of something to do, how little of something else to do, or whether or not to do anything at all (Starling, 1974) (Starling, 1974).

It follows that an attempt by a government to not act is considered a policy as a result of this. According to Smith (1974), the formation of public policy is "a rational activity of government that involves planning." Formulating a policy involves a mashup of political and strategic thinking.

A more accurate definition of public policy would be the government's response to an issue, whether that response is action or inaction, with the goal of solving the problem to reach a desired end. (Hugo, 1972) It's possible to define a policy as a plan of action or inaction that's meant to reach specific goals. This sense is intrinsic to the word itself. This idea involves the conscious decisions to do nothing in the face of a problem (Hugo, 1972).

A policy can be thought of as "a course of action selected from among several alternatives in accordance with certain predetermined criteria." From this description, we can infer that planning and public policy are distinct concepts, despite their shared feature—the need for deliberate action. As Anderson (1975) puts it, policy is "what is genuinely done as opposed to what is planned or intended." This helps us to separate the concept of policy from others, such as "choice," for example. It is also essential to distinguish between government policy and private organization policy when attempting to define public policy. This is because policymaking is the responsibility of both government and business entities. Thus, "those policies established by governmental bodies and officials" (Anderson, 1975) might be thought of as public policy, which is a

course of action selected from a set of alternatives using a set of criteria. Planning is like public policy in that both entail deliberate action, but as we can see from the definition above, the two are distinct concepts. Therefore, one meaning of "public policy" is "those policies made by governmental agencies and personnel" (Anderson, 1975). Anderson identifies the following as the top five considerations in public policy:

For one, it's something you do to get somewhere.

Second, it's not just a collection of random options; it's a strategy. Third, it describes what the government really does rather than what it intends to achieve. Fourth, it can be either productive or detrimental in its operations (inactions). Fifth, it's based on a prior case law and a ruling by an administrative agency.

The above-mentioned justification for David Easton's method as an additional examination of public policies is especially useful, since Easton defines public policy as the authorized allocation of finite social values. Due to the scarcity of societal ideals, Easton explains public policies in this way (Easton, 1965).

The example that follows shows how closely policy development and implementation are intertwined if the desired outcome must conform to the expected consequences, as established by a particular environment (Geurts, 2010:23).

Many of the reforms that have taken place in our government over the past few decades have mirrored practices seen in the private sector, with the goal of increasing productivity, effectiveness, and value for the taxpayer. Not nearly as much thought was given to how the policymaking process influences the ability of policymakers to meet the needs of constituents in a world that is becoming increasingly complex, ambiguous, and unpredictable (Smith, 2002). This means there is a lot of potential for growth and improvement in this area. True, government is supposed to be in charge of making and enforcing laws and regulations. It is obvious that robust backing is needed if the participants in the chain are going to cooperate based on shared aims and results. As a result, any future plans for the e-government should prioritize putting purpose into practice (David, 2000).

A government's primary responsibility, as stated by Nyong (2005), is to provide its people have access to the resources they require to lead happy and healthy lives. Included under this category are provisions for things like food, education, health care, housing, electricity, transportation, infrastructure like roads and ATMs, protection of the environment, and so on.

The government's role is to facilitate rapid economic growth, bring unemployment down to a tolerable level, keep prices steady, and ensure a fair and balanced trade balance, among other things, because people have a wide range of requirements that are only increasing over time (Musa, Ibrahim Yakubu, 2020).

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. explain the Meaning of Policy
2. Discuss the concept of Public Policy

1.4 Public Policy Hierarchy

The hierarchy of public policy is seen as a "unbroken claim" through which policy must travel before a solution to a particular problem may be found (Akindele and Olaopa, 2004). According to Akindele and Olaopa (2004), the Public Policy Handbook can be broken down into four primary categories: political policy, executive policy, administrative policy, and technical policy.

It is generally accepted that the Political Policy serves as a basic policy process through which conversations are held with various broad aims. It is political in the sense that the government has made a choice with the intention of resolving some issues, the nature of which may include more than one. To be more detailed, public policy is the process of determining the overarching goals of significant policy initiatives in general terms. A result of such a wide policy is to give a basic framework within which successful policy may be worked out. This is one of the effects of good policy (Musa, Ibrahim Yakubu, 2020).

The term "Executive Policy" refers to the effective reduction of "general" or "political" policy into "cabinet policy," in which concrete, practical aims express themselves. This concept is widely recognized. After this has been completed, the policy will now shift its focus to administrative sectors or policy. This part of the market is referred to as the "actuation" sector. To put it another way, it is a location where ministerial duty is exercised. This is the structure that the ministerial administration takes when it is put into action. In conclusion, the technical policy is an everyday practice that is adopted by officials in the process of formulating administrative policies for the government. At this point in the process, experienced technocrats and higher-level civil employees are tasked with interpreting the substance of the policy in terms of its implementation. Technocrats are responsible for decoding the contents of policies in order to ascertain whether or not they are positive in relation to the policies' stated purpose (Musa, Ibrahim Yakubu, 2020).

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Examine the Public Policy Hierarchy
2. Explain the Different Categories of Public Policy

1.5 Characteristics of Public Policy

Ikelegbe, (2006) cited in Musa, Ibrahim Yakubu (2020) identified the following characteristics of public policy:

- a. It is dynamic in nature, which means that it is susceptible to ongoing changes.
- b. It makes the most of available possibilities and outlines strategies for overcoming challenges in the pursuit of a goal.
- c. It refers to a pattern of behavior carried out by an individual, a group, or the government.
- d. It is an activity that involves actors and components from both the government and non-government organizations, among other things.

Importance of Governmental Regulations

The following are some of the reasons why public policy is important:

- a. It is a vehicle through which the will of the people can be expressed.
- b. It is a primary instrument in the hands of the government.
- c. It fosters the growth of the people on a social, political, economic, and administrative level.
- d. It is a spoken, written, or implied basic guide that all administrative management operations must adhere to.

1.6 Forms of Public Policy

Different parts of society are subject to distinctly different policies. There are many distinct sorts of policies, each of which can be classified according to a unique set of characteristics; for example, public policy can pertain to issues of housing, education, health, transportation, agriculture, industry, etc. Intent, operational process, issues, and clientele are some of the other categories that can be used to classify policies (Ikelegbe, cited in Musa, Ibrahim Yakubu, 2020). On the other hand, Lowi (1970) distinguished between three types of policies: distributive, regulatory, and redistributive.

a. Policies Regarding Distribution

These are policies that pertain to tariffs or taxes, as well as the distribution of public amenities and other such things. According to Ikelegbe (1996), distributive policies are ones that involve gradual dispersal, unit to various parts of the population and to persons and organizations. In reality, these policies are favors, rewards, or patronage handed out to a small number of people.

The process of dispersal is ongoing, and as a result, individuals who were not favored at one period may be accommodated through additional dispersal at some later time. One of the characteristics that sets distributive policies apart from other types of policies is that they do not incite conflict among people who are wanting to profit from the policy.

The primary reason for this is due to the fact that distribution occurs continuously, and those who are unsuccessful in the beginning almost always succeed in the long run (Ikelegbe, 1996)

In this sort of policy, the person making the decision is not aware of either all of the possible alternatives or the effects of each one. This state is more prevalent in real world situations due to the fact that the majority of decision making occurs under settings of uncertainty. In this scenario, judgments are made based on the restricted number of options that are known to the decision maker as well as his limited understanding of the implications of those options.

b. Regulatory Policy

The actions of various social groupings in a society can be regulated through the implementation of various regulatory regulations.

Because regulatory rules are aimed at specific industries, they inevitably cause friction and sometimes even outright conflict between those industries that are in direct competition with one another. In order for the government to fulfill its responsibilities of protecting its citizens, it is required to create guidelines, rules, and regulations that serve as a standard for how diverse groups and sectors of society should behave themselves. Regulatory policies are developed with winners and losers in mind; however, given that

most people despise being defeated, these policies frequently result in a great deal of conflict. Those who come out on the losing end of a policy may refuse to accept it in good faith and may work to alter it so that it works more to their advantage. Legislation such as labor laws, import policies, financial regulation, and other forms of government policy all fall under this category. These rules and regulations are enacted with the intention of controlling the activity of various groups and businesses in society.

c. Policies of Income Redistribution

These are the kinds of policies that have a propensity to move resources away from one industry or group and towards another. For example, earnings from the oil industry going to the healthcare or transportation industries. Policies that the government enacts with the intention of achieving equity or inequity by favoring one group over another and doing so at the expense of others are known as redistributive policies. These are the kinds of policies that almost inevitably lead to conflict and tension. Because the topic in question may entail socioeconomic, ideological, tribal, religious, or geographical lines, it is relatively straightforward to identify the people who will benefit from these policies. Progressive tax policies, social welfare programs, and sectorial allocation preference policies are all examples of the types of policies that fall under this category.



1.7 Summary

This unit explained that, Policy is a course or principle of action adopted or suggested by a government, party, business, or individual. The process by which governments translate their political vision into programs and activities to create "outcomes" - intended change in the real world - is referred to as policymaking. This process has been characterized as the process by which governments make policies.

public policy is "an publicly proclaimed objective that is backed by a sanction, where the sanction can either be a reward or a punishment. "a law, a rule, a statute, an edict, a regulation, or an order" is the shape that "a public policy" can take while it's being implemented as a course of action (or inaction). It is possible for public policy to take a variety of various forms, such as non-intervention; regulation, such as via licensing; the encouragement of voluntary change, including by grant aid; and direct provision of public services; among other possible manifestations.

Since the needs of humans are diverse and continue to expand over time, it is the responsibility of the government to meet these needs, which also include the promotion of rapid economic growth, the reduction of unemployment to a manageable level, the preservation of price stability, and the establishment of a stable and equitable payment balance.

The hierarchy of public policy is seen as a "unbroken claim" through which policy must travel before a solution to a particular problem may be found (Akindele and Olaopa, 2004). According to Akindele and Olaopa (2004), the Public Policy Handbook can be broken down into four primary categories: political policy, executive policy, administrative policy, and technical policy.

It is generally accepted that the Political Policy serves as a basic policy process through which conversations are held with various broad aims. It is political in the sense that the government has made a choice with the intention of resolving some issues, the nature of which may include more than one.

The following are characteristics of public policy:

- a. It is dynamic in nature, which means that it is susceptible to ongoing changes.
- b. It makes the most of available possibilities and outlines strategies for overcoming challenges in the pursuit of a goal.
- c. It refers to a pattern of behavior carried out by an individual, a group, or the government.
- d. It is an activity that involves actors and components from both the government and non-government organizations, among other things.

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- b. It is a primary instrument in the hands of the government.
- c. It fosters the growth of the people on a social, political, economic, and administrative level.
- d. It is a spoken, written, or implied basic guide that all administrative management operations must adhere to.

Forms of Public Policy

Different parts of society are subject to distinctly different policies. There are many distinct sorts of policies, each of which can be classified according to a unique set of characteristics; for example, public policy can pertain to issues of housing, education, health, transportation, agriculture, industry, etc. Intent, operational process, issues, and clientele are some of the other categories that can be used to classify policies. On the other hand, Lowi (1964) distinguished between three types of policies: distributive, regulatory, and redistributive.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Policy is a course or principle of action adopted or suggested by a government, party, business, or individual. The process by which governments translate their political vision into programs and activities to create "outcomes" - intended change in the real world - is referred to as policymaking. This process has been characterized as the process by which governments make policies.
2. public policy is "an publicly proclaimed objective that is backed by a sanction, where the sanction can either be a reward or a punishment. "a law, a rule, a statute, an edict, a regulation, or an order" is the shape that "a public policy" can take while it's being implemented as a course of action (or inaction). It is possible for public policy to take a variety of various forms, such as non-intervention; regulation, such as via licensing; the encouragement of voluntary change, including by grant aid; and direct provision of public services; among other possible manifestations.
Since the needs of humans are diverse and continue to expand over time, it is the responsibility of the government to meet these needs, which also include the promotion of rapid economic growth, the reduction of unemployment to a manageable level, the preservation of price stability, and the establishment of a stable and equitable payment balance.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The hierarchy of public policy is seen as a "unbroken claim" through which policy must travel before a solution to a particular problem may be found (Akindele and Olaopa, 2004). According to Akindele and Olaopa (2004), the Public Policy Handbook can be broken down into four primary categories: political policy, executive policy, administrative policy, and technical policy. It is generally accepted that the Political Policy serves as a basic policy process through which conversations are held with various broad aims. It is political in the sense that the government has made a choice with the intention of resolving some issues, the nature of which may include more than one.
2. The following are characteristics of public policy:
 - a. It is dynamic in nature, which means that it is susceptible to ongoing changes.
 - b. It makes the most of available possibilities and outlines strategies for overcoming challenges in the pursuit of a goal.
 - c. It refers to a pattern of behavior carried out by an individual, a group, or the government.
 - d. It is an activity that involves actors and components from both the government and non-government organizations, among other things.

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- d. It is a spoken, written, or implied basic guide that all administrative management operations must adhere to.

Forms of Public Policy

Different parts of society are subject to distinctly different policies. There are many distinct sorts of policies, each of which can be classified according to a unique set of characteristics; for example, public policy can pertain to issues of housing, education, health, transportation, agriculture, industry, etc. Intent, operational process, issues, and clientele are some of the other categories that can be used to classify policies. On the other hand, Lowi (1964) distinguished between three types of policies: distributive, regulatory, and redistributive.

Unit 2: Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process
 - 1.3.1 The Role of Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process
 - 1.3.2 Approaches to Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process
- 1.4 Stages of the Policy Making Process
- 1.5 Types of Public Policy
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The Administrator "makes his selections based on a straightforward picture of the circumstance that takes into account a handful of the aspects that he considers to be the most significant and important." The Administrator, as opposed to being an economic guy who just maximizes and satisfies-interest in solutions that meet his problems, seeks to maximize and fulfill all of his interests. This is also referred to as "bounded rationality," because the extent of the administrator's knowledge, the information he can gather at any given time, his values, skills, perception, and the amount of time he has available for decision making all act as bounds, or limitations, on the administrator's ability to make sound judgments.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

Itemize and discuss the Approaches to Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process

Explain the rational Comprehensive Approach

Discuss incremental Approach

Explain the decision making model

Discuss Mixed scanning Approaches

Itemize the stages of the Policy Making Process

Mention and briefly explain the Types of Public Policy



1.3 Approaches to Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process

1.3.1 Rational Comprehensive Approach

The rational comprehensive approach can be seen in phases ranging from the identification of the problem to the setting of goals and the gathering of information, a search for alternative courses of action and a thorough investigation into each alternative course of action, and finally the selection of the "rational" course of action as the best course of action to take. On the basis of the limitations and constraints involved in rational decision making, Simon (1976), as cited in Obikeze and Obi (2004: 123), proposed a modified version of decision making known as the satisfying model. In this model, the administrative man makes decisions that are satisfactory in order to solve the problem that is currently being considered.

1.3.2 Incremental Approach

The aviator Charles Lindblom said that, there is a step-by-step approach to administrative decision making, which he referred to as "Successive-Limited-Comparison." The incrementalist approach holds the belief that choices are not made in the manner outlined above. This strategy merely broadens or expands upon earlier selections that were made. According to Obikeze and Obi (2004), a synopsis of the incremental theory is as follows: "A policy is directed at a problem: it is tried, altered, tried in its altered form, altered again, and so on." In a nutshell, the answer to any given problem is a series of incremental measures that are implemented one after the other. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that incrementalist thinking entails making adjustments and alterations to pre-existing programs. The approach does not lend support for fundamental shifts in the way that the government runs its policies and programs. This helps to explain why Dror (1968), as cited in Obikeze and Obi (2004), hypothesized that the model "fits the needs of a stable society, because evolution leads to institutions that embody the wisdom of generations and that should not be carelessly harmed." Incrementalism emphasizes care in rejecting government policies (especially by new regimes), it entrenches continuity in government policies, and it makes it simple for the governed to be brought along because of the incremental character of government policies. On the other hand, this method of formulating public policy has been attacked on the grounds that it is insufficiently moderate and helps to preserve the status quo. It is also feasible to argue that the paradigm is not fit for the developmental objectives of developing economies, which require some fundamental reform. This line of reasoning requires some dramatic transformation. As a method of explanation, incrementalism has failed to adduce reasons behind unexpected shifts in government policy, and as a result, its applications have been severely restricted. It's possible that an incremental approach to decision making isn't necessary in today's dynamic environment, which is being driven by the quick pace of technology progress and advancement.

The incrementalist strategy will just focus on those places in which comparable patterns arose in the recent past and possibly on a few trouble locations, but the rational approach may be excessively comprehensive. Etzioni proposed that mixed scanning could be broken down into two levels, each with a different level of detail and coverage; the decision regarding how the scanning process should be carried out in each level is based on the amount of time and money that is available. He also canvassed that in utilizing mixed scanning, it is essential to differentiate between fundamental decisions (requiring

the rational approach) and incremental decisions. The onus of evaluating the nature of decision to be taken rests on the decision maker who should be able to identify/choose the model that suits the situation.

1.3.3 A decision making model

As a decision making model, it attempts to rise to the inability of Incrementalism in explaining radical changes in government policies. It also strives to accommodate the divergent capacities of decision makers as rationalists and Incrementalists. However, as a model, it is too conciliatory and compromising to the directed at a problem: it is tried, altered, tried in its altered form, and altered again and so forth. In a nutshell, the answer to any given problem is a series of incremental measures that are implemented one after the other. The implication of this is that Incrementalism amounts to improvements and modifications of existing policies. The approach does not lend support for fundamental shifts in the way that the government runs its policies and programs. This helps to explain why Dror (1968), as cited in Obikeze and Obi (2004: 124), hypothesized that the model "fits the needs of a stable society, because evolution leads to institutions that embody the wisdom of generations and that should not be carelessly harmed." Incrementalism emphasizes care in rejecting government policies (especially by new regimes), it entrenches continuity in government policies, and it makes it simple for the governed to be brought along because of the incremental character of government policies. On the other hand, this method of formulating public policy has been attacked on the grounds that it is insufficiently moderate and helps to preserve the status quo. It is also feasible to argue that the paradigm is not fit for the developmental objectives of developing economies, which require some fundamental reform. This line of reasoning requires some dramatic transformation. As a method of explanation, incrementalism has failed to adduce reasons behind unexpected shifts in government policy, and as a result, its applications have been severely restricted. It's possible that an incremental approach to decision making isn't necessary in today's dynamic environment, which is being driven by the quick pace of technology progress and advancement.

As a decision making model, it attempts to rise to the inability of Incrementalism in explaining radical changes in government policies. It also strives to accommodate the divergent capacities of decision makers as rationalists and Incrementalist. However, as a model, it is too conciliatory and compromising to the Lack of well-defined programme for attainment of goals; Choice of inappropriate organizational structure for implementation of policies; lack of continuity in commitment to policy; lack of clear definition or responsibility; political opposition during implementation; compromises during implementation capable of defeating policy purposes; political insensitivity to policy demands; (wrong) timing implementation; corruption; lack of adequate data for decision making.

1.3.4 Mixed scanning Approaches

According to Etzioni (1974), mixed scanning is a combination of the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model, it is not considered to be an innovative theory of decision making. This is because the rational comprehensive model and the

incremental model are both based on rationality. Etzioni used an illustration of worldwide weather observation using two cameras to explain this model. The first camera was a wide-angle camera that would cover all parts of the sky but not in detail. The second camera would zero in on those areas that were revealed by the first camera to require a more in-depth examination.

Because Etzioni's mixed scanning is a combination of the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model, it is not considered to be an innovative theory of decision making. This is because the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model are both based on rationality. Etzioni used an illustration of worldwide weather observation using two cameras to explain this model. The first camera was a wide-angle camera that would cover all parts of the sky but not in detail. The second camera would zero in on those areas that were revealed by the first camera to require a more in-depth examination. The rational approach could be too detailed, while the Incrementalist will merely focus on those areas in which similar patterns developed in recent past and perhaps on a few trouble spots.

Etzioni proposed that mixed scanning could be broken down into two levels, each with a different level of detail and coverage; the decision regarding how the scanning process should be carried out in each level is based on the amount of time and money that is available. He also canvassed that in utilizing mixed scanning, it is essential to differentiate between fundamental decisions (requiring the rational approach) and incremental decisions. The onus of evaluating the nature of decision to be taken rests on the decision maker who should be able to identify/choose the model that suits the situation.

The role of public bureaucracy as civil and public servants in the public policy making process (with respect to policy (input) formulation and as implementers) is not in dispute. The two main 'phases' of policy execution are Execution and Enforcement, which are preceded by the two 'phases' of policy making: Formulation and Implementation (Fischer, 2003).

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the Role of Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process
2. Discuss the Step-By-Step Approach to Administrative Decision Making
Incremental Approach

1.4 Stages of the Policy Making Process

According to Lindblom (1990), there are three stages in the policy making process, they are (a) Policy Formulation (b) Policy Implementation and (c) Policy Evaluation.

A. Policy Formulation

The process of policy formulation varies from society to society. In most democratic societies today, the Judiciary and Legislature play a major role in the policy making process.

Individuals and groups are getting more and more involved in decision making process. It is this realization that has given rise to the concept of the pluralist theory of policy

formulation”. Others have argued that instead of talking of pluralism, the dominant factor is the elite. In order to balance the view of both the pluralist theory and the elite theory Lindblom (1990), came out with what is called Partisan Mutual Adjustment, which facilitates agreement among partisans on values and decisions. However in policy formulation, public involvement is very important because it helps in the implementation stage. People easily obey or accept policies they take part in formulating than those forced on them.

Steps in Policy formulation process

Lindblom (1990) cited in: Musa, Ibrahim and Yakubu (2020), started that, following are steps in Policy formulation process:

- i. Identification of the problem: What is a policy problem, what makes it a policy problem, how does it get on the agenda of the government?
- ii. Development of alternative courses of action: How are alternatives for dealing with the problem developed, who participates in policy formulation, what is the cost implication of the proposed policy?
- iii. Analysis of alternative: Where the alternatives are critically analyzed for the best option.
- iv. Selection of one alternative/policy choice for adoption: How are alternatives analyzed, adopted and enacted, what requirements must be met?

B. Policy Implementation

This is the critical stage in policy making process as it determines the overview of the quality of the decision made. This stage is very sensitive and subject to criticism. The quality of a policy is determined by its implementation, and not how good it looks on paper. The 6 – 3 – 3 – 4 policy on education looks so good on paper but how effective is it since inception? In Nigeria, it is a well known fact that, the ability to implement a policy is a big problem. However, policy implementation centres on, who is involved, what is to be done to carry policy into effect, what resources are available for policy implementation, what impact does this have on policy content.

The following factors are considered when policies are to be implemented.

I. Clarity and Specificity of Policy: Before policies are adopted for implementation, the intention of such policies would have been known clear and specific on a particular sector, item or purpose. Any policy that is not clear, direct and specific in nature may be rejected by the masses. The interest and opinion of the people have to be considered before implementing such policy. The government should enlighten the people on public policies in order to enlist their support and cooperation.

ii. **Implementation Organization:** Before embarking on Programme implementation there is supposed to be an appraisal of the institutional capacity of the implementing organization to know whether the policy can be implemented or not. Most government policies are not properly implemented due to inadequate institutional capabilities which need to be created or to upgrade the existing ones.

iii. **Identification/Assessment of the Target Group:** Every policy formulation has a purpose and target group once this has been achieved, implementation of such policy takes centre stage. For instance, if a group has an organized leadership, the government may decide to penetrate the group through its leaders.

iv. **The Environment:** The environment where the policy is to be implemented must be taken into consideration. Some salient features within the environment have to be considered for the success and failure of the policies. In Nigeria, the enactment and implementation of Sharia law was restricted to few states of the country because the people's religion or way of life permits such policies. The peculiarities of each location must be of much concern to the policy implementation team.

C. Policy Evaluation

Evaluation of policies can be done by the policy makers, the implementing organ, members of the public and public policy analysts or experts. There are some good techniques used in policy evaluation, these include the Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA), the Cost Effectiveness Analysis (CEA), Management by Objectives (MBO), Programme planning and Budgeting System (PPBS), Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), and Zero Based Budgeting (ZBB).

Public Policy Implementation

According to Ogbu (2003), record has shown that, policy implementation is not as easy as policy formulation. Sometimes, policies are made and dumped by the same government, other times; policies that are made by one government are ignored and even scrapped by a new government. This has far-reaching consequences for the social and economic progress of a country, lack of continuity in policy implementation from one government to another result in waste of valuable resources, and hampered services delivery to the people (Ogbu, 2003). In Nigeria, lack of continuity in policy implementation, unsuccessful implementation, or even non-implementation of policies constitutes a great problem in the country's development programmes. From the First National Development Plan to vision 20:2020 has faced serious challenges in their implementation.

Ayo (2007) points out the reasons for implementation were to increase per capita income, more even distribution of income, increase in the supply of high level manpower, diversification of the economy, balanced development, and indigenization of economic activities.

Implementation refers to the process of converting inputs - financial, information, materials, technical, human, demands, support, etc., into outputs. This stage involves translation of goals and objectives of a policy into concrete achievement through various programmes (Egomnwan, 2000). George and Klauss in:Egonmwam (2000) see implementation as the nemesis of designers; it conjures up images of plans gone awry and of social carpenters and masons who fail to build to specification and thereby distort the beautiful blueprints for progress which were handed to them. It provokes memories of a good idea that did not work, but places the blame on others.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List the three stages in the policy making process
2. Explain the policy Implementation

1.5 Types of Public Policy

According to Dror (1968) identified types of Public Policy are:

Patronage/Promotional Policies: as those government actions that provide incentive for individuals or corporations to undertake activities they would only reluctantly undertake without the promise of a reward. These can be classified into three types: subsidies; contracts; and licences.

Regulatory Policies: as those which allow the government to exert control over the conduct of certain activities ('negative forms of control'). They include: environmental pollution; civil & criminal penalties; consumption of tobacco, alcohol; consumer protection; employee health and safety.

Redistributive Policies: as those which control people by managing the economy as a whole. The techniques of control involve fiscal (tax) and monetary (supply of money) policies. They tend to benefit one group at the expense of other groups through the reallocation of wealth.

Liberal or Conservative Policies: Liberal policies are those in which the government is used extensively to bring about social change, usually in the direction of ensuring greater level of social equality. Conservative policies generally oppose the use of government to bring about social change but may approve government action to preserve the status quo or to promote favoured interests. Such as: Liberals tend to favour a concentration of power in higher levels of government; whereas Conservatives tend to favour decentralization of power and authority.

Substantive Policies: Substantive policies are concerned with governmental actions to deal with substantive problems, such as highway construction; environmental protection; payment of welfare benefits.

Procedural policies: are those that relate to how something is going to be done or who is going to take action, such as the Administrative Procedures.

Material or Symbolic Policies: Material policies provide concrete re-sources or substantive power to their beneficiaries, or, impose real disadvantages on those adversely affected. For example, welfare payments; housing subsidies etc. Symbolic policies appeal more to cherished values than to tangibles benefits; such as national holidays that honour patriots, concerning the flag etc.

Collective or Private Goods Policies: Collective goods policies are those benefits that cannot be given to some but denied to others, such as national defence and public safety. Private goods policies are those goods that may be divided into units, and for which consumers can be charged, such as food, trash collection, home security etc (Musa, Ibrahim and Shehu, 2020)



1.6 Summary

This unit sees the role of Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process to includes; The rational comprehensive approach can be seen in phases ranging from the identification of the problem to the setting of goals and the gathering of information, a search for alternative courses of action and a thorough investigation into each alternative course of action, and finally the selection of the "rational" course of action as the best course of action to take

The incrementalist approach holds the belief that choices are not made in the manner outlined above because Etzioni's mixed scanning is a combination of the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model, it is not considered to be an innovative theory of decision making. This is because the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model are both based on rationality

Stages of the Policy Making Process

There are three stages in the policy making process, they are (a) Policy Formulation (b) Policy Implementation and (c) Policy Evaluation

Steps in Policy formulation process

The following are steps in Policy formulation process:

- i. Identification of the problem: What is a policy problem, what makes it a policy problem, how does it get on the agenda of the government?
- ii. Development of alternative courses of action: How are alternatives for dealing with the problem developed, who participates in policy formulation, what is the cost implication of the proposed policy?
- iii. Analysis of alternative: Where the alternatives are critical analyze for the best option.
- iv. Selection of one alternative/policy choice for adoption: How are alternatives analyzed, adopted and enacted, what requirements must be met?

Public Policy Implementation

Ayo (2007) points out the reasons for implementation were to increase per capita income, more even distribution of income, increase in the supply of high level manpower, diversification of the economy, balanced development, and indigenization of economic activities.

Implementation refers to the process of converting inputs - financial, information, materials, technical, human, demands, support, etc., into outputs. This stage involves translation of goals and objectives of a policy into concrete achievement through various programmes (Egomnwan, 2000)

Types of Public Policy

Patronage/Promotional Policies

Regulatory Policies:

Redistributive Policies:

Liberal or Conservative Policies:



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. the role of Public Policy in the Decision-Making Process to includes; The rational comprehensive approach can be seen in phases ranging from the identification of the problem to the setting of goals and the gathering of information, a search for alternative courses of action and a thorough investigation into each alternative course of action, and finally the selection of the "rational" course of action as the best course of action to take. The incrementalist approach holds the belief that choices are not made in the manner outlined above. Because Etzioni's mixed scanning is a combination of the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model, it is not considered to be an innovative theory of decision making. This is because the rational comprehensive model and the incremental model are both based on rationality
2. Stages of the Policy Making Process. There are three stages in the policy making process, they are (a) Policy Formulation (b) Policy Implementation and (c) Policy Evaluation

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Steps in Policy formulation process

The following are steps in Policy formulation process:

- i. Identification of the problem: What is a policy problem, what makes it a policy problem, how does it get on the agenda of the government?
- ii. Development of alternative courses of action: How are alternatives for dealing with the problem developed, who participates in policy formulation, what is the cost implication of the proposed policy?
- iii. Analysis of alternative: Where the alternatives are critical analyze for the best option.

- iv. Selection of one alternative/policy choice for adoption: How are alternatives analyzed, adopted and enacted, what requirements must be met?
- 2. Ayo (2007) points out the reasons for implementation were to increase per capita income, more even distribution of income, increase in the supply of high level manpower, diversification of the economy, balanced development, and indigenization of economic activities. Implementation refers to the process of converting inputs - financial, information, materials, technical, human, demands, support, etc., into outputs. This stage involves translation of goals and objectives of a policy into concrete achievement through various programmes (Egomnwan, 2000).

Unit 3: Models of Public Policy Analysis I

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
 - 1.3.1 Limitations of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
 - 1.3.2 Application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
 - 1.3.3 Application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
- 1.4 Institutional model of public policy
 - 1.4.1 What is institutional model/approach
 - 1.4.2 Application of Institutional model of public policy
- 1.5 Model of Rational Policy Making
- 1.6 Rationality Constraints
- 1.7 The Lindmom Incremental Model
 - 1.7.1 Characteristics of Incremental Decision-Making
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Models and frames that form and provide context for analysis discourse originally appeared in the 1970s and 1980s. They were viewed as problem-solving strategies that provided structure and coherence. A model is the concept of drawing a line around reality that is shared by a group of academics or theorists. When studying public policy, we must be aware of how many different models of analysis exist to define and explain situations, as well as how these models clash and shift: We will explore at some of the models that analysts employ in this Unit. The paradigm for policy analysis will be examined in this unit.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
- ii. State the limitations of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
- iii. Explain the application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
- iv. State the application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
- v. Discuss the institutional model of public policy
- vi. Define and explain the institutional model/approach
- vii. Explain the application of Institutional model of public policy
- viii. Discuss the model of Rational Policy Making
- ix. Explain the Rationality Constraints
- x. State the Lindmom Incremental Model

- i. State characteristics of Incremental Decision-Making



1.3 Models of Public Policy Analysis

1.3.1 Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

David Easton has described the policy-making process as a "black box" that translates societal demands into policies. In his analysis of political systems, David Easton contends that the political system is that component of society that is engaged in the authoritative distribution of 'values.

Political analysis takes a systems perspective.

The intra-societal setting: The environment outside of society:

1. International political systems ecological systems
2. International ecological systems biological systems
3. International social systems
4. Personality system social structure

An example of what Easton refers to as an apolitical system. The physical, social, economic, and political products of the environment are referred to as inputs. They are accepted into the political system as both demands and supports.

Individuals and groups make demands on the political system in order to change some aspect of the environment. Demands occur when individuals or groups act to affect public policy in reaction to environmental conditions.

The environment is any circumstance or incident that is defined as occurring outside of the political system's borders. The rules, laws, and practices that create the foundation for the existence of the apolitical community and the authorities are the supports of the apolitical system. Individuals or groups provide support when they accept decisions or laws. Supports are a system's symbolic or material inputs (such as observing laws, paying taxes, or even respecting the national flag) that represent the system's psychological and material resources.

The structures and persons for policymaking are at the heart of the political system. These individuals include the president, legislators, judges, and bureaucrats. They translate inputs into outputs in the system's version. The authoritative value allocations of the political system are thus outputs, and these allocations constitute public policy or policies. According to systems theory, public policy is an output of the political system.

The concept of feedback implies that public policies can have an impact on the environment and the demands generated by it, as well as the character of the political system. Policy outcomes may result in new demands and new supports for the system, as well as the withdrawal of old supports. Feedback is critical in creating an appropriate climate for future policy.

1.3.2 Limitations of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

The systems theory can help you comprehend the policy-making process. According to Thomas Dye (Understanding Public Policy), the importance of the systems model to policy study rests in the issues it raises. They are as follows:

- i. What are the key environmental characteristics that place demands on the political system?
- ii. What are the key qualities of the political system that allow it to translate demands into public policy and sustain itself over time?
- iii. How do environmental inputs influence the character of the political system? iv. How do political system features influence the content of public policy?
- v. How do environmental inputs influence public policy content?
- vi. How does public policy alter the environment and the character of the political system through feedback?

However, the systems model's applicability to the study of public policy is limited due to a number of variables. This input-output model appears to be too basic to be effective in comprehending the policy-making process, according to critics. This model is accused of adopting welfare economics' value-laden techniques, which help is based on the maximization of a clearly defined social welfare function.' Another flaw of the classic input-output paradigm is that it fails to account for the fragmentary nature of the 'black box.' The "power, personnel, and institutions" of policy-making are the missing ingredients in the systems approach. Line Berry observes that in evaluating them, "we will not forget that political decision-makers in the political system are significantly restricted by economic considerations in the environment."

The Estonian model also misses a key aspect of the policy process, namely, that policymakers (including institutions) have significant influence over the environment in which they operate. According to the standard input-output model, the decision-making system is "facilitative" and value-free rather than "causative," i.e., a wholly neutral structure.

In other words, structural differences in the systems are discovered to have no direct causal effect on public policy.

Furthermore, it is suggested that the political and bureaucratic elites shape public opinion more than the public does. To demonstrate this argument, the concept of "inside puts" as opposed to "inputs" was developed. Thus, policy changes may be linked to the political and administrative elite's redefining of their own beliefs rather than to environmental needs and support. Quite often, policy is initiated by the bureaucracy.

1.3.3 Application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

In some cases, the bureaucracy can become a dominant institution in designing and legitimizing policies. The function of bureaucracy in dictating policy direction in Western democracies is mostly technical and rather minor. The traditional sphere of the political elite continues to dominate policy decisions. In contrast, in a developing country such as India, where state objectives are not completely specified and obvious, the bureaucracy easily capitalizes on the process of policy selection from alternative policy alternatives. In addition to executing strictly technical responsibilities, it participates in the creation of public policy. Finally, the extent to which the environment is claimed to have an influence on the policy-making process is determined by the beliefs and ideologies held by the system's decision-makers. It implies that policymaking entails not only policy content but also the policymaker's perceptions and attitudes.

Policymakers' values are basically thought to be critical in understanding the policy alternatives that are proposed.

1.4 institutional model of public policy

In a democratic society, a state is a web of government institutions and organizations. The state is capable of doing anything. It aims to reconcile clashing social and commercial interests.

The good attitude is regarded as the community's guardian. It does not defend the superiority of any single class or division. It should, ideally, protect everyone's economic interests by accommodating and reconciling them. No organization has ever been able to fulfill its objectives across the entire spectrum of public policies, and policy issues are typically addressed in ways that are largely consistent with the preferences of the majority of the public.

The institutional approach looks into the relationship between public policy and governmental institutions. With its emphasis on the legal and structural elements of institutions, institutionalism can be utilized to study policy. Structures and institutions' arrangements and interactions can have a significant impact on public policy. According to Thomas Dye, government institutions are established patterns of conduct of individuals and groups that persist across time.

Historically, the description of governmental structures and institutions has been the focus of research.

The method, however, did not pay sufficient attention to the links between government institutions and the content of public policy. To support the institutional perspective, there was no systematic examination of the impact of these institutional qualities on public policy decisions.

As a result, the relationship between government architecture and policy outcomes has largely gone unstudied and unnoticed.

Despite its narrow focus, the structural method is not out of date. In reality, government institutions are a collection of individual and group behavioral patterns. These have an impact on both decision-making and public policy content. Government institutions, according to the institutional approach, can be designed in such a way that specific policy outcomes are supported. These patterns may give certain societal interests an advantage while depriving others of an advantage. Rules and institutional institutions rarely have a neutral impact. In truth, they choose certain society interests over others. As a result, under one set of organized patterns, certain individual groups may have greater authority or access to government power than others. In other words, "institutional characteristics influence policy outcomes."

1.4.1 What is institutional model/approach

The institutional approach can be used to study the connections between institutional structures and public policy content. Policy issues must be investigated methodically, with a focus on institutional arrangements.

The institutional approach to policy analysis provides value by investigating and analyzing the links that exist between institutional structures and the content of public

policy. However, assuming that a certain change in institutional structure will result in changes in public policy is erroneous. Without first examining the relationship between structure and policy, it is hard to assess the impact of institutional arrangements on public policies. In this context, "both structure and policy are largely determined by environmental forces," according to Thomas Dye, and "tinkering with institutional arrangements will have little independent impact on public policy if underlying environmental forces - social, economic, and political - remain constant."

1.4.2 Application of Institutional model of public policy

Individuals and groups' activities in a pluralistic society are largely directed towards governmental institutions such as the legislature, executive, judiciary, and bureaucracy. Governmental agencies create, execute, and enforce public policy. To put it another way, a policy does not become public until it is adopted and implemented by government institutions. Government institutions attribute three main characteristics to public policy. For starters, government policies are legally sanctioned. Public policy is the product of individual decisions and is distinguished by the use of legal penalties. It is seen as a legal obligation that must be followed. Second, public policy is widely applied. Only public policies benefit all residents of the state. Finally, government policies imply coercion. It is used to support the actions of the government. A policy provides the appearance that the government is capable of imposing sanctions through coercion of the type usually reserved for the government itself. Only the government has the legal authority to impose penalties on policy violators.

Individuals and groups generally attempt to get their preferences turned into laws because the government has the ability to impose the allegiance of its whole population, to design policies that dominate the entire country, and to monopolize coercion.

As a result, public policy and government institutions are inextricably linked. So it's not surprising that social scientists focus their research on governmental structures and institutions. Institutional analysis has become a key focus of public policy. As a result, one model of the policy-making system is known as the institutional approach since it is based on the interactions of institutions established by the constitution, government, or legislature.

In policymaking, several individuals and groups exercise authority, such as the Executive or Cabinet, Members of Parliament, bureaucrats, or leaders of interested groups. Each exercise of power is one of the influences that impact policymaking. To put it another way, public policy is enacted through a process. In general, the process comprises of a sequence of related decisions made under the influence of powerful persons and groups that collectively build what are known as state institutions. The institutional approach also aims to explain how social groups and governmental institutions exert power over individuals who have the authority to make and implement legally binding decisions. Such decision makers include those who hold office under the official and constitutional set of rules and regulations that confer formal authority and power to various positions within governmental structures and organizations

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

i.	Explain the Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
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ii.	State the limitations of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
iii.	Explain the application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process
iv.	State the application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

1.5 Model of Rational Policy Making

Rationality and rationalism are terms that appear and are used far too frequently in social science literature. Both are more widely advocated than applied in policy-making. However, in policymaking, rationality is seen as the "yardstick of wisdom": This approach emphasizes that policymaking is a logical decision among policy alternatives. The goal of rational policymaking is to "choose the best choice." According to Robert Haveman, a rational policy is one that is meant to maximize " (value achievement)." Dye connects reason and efficiency.

"A policy is rational when it is most efficient, that is, when the ratio between the values it obtains and the values it sacrifices is positive and greater than any other policy alternative," he writes. He goes on to add that efficiency entails calculating all social, political, and economic values sacrificed or attained by a public policy, not only those that can be assessed in monetary terms.

As a result, political policymakers must be sensible. But that is not simple. To be rational, the following steps should be taken: I goal identification and determination; ii) goal ranking in order of significance; iii) identification of feasible policy choices for accomplishing those goals; and iv) cost-benefit analysis of policy alternatives.

A rational policymaker must: I understand all of society's value preferences and their relative weights; ii) clarify and rank the goals and objectives; iii) understand all of the policy alternatives available; iv) compare the consequences of each policy alternative; V) calculate the ratio of achieved to sacrificed societal values for each policy alternative; and vi) select the most efficient policy alternative that matches the goals.

Instead of making a 'perfect' decision, as Simon remarks, policymakers would divide the complexity of situations into tiny and understandable bits; choose the best and most agreeable option; and minimize unneeded uncertainty. "Although individuals are designed to be rational, their rationality is limited by limited cognitive and emotional capacities," Herbert Simon adds.

Thus, rational policymaking necessitates making difficult decisions amongst policy alternatives. It has several stages:

First, the policymaker recognizes the underlying issue. He develops and prioritizes goals, which is vital because one aim may be more significant than another.

ii) In the second stage, the policymaker identifies the range of policy alternatives and options that contribute to the achievement of the goals. He creates a comprehensive set of potential policies and resources, with weights assigned to each. The process of finding policy alternatives is crucial because it influences both the range and quality of options.

iii) The third step necessitates the estimation of the costs and benefits of policy solutions. The policymaker must calculate the probability that each policy alternative will achieve

the goal as well as the cost of doing so. It is necessary to calculate the "cost-payoff" ratios of each alternative in this case.

iv) In addition to calculating net expectation for each alternative, the policymaker must compare the alternatives with the greatest advantages. It is feasible that by comparing two options, one can obtain the benefits at a lower cost.

Finally, the policymaker chooses the most efficient policy option.

Once a policy option is implemented, the rational policymaker must monitor it systematically to determine the correctness of the expectations and estimations. If necessary, the policymaker may amend the policy or abandon it entirely. This is referred to as the "feedback stage" of rational policymaking. When policymakers employ input to monitor and adjust policy, the policy system becomes self-correcting or cybernetic.

1.6.1 Rationality Constraints

Many restrictions impede rational decision-making. The term "rationality" is used so frequently and indiscriminately that it threatens to lose its meaning. It is more commonly advocated than performed. Some of the major obstacles to rational policymaking are as follows:

I Achieving Objectives

Making rational policy is a difficult task. It is unlikely that a logical policy will emerge. By the time a policymaker suggests a sensible policy, the problem at hand may have gotten so complex that the prescriptions become decisions based on other goals. Decision-makers may instead seek to maximize their personal incentives, such as power, status, money, and re-election. As a result, sensible policy-making may turn out to be more of an exercise than the actual achievement of a set of goals.

Attempts at rationality, on the other hand, serve some useful objectives. Rationality is similar to democracy.

"As democracy is the measuring rod of virtue in a political system, so too is rationality, presumably the yardstick of wisdom in policy-making," explains Line Berry in this context.

ii) Optimization Security

The rational policy-making model should yield optimal results. However, this does not always occur. The public interest is regarded as more important than the sum of individual interests in the policy. If air pollution management is a public interest since everyone benefits from it, then the plan may mandate that every automobile sold be outfitted with an expensive set of anti-pollution emission control systems, increasing the cost of the vehicle. However, few people are ready to spend more of their own money to minimize automotive emissions. If pollution prevention is a public good, which is an individual's decision, then others should, too often, be guided by the same rational perspective when making individual judgments. Contrary to this, many of them operate under the idea that "everyone else is doing it, and my small bit won't really mean much." As a result, there is no incentive for policymakers to aim to maximize net objective achievement. Furthermore, government policymakers only aim to meet specific demands for advancement. They do not search until they find the one and only ideal way.

iii) Disagreement between Rational Choice and the Need for Action

The desire for reasonable behavior and the demand for action are at odds. As previously stated, policymakers are not motivated to make judgments based on logic, but rather to maximize their personal rewards, such as power, status, and money. Second, the time for a full examination of pending legislation may be limited. In an emergency, immediate action is required. Both times are too short for a thorough examination. In everyday policymaking, the sheer number of potential concerns restricts the time available to thoroughly examine any one subject.

There is also disagreement about the societal ideals themselves. Because of the existence of various opposing values among distinct groups and individuals, policymakers find it difficult to compare and weigh them.

iv) Political Feasibility Dilemma

Every policymaker faces the challenge of political feasibility concern. Political feasibility is defined as "the likelihood that a policy alternative, however rational and desirable, would be chosen and implemented by the political system." Politicians all too often avoid conflict in order to address the challenge of political feasibility. Uncertainty regarding the repercussions of various policy options may also compel governments to continue with earlier policies. Elected politicians do not want to jeopardize their chances of re-election by sacrificing policy logic. In the context of political expenses, decision postponement or other dilatation methods are popular ways to avoid a sensible conclusion. As a result, political leaders frequently weigh intellectual decision against political feasibility.

v) Cost-Benefit Analysis Issue

When many different social, economic, political, and cultural values are at risk, it is difficult for policymakers to compute precise cost-benefit ratios. Aside from this, policymakers have personal wants, inhibitions, and inadequacies that prevent them from evaluating alternatives and making sensible decisions.

Rational policymaking necessitates making difficult choices between policy alternatives. However, there are various limits in acquiring the amount of knowledge needed to be aware of all conceivable policy alternatives and their repercussions, including the time and expense associated in information gathering.

vi) Bureaucracy's Nature and Environment

The climate of bureaucracy is another significant impediment to rational policymaking.

"The segmented character of policy-making in vast bureaucracies makes it difficult to coordinate decision-making so that the input of all of the numerous specialists is brought to bear at the point of decision," observed Thomas Dye. Bureaucracies and other public institutions' ability to make reasonable policies is restricted by fragmentation of authority, appeasing personal gods, conflicting ideals, limited technology, ambiguity about possible policy choices and repercussions, and other issues. Some policy analysts warn against putting too much faith in the rational model. Patton and Sawicki, for example, contend that "if the rational model were to be followed, many sensible conclusions would have to be compromised because they were not politically practicable." A policy that is rational, logical, and technically desirable may not be implemented because the political system will not accept it. Statistics do not always speak for themselves, and excellent ideas do not always triumph.

Analysts and decision-makers are continuously confronted with a choice between technically better and politically viable alternatives."

Following the rational approach by analyzing facts, presenting choices, and selecting the option with the highest utility weight is frequently undemocratic. Policy analysts, according to Denhardt, often apply technical answers to pressing difficulties, and "under such conditions, technical considerations would supersede political and ethical concerns as the basis for public decision making, therefore changing normative issues into technical problems." Even minor issues, such as the relocation of a small-&ale business from New Delhi's capital, are rarely resolved because the people concerned will not accept a technical solution. Politicians and pressure organizations will intercede unless a conclusion is imposed, which is frequently undemocratic.

It stands to reason that the rational policy-making paradigm establishes both naive and utopian aims and methods. It appears that intelligent policymaking is a challenging task. Some decision-making theorists, and arguably the majority of policymakers, feel that rational policy-making is impossible. Nonetheless, this paradigm is crucial for analytic purposes because it aids in identifying rationality limits.

Herbert Simon observes that policymakers "satisfy" rather than "optimize." A "good" decision will suffice for him, even if it is not the optimal decision. A reasonable decision requires clear and well-defined goals, as well as adequate authority to coordinate action. The private organization is a profit-maximizing mechanism that single-mindedly pursues its purpose, whereas public organizations frequently lack goal specificity.

1.7 The Lindblom Incremental Model

Charles Lindblom proposed the 'incremental model of the policy-making process' as an alternative to the classic rational model of decision-making. In the development of policy analysis as concerned with the "process" of generating policy, his article on the "Science of Muddling Through," published in 1959, earned great acclaim. Lindblom's thinking has progressed beyond his original thesis since then.

Lindblom rejects the assumption that decision-making is mainly about identifying goals, selecting alternatives, and comparing alternatives when he criticizes the rational model proposed by Simon and others. Lindblom wishes to demonstrate that rational decision-making is "not practical for complex policy concerns." According to Lindblom, policymakers are unable to establish society goals and their effects in a reasonable manner due to limits in time, intelligence, money, and politics. He distinguished between Simon's advocated comprehensive (or root) reasoning and his own 'successive restricted comparisons' (or branch decision-making).

The incremental decision-making strategy (branch method) entails a process of "continually building out from the current situation, step by step and by modest degrees." The policy analysts preferred the 'root' method, which was to start from "fundamentals anew each time, building on the past only as experience embodied in a theory, and always prepared to start from the ground up time, intelligence, and cost limits.

According to Lindblom, prevent policymakers from discovering the full range of policy possibilities and their implications. In such a state of "bounded rationality," he proposes that "successive limited comparison" is both more relevant and more feasible.

1.7.1 Characteristics of Incremental Decision-Making

The following characteristics characterize muddling through decision-making. It will first go through a series of modest adjustments. Because of the ambiguity regarding the repercussions of new or different policies, policymakers accept the validity of existing policies.

It entails reciprocal adaptation and negotiation. Instead of goal achievement, consensus is the litmus test for a good decision. When the subject under contention involves budget increases or cutbacks or changes to current programs, reaching an agreement is easier. As a result, instrumentalism plays an important role in decreasing political tension and ensuring stability.

Finally, the incremental technique employs the trial and error method. It is superior than a "futile attempt at superhuman thoroughness." Humans rarely behave to maximize all of their values; rather, they act to meet specific demands. They rarely look for the "one best approach," but rather for "a way that will work." This search frequently begins with the familiar, that is, with policy options that are similar to current policies. Incrementalism is thus more satisfactory from a theoretical standpoint, scoring high on criteria such as coherence and simplicity.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

i.	Discuss the institutional model of public policy
ii.	Define and explain the institutional model/approach
iii.	Explain the application of Institutional model of public policy
iv.	Discuss the model of Rational Policy Making
v.	Explain the Rationality Constraints
vi.	State the Lindmom Incremental Model
vii.	State characteristics of Incremental Decision-Making



1.6 Summary

Models of Public Policy Analysis include; David Easton who described the policy-making process as a "black box" that translates societal demands into policies. In his analysis of political systems, David Easton contends that the political system is that component of society that is engaged in the authoritative distribution of 'values

The systems theory can help you comprehend the policy-making process. According to Thomas Dye (Understanding Public Policy), the importance of the systems model to policy study rests in the issues it raises. They are as follows:

- What are the key environmental characteristics that place demands on the political system?
- What are the key qualities of the political system that allow it to translate demands into public policy and sustain itself over time?

In some cases, the bureaucracy can become a dominant institution in designing and legitimizing policies. The function of bureaucracy in dictating policy direction in Western

democracies is mostly technical and rather minor. The traditional sphere of the political elite continues to dominate policy decisions.

In a democratic society, a state is a web of government institutions and organizations. The state is capable of doing anything. It aims to reconcile clashing social and commercial interests

The institutional approach can be used to study the connections between institutional structures and public policy content. Policy issues must be investigated methodically, with a focus on institutional arrangements

Individuals and groups' activities in a pluralistic society are largely directed towards governmental institutions such as the legislature, executive, judiciary, and bureaucracy. Governmental agencies create, execute, and enforce public policy.

Rationality and rationalism are terms that appear and are used far too frequently in social science literature. Both are more widely advocated than applied in policy-making. However, in policymaking, rationality is seen as the "yardstick of wisdom": This approach emphasizes that policymaking is a logical decision among policy alternatives. Many restrictions impede rational decision-making. The term "rationality" is used so frequently and indiscriminately that it threatens to lose its meaning. It is more commonly advocated than performed.

Making rational policy is a difficult task. It is unlikely that a logical policy will emerge. By the time a policymaker suggests a sensible policy, the problem at hand may have gotten so complex that the prescriptions become decisions based on other goals. Decision-makers may instead seek to maximize their personal incentives, such as power, status, money, and re-election. As a result, sensible policy-making may turn out to be more of an exercise than the actual achievement of a set of goals

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

1. Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

David Easton has described the policy-making process as a "black box" that translates societal demands into policies. In his analysis of political systems, David Easton contends that the political system is that component of society that is engaged in the authoritative distribution of 'values

2. Limitations of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

The systems theory can help you comprehend the policy-making process. According to Thomas Dye (Understanding Public Policy), the importance of the systems model to policy study rests in the issues it raises. They are as follows:

- i. What are the key environmental characteristics that place demands on the political system?
- ii. What are the key qualities of the political system that allow it to translate demands into public policy and sustain itself over time?

3. Application of Eastonian's Model of policy-making Process

In some cases, the bureaucracy can become a dominant institution in designing and legitimizing policies. The function of bureaucracy in dictating policy direction in Western democracies is mostly technical and rather minor. The traditional sphere of the political elite continues to dominate policy decisions.

4. institutional model of public policy

In a democratic society, a state is a web of government institutions and organizations. The state is capable of doing anything. It aims to reconcile clashing social and commercial interests

The institutional approach can be used to study the connections between institutional structures and public policy content. Policy issues must be investigated methodically, with a focus on institutional arrangements

5. Application of Institutional model of public policy

Individuals and groups' activities in a pluralistic society are largely directed towards governmental institutions such as the legislature, executive, judiciary, and bureaucracy. Governmental agencies create, execute, and enforce public policy.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

1. Model of Rational Policy Making

Rationality and rationalism are terms that appear and are used far too frequently in social science literature. Both are more widely advocated than applied in policy-making. However, in policymaking, rationality is seen as the "yardstick of wisdom": This approach emphasizes that policymaking is a logical decision among policy alternatives

2. Rationality Constraints

Many restrictions impede rational decision-making. The term "rationality" is used so frequently and indiscriminately that it threatens to lose its meaning. It is more commonly advocated than performed. Some of the major obstacles to rational policymaking are as follows:

I Achieving Objectives

Making rational policy is a difficult task. It is unlikely that a logical policy will emerge. By the time a policymaker suggests a sensible policy, the problem at hand may have gotten so complex that the prescriptions become decisions based on other goals. Decision-makers may instead seek to maximize their personal incentives, such as power, status, money, and re-election. As a result, sensible policy-making may turn out to be more of an exercise than the actual achievement of a set of goals

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4 Characteristics of Incremental Decision-Making

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a result, instrumentalism plays an important role in decreasing political tension and ensuring stability

Unit 4: Models of Public Policy-MakingII

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Institutional Model
- 1.4 Group Model
- 1.5 Systems Model
- 1.6. Streams and Windows Model
- 1.7 Mixed Approaches
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Models and frames that form and provide context for analysis discourse originally appeared in the 1970s and 1980s. They were viewed as problem-solving strategies that provided structure and coherence. A model is the concept of drawing a line around reality that is shared by a group of academics or theorists. When studying public policy, we must be aware of how many different models of analysis exist to define and explain situations, as well as how these models clash and shift: ' We will explore at some of the models analysts employ are explained in this Unit.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Institutional Model
- ii. Discuss the Group Model
- iii. Analyze the Systems Model
- iv. Explain the Streams and Windows Model



1.3 Institutional Model

Institutional Model focuses on the traditional organization of government. It describes the duties and arrangements of bureaus and departments. It considers constitutional provisions, administrative and common law, and judicial decisions. It focuses on formal arrangements such as federalism executive reorganizations, presidential commission, etc. Traditionally political science has studied government institutions--Congress, presidency, courts, political parties, etc.--that authoritatively determine, implement, and enforce public policy. Strictly speaking, a policy is not a public policy until it is adopted, implemented and enforced by some governmental institution. Government lends legitimacy to policies, they are then legal; Government extends policies universally to

cover all people in society; Government monopolizes the power to coerce obedience to policy, or to sanction violators. Traditional studies using the institutional approach focused on institutional structures, organization, duties and function, without investigating their impact on public policy.

1.4 Group Model

Public policy results from a system of forces and pressures acting on and reacting to one another. Usually focuses on the legislature, but the executive is also pressured by interest groups. Agencies may be captured by the groups they are meant to regulate, and administrators become increasingly unable to distinguish between policies that will benefit the general public and policies that will benefit the groups being regulated. Interaction among groups is the central fact of politics. Individuals with common interests band together to press their demands (formal or informally) on government. Individuals are important in politics only when they act as part of or on behalf of group interests. The group is the bridge between the individual and the government.

The task of the political system is to

- 1) Establish the rules of the game
- 2) Arrange compromises and balance interests
- 3) Enact compromises in public policy
- 4) Enforce these compromises

It is also called equilibrium theory, as in physics. Influence is determined by numbers, wealth, and organizational strength, leadership, access to decision makers and internal cohesion. Policy makers respond to group pressure by bargaining, negotiating, and compromising among competing demands. Executives, legislators, and agency heads all put together coalitions from their consistencies to push programs through. Political parties are coalitions of groups. The Democrats have traditionally been central city, labor, ethnics/immigrants, the poor, Catholics, liberals, intellectuals, blacks, and Southern blue collar workers. Republicans have been wealthy, rural, small town, whites, suburbanites, white collar workers, conservatives, and middle class.

The entire system assumes:

- 1) A 'latent' group supports the rules of the game
- 2) There is overlapping group membership which keeps groups from moving too far out of the political mainstream
- 3) There are checks and balances on group's competition

1.5 Systems Model

This model relies on informational theoretical concepts such as input, output, and feedback. The model sees the policy process as cyclical. Asks, "what are the significant variables and patterns in the public policy-making system?" What goes on within the 'black box' of conversion of demands into public policy? What are the inputs and outputs? Public policy is viewed as the response of the political system to forces brought to bear on it from the outside environment. The environment surrounds the political system. In this model, "environment" means physical: natural resources, climate,

topography; demographic: population size, age, and distribution, and location; political: ideology, culture, social structure, economy, and technology. Forces enter the political system from the environment either as demands or as support. Demands are brought to it by persons or groups in response to real or perceived environmental conditions, for government action. Support is given wherever citizens obey laws, vote, pay taxes, etc., and conform to public policies. The political system is a group of interrelated structures and processes that can authoritatively allocate resources for a society. The actors are the legislature, the executive, the administrative agencies, the courts, interest groups, political parties, and citizens. Outputs are decisions and actions and public policy. The political system is an identifiable system of institutions and processes that transform inputs into outputs for the whole society. The elements with the system are interrelated and it can respond to forces in the environment, and it seeks to preserve itself in balance with the environment. The system preserves itself by producing reasonably satisfactory outputs (compromises are arranged, enacted and enforced). It relies on deep rooted support for the system itself and its use, or threat of use, of force. Macro level policies are those that concern the whole system, and are influenced by official and unofficial groups (media, etc.). It may center on the proper role of Congress or the President, or the relationships of government and business or citizens and businesses. Subsystem policies involve legislators, administrators, and lobbyists and researchers who focus on particular problem areas; also called sub-governments, policy clusters, coalitions, or iron triangles. E.G. civil aviation, harbors, agricultural subsidies, grazing lands, etc. Micro-level policies are efforts by individuals, companies, or communities to secure some favorable legislation for themselves. Typically presented to a legislator as a request from the "home" district. The incentive to engage in micro-politics increases as the extent of government benefits, programs and regulations increases.

It asks questions such as:

- 1) What are the significant characteristics of the environment that generate demands?
- 2) What are the significant characteristics of the political system that enable it to endure over time and turn demands into output?
- 3) How do environmental inputs affect the political system?
- 4) How do characteristics of the political system affect public policy?
- 5) How do environmental characteristics affect public policy?
- 6) How does public policy through feedback, affect the environment and the political system itself?

1.6. Streams and Windows Model

This model posits three streams which are always simultaneously ongoing. When the three streams converge, a policy window opens, and a new policy may emerge. The problem stream focuses the public's and policy-makers' attention on a particular problem, defines the problem, and calls for a new policy approach (or else the problem fades). Attention comes through monitoring data, the occurrence of focusing events, and feedback on existing policies, through oversight studies of program evaluation.

Categorization of the problem is important in determining how the problem is approached and/or resolved: values, comparisons, and categories.

The political stream is where the government agenda is formed: the list of issues or problems to be resolved by government. This occurs as the result of the interaction of major forces such as the national mood, organized interests, and dynamics of public administration (jurisdictional disputes among agencies, the makeup of government personnel, etc). The players are often quite visible, as members of the administration, appointees and staff, Congress, media, interest groups, those associated with elections, parties and campaigns, and public opinion. A consensus is achieved among those groups and a bandwagon effect or title effect occurs as everyone wants to be in on the policy resolution and not excluded.

The policy stream is where alternatives are considered and decisions are made. Here the major focus is intellectual and personal; a list of alternatives is generated from which policy makers can select one. Policy entrepreneurs and others play a role, such as academics, researchers, consultants, career public administrators, Congressional staffers, OMB staff, and interest groups. Trial balloons are sent up to gauge the political feasibility of various alternatives, either publicly or privately. They must be acceptable in terms of value constraints, technical constraints, and budgetary constraints. Consensus is developed through rational argument and persuasion (not bargaining). Tilt occurs when a plausible solution begins to emerge. When these three streams converge, a policy window may open, because of a shift in public opinion, a change in Congress, or a change in administration, or when a pressing problem emerges. Any one stream may change on its own, but all three must converge for a policy decision to emerge.

1.7 Hogwood and Gunn's Mixed scan model

In addition to the above approach, there is another approach described by Hogwood and Gunn which is mixed and concerned both with the application of techniques and with political process.

They value the political aspects of the policy process. Hogwood and Gunn set out a nine-step approach to the policy process, which they say is 'mixed', that is, can be used for both description and prescription. The nine steps of their model are:

- i) Deciding to decide (issue search or agenda-setting);
- ii) Deciding how to decide;
- iii) Issue definition;
- iv) Forecasting;
- v) Setting objectives and priorities;
- vi) Options analysis;
- vii) Policy implementation, monitoring, and control;
- viii) Evaluation and review; and
- ix) Policy implementation succession, or termination

James Anderson's model of the policy process reduces these stages into five. They include:

i) problem identification and agenda formation; ii) formulation; iii) adoption; iv) implementation; and v) evaluation. The policy process model by Hogwood and Gunn is a typical one. While its roots may be in the rational model, it does deal with the political aspects of the policy process. They argue for a

"process-focused rather than a technique-oriented approach to policy analysis". It is seen as "supplementing the more overtly political aspects of the policy process rather than replacing them", As to the main difference between the two approaches, it may be emphasized that policy analysis looks for, one alternative, that is, best or satisfactory from a set of alternatives and is aided by empirical methods in their selection. On other hand, political public policy sees information in an advocacy role, that is, it realizes that cogent cases will be made from many perspectives, which then feed into the political process.



1.8 Summary

Models and frames that form and provide context for analysis discourse originally appeared in the 1970s and 1980s. They were viewed as problem-solving strategies that provided structure and coherence. A model is the concept of drawing a line around reality that is shared by a group of academics or theorists

Institutional Model focuses on the traditional organization of government. It describes the duties and arrangements of bureaus and departments. It considers constitutional provisions, administrative and common law, and judicial decisions. It focuses on formal arrangements such as federalism executive reorganizations, presidential commission, etc

Group Model is a Public policy results from a system of forces and pressures acting on and reacting to one another. Usually focuses on the legislature, but the executive is also pressured by interest groups. Agencies may be captured by the groups they are meant to regulate, and administrators become increasingly unable to distinguish between policies that will benefit the general public and policies that will benefit the groups being regulated. Interaction among groups is the central fact of politics. Individuals with common interests band together to press their demands (formal

Systems Model relies on informational theoretical concepts such as input, output, and feedback. The model sees the policy process as cyclical. Asks, "what are the significant variables and patterns in the public policy-making system?" What goes on within the 'black box' of conversion of demands into public policy? What are the inputs and outputs? Public policy is viewed as the response of the political system to forces brought to bear on it from the outside environment

Streams and Windows Model posits three streams which are always simultaneously ongoing. When the three streams converge, a policy window opens, and a new policy may emerge. The problem stream focuses the public's and policy-makers' attention on a particular problem, defines the problem, and calls for a new policy approach (or else the problem fades). Attention comes through monitoring data, the occurrence of focusing events, and feedback on existing policies, though oversight studies of program evaluation.



1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY (2002). Women & public policy. Graduate centre for public policy and administration, 2002, THIRD SESSION

Dye, T. R. (2013). Understanding public policy. US Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication,



1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

Models and frames that form and provide context for analysis discourse originally appeared in the 1970s and 1980s. They were viewed as problem-solving strategies that provided structure and coherence. A model is the concept of drawing a line around reality that is shared by a group of academics or theorists

1. Institutional Model focuses on the traditional organization of government. It describes the duties and arrangements of bureaus and departments. It considers constitutional provisions, administrative and common law, and judicial decisions. It focuses on formal arrangements such as federalism executive reorganizations, presidential commission, etc
2. Group Model is a Public policy results from a system of forces and pressures acting on and reacting to one another. Usually focuses on the legislature, but the executive is also pressured by interest groups. Agencies may be captured by the groups they are meant to regulate, and administrators become increasingly unable to distinguish between policies that will benefit the general public and policies that will benefit the groups being regulated. Interaction among groups is the central fact of politics. Individuals with common interests band together to press their demands (formal

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

1. Systems Model relies on informational theoretical concepts such as input, output, and feedback. The model sees the policy process as cyclical. Asks, "what are the significant variables and patterns in the public policy-making system?" What goes on within the 'black box' of conversion of demands into public policy? What are the inputs and outputs? Public policy is viewed as the response of the political system to forces brought to bear on it from the outside environment
2. Streams and Windows Model posits three streams which are always simultaneously ongoing. When the three streams converge, a policy window opens, and a new policy may emerge.

Unit 5: Rational Model

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Rationalism
 - 1.3.1 Rational Model.
- 1.4 Barriers to rational decision making
- 1.5 Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

A rational policy is one that achieves "maximum social gain"; that is, governments should choose policies resulting in gains to society that exceed costs by the greatest amount, and governments should refrain from policies if costs exceed gains.

Note that there are really two important guidelines in this definition of maximum social gain.

First, no policy should be adopted if its costs exceed its benefits. Second, among policy alternatives, decision makers should choose the policy that produces the greatest benefit over cost. In other words, a policy is rational when the difference between the values it achieves and the values it sacrifices is positive and greater than any other policy alternative. One should not view rationalism in a narrow dollars and cents framework, in which basic social values are sacrificed for dollar savings. Rationalism involves the calculation of *all* social, political, and economic values sacrificed or achieved by a public policy, not just those that can be measured in dollars (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002)



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the concept of Rationalism
- ii. Discuss the concept of Rational Model.
- iii. Outline the barriers to rational decision making
- i. Explain the Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation



1.3 Rationalism

To select a rational policy, policymakers must (1) know all the society's value preferences and their relative weights, (2) know all the policy alternatives available, (3) know all the consequences of each policy alternative, (4) calculate the ratio of benefits to costs for each policy alternative, and (5) select the most efficient policy alternative. This rationality assumes that the value preferences of society as a whole can be known and weighted. It is not enough to know and weigh the values of some groups and not others. There must be a complete understanding of societal values (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002).

Rational policymaking also requires information about alternative policies, the predictive capacity to foresee accurately the consequences of alternate policies, and the intelligence to calculate correctly the ratio of costs to benefits. Finally, rational policymaking requires a decision-making system that facilitates rationality in policy formation (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002)

1.3.1 Rational Model.

This model tries to understand all the alternatives, take into account all their consequences, and select the best. It is concerned with the best way to organize government in order to assure an undistorted flow of information, the accuracy of feedback, and the weighing of values. Related to techniques such as PERT, CPM, OR, and linear programming. This model tries to improve the content of public policy.

Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation. Ignores role of people, entrepreneurs, leadership, etc. Technical competence alone is not enough (ignores the human factor). Too mechanical an approach, organizations are more organic. Models must be multidimensional and complex. Predictions are often wrong; simple solutions may be overlooked. The costs of rational-comprehensive planning may outweigh the cost savings of the policy

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the concept of Rationalism
2. Discuss the Rational Model

1.4 Barriers to rational decision making

However, there are many barriers to rational decision making, so many, in fact, that it rarely takes place at all in government. Yet the model remains important for analytic purposes because it helps to identify barriers to rationality. It assists in posing the question, Why is policymaking not a more rational process? At the outset we can hypothesize several important obstacles to rational policymaking:

Many conflicting benefits and costs cannot be compared or weighed; for example, it is difficult to compare or weigh the value of individual life against the costs of regulation.

Policymakers may not be motivated to make decisions on the basis of societal goals but instead try to maximize their own rewards-power, status, reelection, and money. Policymakers may not be motivated to maximize net social gain but merely to satisfy demands for progress; they do not search until they find "the one best way"; instead they halt their search when they find an alternative that will work. Large investments in existing programs and policies (sunk costs) prevent policymakers from reconsidering alternatives foreclosed by previous decisions.

There are innumerable barriers to collecting all the information required to know all possible policy alternatives and the consequences of each, including the cost of information gathering, the availability of the information, and the time involved in its collection.

Neither the predictive capacities of the social and behavioral sciences nor those of the physical and biological sciences are sufficiently advanced to enable policymakers to understand the full benefits or costs of each policy alternative.

Policymakers, even with the most advanced computerized analytical techniques, do not have sufficient intelligence to calculate accurately costs and benefits when a large number of diverse political, social, economic, and cultural values are at stake.

Uncertainty about the consequences of various policy alternatives compels policymakers to stick as closely as possible to previous policies to reduce the likelihood of unanticipated negative consequences.

The segmentalized nature of policymaking in large bureaucracies makes it difficult to coordinate decision making so that the input of all the various specialists is brought to bear at the point of decision.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Outline the Barriers to rational decision making2. Explain the Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation |
|---|

1.5 Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation.

The most deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation is that it ignores the role of people, entrepreneurs, leadership, etc. Technical competence along is not enough (ignores the human factor). Too mechanical an approach, organizations are more organic. Models must be multidimensional and complex. Predictions are often wrong; simple solutions may be overlooked. The costs of rational-comprehensive planning may outweigh the cost savings of the policy (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002)



1.6 Summary

This unit sees Rational Model as all the alternatives, take into account all their consequences, and select the best. It is concerned with the best way to organize government in order to assure and undistorted flow of information, the accuracy of feedback, and the weighing of values. Related to techniques such as PERT, CPM, OR, and linear programming. This model tries to improve the content of public policy.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY (2002). Women & public policy. Graduate centre for public policy and administration, 2002, THIRD SESSION

Dye, T. R. (2013). Understanding public policy. US Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication,



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

1. Rationalism

To select a rational policy, policymakers must (1) know all the society's value preferences and their relative weights, (2) know all the policy alternatives available, (3) know all the consequences of each policy alternative, (4) calculate the ratio of benefits to costs for each policy alternative, and (5) select the most efficient policy alternative

2. Rational Model.

This model tries to understand all the alternatives, take into account all their consequences, and select the best. It is concerned with the best way to organize government in order to assure and undistorted flow of information, the accuracy of feedback, and the weighing of values. Related to techniques such as PERT, CPM, OR, and linear programming. This model tries to improve the content of public policy.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

1. Barriers to rational decision making

However, there are many barriers to rational decision making, so many, in fact, that it rarely takes place at all in government. Yet the model remains important for analytic purposes because it helps to identify barriers to rationality. It assists in posing the

question, Why is policymaking not a more rational process? At the outset we can hypothesize several important obstacles to rational policymaking:

Many conflicting benefits and costs cannot be compared or weighed

2. Deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation.

The most deficiencies of Rationalism--gap between planning and implementation is that it ignores the role of people, entrepreneurs, leadership, etc. Technical competence alone is not enough (ignores the human factor). Too mechanical an approach, organizations are more organic

MODULE 2

Unit 1: Theories of Public Policy: Structural-Functional Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 Origin of Structural-Functional Theory
- 1.4 Assumption of the Structural functionalism theory
- 1.5 Goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework
- 1.6 A critique of the structural functionalist perspective theory
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

It is possible to trace the origins of the structural-functional Theory back to earlier applications of functionalism and systems models in the fields of anthropology, sociology, biology, and political science. Around the same time that it became apparent that the methods of studying politics in the United States and Europe were not applicable to the study of politics in newly independent countries, structural functionalism began to gain popularity as an alternative method of analysis. A bounded "nation-state system" is assumed to exist by the structural-functionalist school of thought, which then analyses structures in terms of the functions they play within the system.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- ii. Explain the Structural-Functional Theory
- iii. Discuss the assumption of the Structural functionalism theory
- iv. Evaluate the critique of the structural functionalist perspective theory



1.3 Theory of Structural-Functional

1.3.1 Origin of Structural-Functional Theory

Gabriel Almond is credited with being the one who first proposed this notion in the year 1960. The political structure served as the foundation for Almond's study. He defined a

political system as a system of interactions that can be found in all independent societies. This system fulfills the functions of integration and adaptation (both internally and vis-à-vis other societies) by employing, or threatening to employ, more or less legitimate physical compulsion. He said that political systems can be found in all independent societies (Almond and James, 1960). The legitimate system for preserving or modifying order in a society is the political system.

Almond proposes that all political systems share the following four characteristics: (a) all political systems contain political structures; (b) the same functions are carried out in all political systems, albeit at varying frequencies and by a variety of structures; (c) all political structures are capable of performing more than one function; and (d) all political structures are "mixed" systems in the cultural sense. Almond's functional categories for the study of political systems are political (input) functions and governmental (output) functions. Political functions are considered to be input functions. (a) Political socialization and recruitment, (b) interest articulation, (c) interest aggregation, and (d) political communication are the functions that make up the political input. Rule creation (a), rule application (b), and rule adjudication (c) are the three functions that fall under the category of governmental output. The theory distinguishes between political function and political structure by outlining the components that make up each set: the first set consists of functions, and the second set is comprised of structures. He proposed that the political systems might be evaluated based on the possibilities that the given functions would be carried out by the specified structures.

1.4 Assumption of the Structural functionalism theory

The idea that society can be viewed as a system with pieces that are interconnected is central to the structural functionalist perspective. According to Varma's (2003) definition, a system is an entity that is made up of pieces that are both interconnected and interrelated to one another. According to this theory, society is seen of as an entity that consists of various components, each of which fulfills a certain role in the whole. Easton (1965) refers to these components as sub-systems, while Almond refers to them as structures (1963). According to Almond's way of thinking, every structure has a purpose or a part to play; this line of thinking is known as structural functionalism.

According to Varma's (2003), "the underlying assumption of the theory is that, in order for a social system to survive and sustain its going concern, a certain degree of order and stability is required." This is the basic assumption that underpins the theory. According to this theory, in order for there to be order and consistency in society, each component of the social system must fulfill the purpose that it was designed for. Because of this functional condition, the various sections of the social system can be connected to one another, thereby integrating the social system as an organic system. In light of this, Haralambos and Heald (2003) came to the conclusion that, from a functionalist perspective, "the social system has some fundamental demands that must be addressed in order for it to survive." The term "functional prerequisites" refers to these requirements. Contributing to the upkeep of the society is the responsibility of every member of the society; this is their role.

According to Gauba (2003), political theory implies an intellectual effort to attain systematic knowledge about the goals and methods of politics. Political theory seeks to explain political phenomenon, predicts political future or prescribes solutions to political problems. It is concerned with issues pertaining to politics, state power, government, structures and institutions relating to the state or government.

For Sabine and Thorson (1973), Political theory is, quite simply, man's attempt to consciously understand and solve the problem of his group life and organization. Thus, political theory is an intellectual tradition and its history consists of the evolution of men's thought about political problems overtime". Sabine concluded that it is the "disciplined investigation of political problems". With respect to political theory, it is evident that political theory is as old as human existence. It is applied to defend, justify or question the status quo and aims at describing, explaining, rationalizing, justifying or criticizing existing political structures, institutional arrangements, balance of power or power equations in political communities or societies. No wonder Johari (1987) agreed that "political theory is an objective description of politics" and one of the principal functions of political theory is not only to demonstrate what political practice should be, but also what it actually means and every political theorist is bound to play both the role of a scientist and a philosopher. Political theory is also concerned with individual or group political belief systems, orientations and values, ideologies and aspirations.

According to Thakurdas (1982); "Political theory is the speculation of a single individual who is attempting to offer a Theoretical explanation of political reality, namely the phenomenon of the state. Every theory by its very nature is an explanation built upon a certain hypothesis which is always open to criticism".

Political theory is often used interchangeably with political thought, political philosophy, political ideology, political inquiry and political analysis.

However, there are still marked differences among them.

There are variants of political theory such as formal political theory, empirical political theory and normative political theory. Formal political theories are theories which emanate from an existing political theory, for example, Neo-Marxist political theory.

Empirical political theory which is descriptive in character makes use of scientific methods such as observation, hypothesis formulation, generalization etc. It is almost value free and is concerned with political realities.

Normative political theory is a value-laden theory. It takes the study of politics into the arena of what is good or bad and suggests how political system can be made "perfect". Having conceptualized political theory, it can be aptly contended that political theorizing is concerned with the ability to have one's own political view and the capacity not only to express and defend it, but to do so intelligently and persuasively.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. The origins of the structural-functional Theory back to earlier applications of functionalism and systems models. Discuss
2. Explain the underlying assumption of structural-functional Theory

1.5 Goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework

In positing this theory, Almond asserted that in any political system, there are four input functions that are performed by the governmental system, by society, and by the general environment. These functions are referred to as the "four input functions of any political system." A few examples of these are political socialization and recruiting, interest articulation and aggregation, political communication, and interest aggregation (Varma, 2003).

The goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework is to explain the factors that contribute to the preservation of order and appropriateness in society, as well as meaningful arrangement within society. The fields of biology and medicine were the ones who came up with this hypothesis first. In the fields of sociology, social science, and anthropology, it was utilized as a method of research and analysis. Almond and Verma (2003) emphasized that structural-functionalism contains two primary notions, such as structures and functions, and that it was developed for the purpose of political analysis by Almond and Verma. The internal configurations of a system that are responsible for its functions are referred to as structures. In addition, structure refers to the manner in which the components are linked to one another in order to produce an arrangement or an organization. Robert (2009) has proposed the following definition of function: function is "those observed outcomes that make for the adoption or adjustment of a particular system."

The fundamental presumption behind the structural functionalism conceptual framework is that all systems contain structures that are capable of being recognized, and that these structures carry out specific functions within the system that are essential to the system's continued existence. It makes reference to the components that are present in every system as well as the functions that are carried out by the components. The term "political system" refers to the numerous societal organizations and institutions that are responsible for carrying out political tasks or that have some bearing on the process of political decision-making policy (Verma, 2003:134).

When broken down, the three pillars or arms of a nation's government are the legislative, executive, and judicial branches, respectively. The structure can be investigated on three primary levels: the human level, the institutional level, and the subsystem level. The entirety of the structure is broken down into its component elements, each of which focuses on a different field of endeavor, such as the political, economic, or social subsystems.

As a result, the structure of the government led to the formation of substructure. It is the government and its bureaucracy that are responsible for making rules, administering,

adjudicating, and formulating economic policies through the legislative process, and the executive branch is responsible for putting those policies into action in order to promote economic growth and development in the nation.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Explain the goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework
2. Discuss the critique of the structural functionalist perspective theory

1.6 A critique of the structural functionalist perspective theory

Critics have pointed out that the structural functional method is fundamentally unchanging, despite the fact that it offers a valuable framework for classifying and contrasting different types of data. It was not particularly helpful for assessing or anticipating change; the question of why political development occurs, how it happens, when it happens, and in what direction it happens. The problem of progress or transformation is, of course, of the utmost importance for the Third World.

In response to criticisms, structural functionalists looked at history and came to the conclusion that political development occurs when an existing political system is unable to cope with problems or challenges confronting it without further structural differentiation or cultural secularization. This was the conclusion that structural functionalists came to after looking at history. Political advancement can be defined as the process of successfully overcoming such hurdles. When Almond spoke to "challenges," he meant shifts in the scale, nature, and frequency of inputs (particularly demands) for the system



1.7 Summary

This unit traces the origins of the structural-functional theory back to earlier applications of functionalism and systems models in the fields of anthropology, sociology, biology, and political science. Around the same time that it became apparent that the methods of studying politics in the United States and Europe were not applicable to the study of politics in newly independent countries, structural functionalism began to gain popularity as an alternative method of analysis. A bounded "nation-state system" is assumed to exist by the structural-functionalist school of thought, which then analyses structures in terms of the functions they play within the system

Varma (2003), "the underlying assumption of the theory is that, in order for a social system to survive and sustain its going concern, a certain degree of order and stability is required". This is the basic assumption that underpins the theory. According to this theory, in order for there to be order and consistency in society, each component of the social system must fulfill the purpose that it was designed for. Because of this functional condition, the various sections of the social system can be connected to one another, thereby integrating the social system as an organic system. In light of this,

The goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework is to explain the factors that contribute to the preservation of order and appropriateness in society, as well as

meaningful arrangement within society. The fields of biology and medicine were the ones who came up with this hypothesis first. In the fields of sociology, social science, and anthropology, it was utilized as a method of research and analysis. Almond (1966) emphasized that structural-functionalism contains two primary notions, such as structures and functions, and that it was developed for the purpose of political analysis by Almond and Verma. Critics have pointed out that the structural functional method is fundamentally unchanging, despite the fact that it offers a valuable framework for classifying and contrasting different types of data. It was not particularly helpful for assessing or anticipating change; the question of why political development occurs, how it happens, when it happens, and in what direction it happens. The problem of progress or transformation is, of course, of the utmost importance for the Third World.



1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The origins of the structural-functional Theory back to earlier applications of functionalism and systems models in the fields of anthropology, sociology, biology, and political science. Around the same time that it became apparent that the methods of studying politics in the United States and Europe were not applicable to the study of politics in newly independent countries, structural functionalism began to gain popularity as an alternative method of analysis. A bounded "nation-state system" is assumed to exist by the structural-functionalist

school of thought, which then analyses structures in terms of the functions they play within the system

2. The underlying assumption of the theory is that, in order for a social system to survive and sustain its going concern, a certain degree of order and stability is required." This is the basic assumption that underpins the theory. According to this theory, in order for there to be order and consistency in society, each component of the social system must fulfill the purpose that it was designed for. Because of this functional condition, the various sections of the social system can be connected to one another, thereby integrating the social system as an organic system.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The goal of structural functionalism as a theoretical framework is to explain the factors that contribute to the preservation of order and appropriateness in society, as well as meaningful arrangement within society. The fields of biology and medicine were the ones who came up with this hypothesis first. In the fields of sociology, social science, and anthropology, it was utilized as a method of research and analysis. Almond and Verma (2003:122) emphasized that structural-functionalism contains two primary notions, such as structures and functions, and that it was developed for the purpose of political analysis by Almond and Verma
2. Critics have pointed out that the structural functional method is fundamentally unchanging, despite the fact that it offers a valuable framework for classifying and contrasting different types of data. It was not particularly helpful for assessing or anticipating change; the question of why political development occurs, how it happens, when it happens, and in what direction it happens. The problem of progress or transformation is, of course, of the utmost importance for the Third World

Unit 2:Theories of Public Policy: Institutional Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 Explain the Content of the Institutional Theory
- 1.4 Discuss the Framework of the Institutional theory
- 1.5 formation of public policy as an institutional product
- 1.6 Theoretical and Model-Based Criticism of Institutionalism
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Institutional theory was first developed in the United States of America in 1983 by Paul J. DiMaggio and Walter W. Powell. In 2004, W. Richard Scott conducted a review of this theory. Institutional theory is a sociological school of thought that examines the more fundamental and enduring components of social structure. It examines the mechanisms through which structures, such as schemes; rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative standards for social behavior. This can include rules, norms, and routines.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Content of the Institutional Theory
- ii. Discuss the Framework of the Institutional theory
- iii. Assess the formation of public policy as an institutional product
- iv. Explain the Theoretical and Model-Based Criticism of Institutionalism



1.3 Institutional Theory

1.3.1 Content of the Institutional Theory

The Institutionalism Theory and Model primarily address, with regard to the evolution of public policy, the terrain on which much advancement in political sociology and political science have taken place, as well as an occasional battleground for this methods (Campbell, 1998).

Something that is discovered at a higher level is used to explain processes and consequences that occur at a lower level of analysis. This is the fundamental similarity that can be found in all institutional theoretical statements (Clemens and James, 1999; Amenta 2005). Institutionalists have a propensity to steer clear of explanations located at the person level as well as explanations that are situated at the same level of analysis.

Policy is a product that is authoritatively determined, implemented, and evaluated by the institutions of the government. These institutions include Congress, the presidency, and other elected officials, as well as local and national bureaucracies.

According to this paradigm, a policy does not become a public policy until it is legitimized by the government entity that is involved with it. Policies enacted by the government grant citizens legal powers, which in turn demand obligations from them and command their devotion. The implementation of this kind of strategy often involves the use of punitive measures (Musa, Ibrahim, Yakubu, 2020).

1.3.2 Assumption of Institutionalism Theory

According to Campbell, (1998), Assumption of Institutionalism Theory is:

- a) The study of government institutions or organizations
- b) Public policy is authoritatively determined, implemented and enforced by institutions
- c) No outside influence in the policy making
- d) Types of institutions: Congress, Executive Branch, political parties
- e) A public policy created from institutional theory – No child Left Behind Act

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Institutionalism Theory and Model primarily address, with regard to the evolution of public policy. Discuss
2. Explain the framework of the many different governmental institutions has an effect on the context in which public policy is formulated

1.4 Framework of the Institutional theory

The framework of the many different governmental institutions has an effect on the context in which public policy is formulated. The Constitution represents the greatest and most important sort of policy, and all other policies are required to adhere to it. In terms of both significance and priority, the laws that have been passed by Congress, presidential orders, and judicial rulings come in second.

One of the earliest focuses of political science was the examination of the various governmental organizations. Institutions of government, including the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial branches, as well as political parties, are typically at the center of political activity. The institutions of the state are the ones responsible for the first authoritative determination and implementation of public policy. Even while older studies of institutions had a tendency to put more of a focus on formal and structural aspects, one could nevertheless make use of them in policy analysis. A collection of regularized patterns of human behavior that are maintained over a period of time is known as an institution. As a result, they have the potential to influence the process of

decision making as well as the content of public policy. Rules and structural arrangements inside organizations are typically not neutral in their fundamental nature; rather, they have a tendency to favor certain interests in society over others and certain policy results rather than others.

The many political and institutional factors at the macro level have the potential to impact the broad patterns of domestic politics. There is room for either centralized or decentralized authority structures within state political institutions.

Within a given political authority, the legislative, executive, judicial, and other governmental functions might be located within the same set of organizations, or they might be spread out among several different organizations, each of which has its own level of autonomy and its own set of operating procedures. To use Mann's (1986) terminology, the degree to which state rulers possessed "despotic power," or control "over" others, may be a significant factor in determining the form of government that was in place (Lukes 1974). The political institutions of the state were subject to varying degrees of democratization and political rights at varying rates, depending on the subjects and citizens. Once democracies were subject to distinct electoral rules governing the selection of political officials, the state executive organizations were also subject to distinct levels and paces of bureaucratization and professionalization. This was the case once democracies were subject to different and consequential electoral rules. Every one of these processes has the potential to significantly impact political life (Campbell, 2002). The other primary line of thought, which was seen to be of secondary importance in the grand scheme of things, was that states mattered as actors. State actors were understood on an organizational level, with a primary focus on how they depended on resources. As organizations, various sectors of states may have varying degrees of autonomy and distinct capabilities, depending on the degree to which they are autonomous. It was determined that the ability of states or parts of states to designate independent courses of action constituted their level of autonomy. According to Mann's (1986) conceptualization of "infrastructural power," state capacities were conceptualized as the ability to carry out various courses of action (Skocpol, 1985). The concepts of state autonomy and capacity introduced the "power to" do anything into the conversation, without ignoring the "power over" topic, which political scientists and sociologists had been concentrating on up until that point (Lukes, 1974). It was suggested that the variations in state autonomy and capability in executive bureaucracies were crucial factors in explaining the political results of different times and places

1.5 The formation of public policy as an institutional product

According to Musa, Ibrahim and Yakubu (2020), "the Government institutions are responsible for formulating public policy and ensuring the legitimacy of policies. The policy is applied equally to all members of society by the government, which also maintains a monopoly on the use of force to implement policy. Institutions such as those found in the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government are all instances of those that confer legitimacy on policies. i.e., these institutions have the authority to make policy, put it into effect, and monitor its compliance (legitimacy, universality, and coercion) focuses on the role of policy as an institutional output (Institutions refers to

government institutions). The study of political science has traditionally focused extensively on governmental organizations. Political science has traditionally been seen as the study of governmental structures such as states, municipalities, and other such entities. These institutions are responsible for the authoritative determination, implementation, and enforcement of public policy. Because a public policy cannot become a public policy until it is opted, implemented, and enforced by some government institutions, the relationship between public policy and government institutions is a close one”.

Institutions of the state are responsible for formulating public policy. Legitimacy, as well as legal obligations that demand devotion from the populace, Universality refers to the fact that only policies established by the government are applicable to all members of the community. Coercion/Force That is, the government has the legal authority to put people in jail for breaking laws and regulations. It is specifically the capacity of the government to demand the devotion of its citizens, to establish policies that regulate the entirety of society, and to monopoly the legitimate use of force that inspires individuals and groups to work toward the enactment of their preferences into policy. Inferences and presumptions: the actions of single people don't have much of an effect, but the structure and design of a system do (Musa, Ibrahim and Yakubu, 2020).

1.6 Theoretical and Model-Based Criticism of Institutionalism

They are sometimes attacked for being "structurally biased," despite the fact that this is a characteristic of institutional reasoning that has different advantages and disadvantages when it comes to providing explanations. Institutionalists usually struggle when attempting to explain social and political change, particularly inside institutions themselves, and frequently resort to making assertions about exogenous and unpredictable shocks or the acts of a variety of players (Amenta, 2005).

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Explain the formation of public policy as an institutional product 2. Discuss the theoretical and Model-Based Criticism of Institutionalism |
|---|



1.6 Summary

This unit explain that Institutionalism Theory and Model primarily the evolution of public policy, the terrain on which many advancements in political sociology and political science have taken place, as well as an occasional battleground for this methods (Campbell, 1998).

Something that is discovered at a higher level is used to explain processes and consequences that occur at a lower level of analysis

The framework of the many different governmental institutions has an effect on the context in which public policy is formulated. The Constitution represents the greatest and most important sort of policy, and all other policies are required to adhere to it. In terms

of both significance and priority, the laws that have been passed by Congress, presidential orders, and judicial rulings come in second.

One of the earliest focuses of political science was the examination of the various governmental organizations. Institutions of government, including the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial branches, as well as political parties, are typically at the center of political activity

Government institutions are responsible for formulating public policy and ensuring the legitimacy of policies. The policy is applied equally to all members of society by the government, which also maintains a monopoly on the use of force to implement policy. Institutions such as those found in the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government are all instances of those that confer legitimacy on policies

They are sometimes attacked for being "structurally biased," despite the fact that this is a characteristic of institutional reasoning that has different advantages and disadvantages when it comes to providing explanations. Institutionalists usually struggle when attempting to explain social and political change, particularly inside institutions themselves, and frequently resort to making assertions about exogenous and unpredictable shocks or the acts of a variety of players



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. the evolution of public policy, the terrain on which many advancements in political sociology and political science have taken place, as well as an occasional battleground for this methods (Campbell, 1998). Something that is discovered at a higher level is used to explain processes and consequences that occur at a lower level of analysis
2. The framework of the many different governmental institutions has an effect on the context in which public policy is formulated. The Constitution represents the greatest and most important sort of policy, and all other policies are required to adhere to it. In terms of both significance and priority, the laws that have been passed by Congress, presidential orders, and judicial rulings come in second.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. One of the earliest focuses of political science was the examination of the various governmental organizations. Institutions of government, including the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial branches, as well as political parties, are typically at the center of political activity
2. Government institutions are responsible for formulating public policy and ensuring the legitimacy of policies. The policy is applied equally to all members of society by the government, which also maintains a monopoly on the use of force to implement policy. Institutions such as those found in the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government are all instances of those that confer legitimacy on policies

They are sometimes attacked for being "structurally biased," despite the fact that this is a characteristic of institutional reasoning that has different advantages and disadvantages when it comes to providing explanations. Institutionalists usually struggle when attempting to explain social and political change, particularly inside institutions themselves, and frequently resort to making assertions about exogenous and unpredictable shocks or the acts of a variety of players

Unit 3: Theories of Public Policy: Process Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Process Theory
 - 1.3.1 Functional analysis of Process Theory
 - 1.3.2 Public policy as a Process Output
- 1.4 The Policy Process
- 1.5 Process Theory has the following Steps
- 1.6 Implications/assumptions:
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Process theory is a system of ideas that explains how an entity changes and develops. Process theories are often contrasted with variance theories, that is, systems of ideas that explain the variance in a dependent variable based on one or more independent variables. While process theories focus on how something happens, variance theories focus on why something happens. Process theory, “stability and change are explained by reference to the balance of power between opposing entities.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Discuss the Process Theory
- ii. Explain the Functional analysis of Process Theory
- iii. Evaluate the Public policy as a Process Output
- iv. Outline the Policy Process
- v. Identify the Process Theory has the following Steps
- vi state the Implications/assumptions



1.3 Process Theory

1.3.1 Functional analysis of Process Theory

Using this approach, policy formulation actors focus on the various functional activities that occur in the policy process. Lasswell (1954) presents a scheme involving seven categories of functional analysis that will serve as the basis for our discussion:

- i. Intelligence: How is the information on policy matters that come to the attention of policy makers gathered and processed?

ii. Recommendation: How are recommendations (or alternatives) for dealing with a given issue made and promoted?

iii. Prescription: How are general rules adopted or enacted, and by whom?

Invocation: Who determines whether given behaviour contravenes rules or laws and demands application of rules or laws thereto?

v. Application: How are laws and rules actually applied or enforced?

vi. Appraisal: How is the operation of policies, their successes and failures appraised?

vii. Termination: How are the original rules or laws terminated or continued in modified or changed form?

The scheme of analysis is not tied to particular institutions or political arrangements and lends itself readily to comparative analysis of policy formation. One can inquire how these different functions are performed, to what effect, and by whom in different political systems or government units. However, its emphasis on functional grounds may lead to neglect of the politics of policy formulation and the effect of environmental variables on the process. Obviously, policy formulation is more than an intellectual process.

1.3.2 Public policy as a Process Output

Who: voters, interest groups, legislators, presidents, bureaucrats, judges

How: ID problem, set agenda, formulate policy proposals, legitimate policies, implement policies and evaluate policies.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Discuss the Functional analysis of Process Theory
2. Explain the Public policy as a Process Output

1.4 The Policy Process

Dye (2013) identified Policy Process as follows:

- i. Problem Identification. The identification of policy problems through demand from individuals and groups for government action.
- ii. Agenda Setting. Focusing the attention of the mass media and public officials on specific public problems to decide what will be decided.
- iii. Policy Formulation. The development of policy proposals by interest groups, White House staff, congressional committees, and think tanks.
- iv. Policy Legitimation. The selection and enactment of policies through actions by National Assembly and the president.
- v. Policy Implementation. The implementation of policies through government bureaucracies, public expenditures, regulations, and other activities of executive agencies.
- vi. Policy Evaluation. The evaluation of policies by government agencies themselves, outside consultants, the media, and the general public.

In short, one can view the policy process as a series of political activities-problem identification, agenda setting, formulation, legitimation, implementation, and evaluation.

The process model is useful in helping us to understand the various activities involved in policymaking. We want to keep in mind that policymaking involves agenda setting (capturing the attention of policymakers), formulating proposals (devising and selecting policy options), legitimating policy (developing political support; winning congressional, presidential, or court approval), implementing policy (creating bureaucracies, spending money, enforcing laws), and evaluating policy (finding out whether policies work, whether they are popular) (Dye, 2013).

1.5 Process Theory has the following Steps

- i. Identification of a problem and demand for government action
- ii. Formulation of policy proposals by various parties
- iii. Policy Legitimizing - Selection and enactment of policy
- iv. Implementation of the chosen policy
- v. Evaluation of policy

1.6 Implications/assumptions:

Who participates has a critical or determinant impact on the process.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Itemized the Policy Process
2. Outline the Process Theory has the following Steps



1.6 Summary

This unit explained that policy formulation actors focus on the various functional activities that occur in the policy process. The Public policy as a Process Output Includes Who: voters, interest groups, legislators, presidents, bureaucrats, judges; How: ID problem, set agenda, formulate policy proposals, legitimate policies, implement policies and evaluate policies

Policy Process as follows:

- a. Problem Identification. The identification of policy problems through demand from individuals and groups for government action.
- vii. Agenda Setting. Focusing the attention of the mass media and public officials on specific public problems to decide what will be decided.
- viii. Policy Formulation. The development of policy proposals by interest groups, White House staff, congressional committees, and think tanks.
- ix. Policy Legitimation. The selection and enactment of policies through actions by Congress, the president, and the courts

The Process Theory has the following Steps

- a. Identification of a problem and demand for government action
- b. Formulation of policy proposals by various parties

- c. Policy Legitimizing - Selection and enactment of policy
- d. Implementation of the chosen policy
- e. Evaluation of policy



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Functional analysis of Process Theory

Using this approach, policy formulation actors focus on the various functional activities that occur in the policy process. Lasswell (1954) presents a scheme involving seven categories of functional analysis that will serve as the basis for our discussion:

- i. Intelligence: How is the information on policy matters that come to the attention of policy makers gathered and processed?
- ii. Recommendation: How are recommendations (or alternatives) for dealing with a given issue made and promoted?
- iii. Prescription: How are general rules adopted or enacted, and by whom?

2. Public policy as a Process Output

Who: voters, interest groups, legislators, presidents, bureaucrats, judges

How: ID problem, set agenda, formulate policy proposals, legitimate policies, implement policies and evaluate policies

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The Policy Process

Dye (2013) identified Policy Process as follows:

- a. Problem Identification. The identification of policy problems through demand from individuals and groups for government action.
- b. Agenda Setting. Focusing the attention of the mass media and public officials on specific public problems to decide what will be decided.
- c. Policy Formulation. The development of policy proposals by interest groups, White House staff, congressional committees, and think tanks.
- d. Policy Legitimation. The selection and enactment of policies through actions by Congress, the president, and the courts

2. Process Theory has the following Steps

- i. Identification of a problem and demand for government action
- ii. Formulation of policy proposals by various parties
- iii. Policy Legitimizing - Selection and enactment of policy
- iv. Implementation of the chosen policy

- v. Evaluation of policy

Unit 4: Theories of Public Policy: Political Systems Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Proponent of Political Systems Theory
 - 1.3.2 Assumption of Political Systems Theory
- 1.4 Types of Political Theory
- 1.5 Contemporary Political Theory
- 1.6 Implications
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

An crucial foundation for explaining, comprehending, and comparing the parts and players that make up the world in the early 21st century may be found in the study of political systems and ideologies. The study of political systems, the driving factors of the rising world, the dynamics of international change and continuity, and the foundations of theoretical development are all topics covered in Political Systems and Theories courses. The study of political systems and theories gives students the chance to learn about and compare different perspectives on fundamental topics including authority, democracy, institutions, peace, and war. The field is (or should be) fundamental to and a precondition for the more applied courses in the curriculum. If you're going to study international and comparative politics, you need know the fundamental theories that guide the area. Courses in international relations cover a wide range of themes, including but not limited to: theories of statecraft; bureaucracy; democratization; ethno-religious conflict; identity; sovereignty; nationalism; and self-determination. Students working on their Master's or Doctoral theses in linguistics or polisci, or those contemplating careers in academia, should give this area a lot of thought. Students interested in learning more about the ideas

and assumptions that inform policymakers' decisions may also find this book to be illuminating.

Public policy may be viewed as a political systems response to demands arising from its environment. The political system comprises those identifiable and interrelated institutions and activities (what we usually think of as governmental institutions and political processes) in a society that make authoritative allocations of values (decisions) that are binding on society.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Political Theory
- ii. Outline the Proponent of Political Systems Theory
- iii State the assumption of Political Systems Theory
- iv Itemized the types of Political Theory
- v Explain the Contemporary Political Theory
- vi briefly explain the Implications of the theory



1.3 Political Theory

Political systems theory is an all-encompassing theory that places an emphasis on the broader social, economic, and cultural settings that put pressure on policymakers to act and result in policy outputs and outcomes.

1.3.1 Proponent of Political Systems Theory

David Easton's *The Political System* (1953), conceived the political system as integrating all activities through which social policy is formulated and executed—that is, the political system is the policy-making process

Public Policy may be viewed as the response of a political system to demands arising from its environment. Easton (1965), states that the political system theory, 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.

1.3.2 Assumption of Political Systems Theory

Public policy as system output

Who: individuals, groups, or nations depending upon the scope of the problem

How: environment may stimulate inputs into political system, producing outputs and feedback

Inputs into the system from the environment consist of demands and supports for the policy. 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 laws, 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 (David, 1965). The usefulness of systems is limited by its highly general nature. It does not say much concerning how decisions are made and policies developed within the political system. Despite these limitations, systems theory is a useful concept in organizing inquiries into policy formation. It also gives alerts of some significant aspects of the political process, such as: How do environmental inputs affect the content of public policy and the nature of the political system? How does public policy affect demands for action? What factors or forces in the environment act to generate demands upon the political system? How is the political system able to convert demands into public policy and preserve itself over time? The environment consists of all phenomena—the social system, the economic system, the biological setting—that are external to the boundaries of the political system. Thus at least analytically one can separate the political system from all the other components of a society.

The concept of feedback indicates that public policies (or outputs) made at a given time may subsequently alter the environment and the demands arising therefrom, as well as the

character of the political system itself. Policy outputs may produce new demands, which lead to further outputs, and so on in a never-ending flow of public policy.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is Political Theory
2. Explain the Proponent of Political Systems Theory

1.4 Types of Political Theory

In his book 'Political Theory', describes political theory by dividing into two categories. One is the traditional political approach which deals with the history of political ideas and the other is the modern political approach which deals with modern political behavior and scientific study (Andrew, 2012)

Political Theory is a set of an idea or observation that intends to explain the political, social, and economic conditions in the state.

Man by nature has the capacity of thinking and analyzing the individual's political behavior as well as the state in the form of political theory. Therefore the political theory is the core area of political science. Without theory, no subject cannot be considered as an academic discipline. Earlier those who engaged in this enterprise styled themselves as philosophers or scientist.

From ancient Greece to the present, the history of political theory has dealt with fundamental and perennial ideas of political science.

To better understand the changing pattern of political theory from ancient times to the present, we need to know the types of political theory. Because the types of political theory basically mean what it meant at different times.

Easton the classified political theory into two parts:

Value Theory

Causal Theory

Traditional political theories are value theory. This kind of theory focuses on human preferences.

All the political theories that discuss the relationship between different political events are called causal theories.

The contribution of causal theory in making human knowledge reliable or trustworthy is undeniable.

Pennock (2001) divides political theory into five parts.

Speculative Theory: Such doctrines speak of the establishment of ideal social structures and systems on the basis of imagination. Plato's theory of the establishment of communism is notable as an example.

Ethical Theory: In this theory, all discussions about the state and political life are based on the question of what ought to be and ought not to be.

Legal Theory: In this theory, the state can be considered as a legal institution and all the relations of political life are reviewed from a legal point of view.

Sociological Theory: In this theory, the state is basically seen as a social organization, and the emphasis is placed on empirical theory.

Scientific Theory: In this theory, based on the information and statistical data, the method of reaching general conclusions through observation, analysis, etc. is adopted.

According to Rajeev (2003) classified political theory into three categories in his book **Political Theory: An Introduction**.

1. Explanatory Theory

In explanatory theory he meant that different political theories of society have been interpreted by different political theorists according to their point of view and every theorist has found their theory acceptable.

For the clarification, he has said that- suppose that we wish to understand the birth of capitalist socio-economic formations. In the social sciences, we have several different explanations. For example, Karl Marx offered a general theory of fundamental social change. In his theory, Marx explains the reasons behind the birth of the socio-economic structure of capitalism.

The main basis of his analysis was the relationship between productive force and means of production. Max Weber, on the other hand, argues that –capitalism could not have come into existence without a change in the cultural climate, in the attitudes of a specific set of people.

This change of attitude was a component of and was brought about by transformation in the dominant religion of particular societies.

2. Normative Theory

To him, the normative political theorist must begin with assumptions that most people can endorse. In simple, this theory focuses on all the things by which a system goes from imperfect to perfect. (This theory have discussed in details in next section.)

3. Contemplative Theory

He draws Hannah Arendt's context to explain this theory. Hannah Arendt in his, 'The Human Condition' has argued that "reconsideration of the human condition from the vantage point of our newest experience and our most recent fears".

Human experiences are changing due to the new developments like satellite, man-made object stayed in skies, Atom Bomb, birth of a new language of mathematical symbols which cannot be replaced by speech, etc.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. State the Types of Political Theory2. Examine the Contemporary Political Theory |
|---|

1.5 Contemporary Political Theory

Since the 1970s there has been growing interest in political theory in the US, Europe, and other parts of the world.

Passing away from the shadow of World War 2, the reemergence of Europe and crisis in ideologies like socialism and communism brought about a new grace in political ideologies.

As a result of great debate, a number of important innovations in the study of political theory followed which culminated in a broad understanding of contemporary political theory.

If the task of political theory is, as it had been, to make us understand the political phenomenon, then it becomes necessary that it should confine itself to the explanation, investigation, and ultimate comprehension of what relates to politics- concepts, principles, and institutions. This is what contemporary political theory is doing.

According to David Held, contemporary political theory has four tasks.

It is philosophical in nature which means it is concerned with the normative and conceptual framework.

It is philosophical as well as **empirical**. It is concerned with the problems understanding and explanation of the concept.

It is also **historical** which means it is concerned with the examination of the key concept of the political theory in historical context.

It is **strategic** means it concerns within the assessment of the feasibility of moving from where we are where we might likely to be.

So it can be said that contemporary political theory basically involves these four different tasks (Philosophical, Empirical, Historical and Strategic).

In fact, there is a mixture of normative and empirical theory in the contemporary political theory where scientific explanations as well as the importance of values have got enough space.

1.6 Implications

systems implies an identifiable set of institutions and activities in society that functions to transforms demands into authoritative decisions requiring the support of the whole society; implies that the elements of the system are interrelated, that the system can respond to forces in its environment, and that it will do so to preserve itself



1.6 Summary

This unit from the above discussion on 3 Most Important Types of Political Theory, it can be concluded that over time, political theory has changed its character.

Normative political theory has dominated since ancient times, and its main focus has been on state and government. Normative political theory is essentially value oriented.

But the development of empiricism in the twentieth century influences political theory. Empirical theory is basically a value free theory. It is based on observation, data collection and testing.

Today's political theory is the combination of normative and empirical political theory. As a social scientist, we need facts and its values as well.



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Possible Answers to SAEs

1. Theory

Political systems theory is an all-encompassing theory that places an emphasis on the broader social, economic, and cultural settings that put pressure on policymakers to act and result in policy outputs and outcomes

2 Proponent of Political Systems Theory

David Easton's The Political System (1953), conceived the political system as integrating all activities through which social policy is formulated and executed—that is, the political system is the policy-making process

1. Types of Political Theory

In his book 'Political Theory', describes political theory by dividing into two categories. One is the traditional political approach which deals with the history of political ideas and the other is the modern political approach which deals with modern political behavior and scientific study (Andrew, 2012)

Political Theory is a set of an idea or observation that intends to explain the political, social, and economic conditions in the state

2. Contemporary Political Theory

Since the 1970s there has been growing interest in political theory in the US, Europe, and other parts of the world.

Passing away from the shadow of World War 2, the reemergence of Europe and crisis in ideologies like socialism and communism brought about a new grace in political ideologies.

Unit 5: Theories of Public Policy: Group Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Group Theory
 - 1.3.1 Assumption of Group Theory
- 1.4 Component of Group Theory
- 1.5 Limitations of Group theory
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Group Theory

Group theorists perceive the political system as a gigantic network of groups in a constant state of interaction with one another. This interaction takes the form of pressures and counter pressures, the outcome of which defines the state of the political system at any given time. A group may be defined as an aggregate of individuals who interact in varying degrees in pursuance of a common interest (David, 1965). Examples of groups are Trade unions, Cooperatives, Business, Ethnic and Religious Organizations; institutional interest groups such as Legislatures, Bureaucracies, Political parties, the Military, Churches etc. There are also interest groups in the form of spontaneous and eruptive aggregations such as riots, demonstrations and other manifestations of mob activity. A group becomes a political interest group when it makes claims through or upon any institutions of government. This group believes that public policy is the product of the group struggle. From this perspective, public policy is the equilibrium reached in the group's struggle at any given moment, and it represents a balance which the contending factions or groups constantly strive to weigh in their favour. Public Policy at any given time will reflect the interests of dominant groups. As groups gain and lose power and influence, public policy could be altered in favour of the interests of those gaining influence against the interests of those losing influence.

Public policy is the product of the group struggle.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Concept of Group Theory
- ii. Discuss the Component of Group Theory
- iii. State the Limitations of Group theory
- iv. Explain the Application of Group theory



1.3 Group Theory

Group theory rests on the contention that interaction and struggle among groups are the central facts 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."

The individual is significant in politics only as a participant in or a representative of groups. It is through groups that individuals seek to secure their political preferences. A central concept in group theory is that of access. To have influence and to be able to help shape governmental decisions, a group must have access, or the opportunity to express its viewpoints to decision-makers.

Obviously, if a group is unable to communicate with decision-makers, if no one in government will listen, its chances of affecting policymaking are slim. Access may result from the group's being organized, from its having status, good leadership, or resources such as money for campaign contributions.

Social lobbying—the wining, dining, and entertaining of legislators and other public officials—can be understood as an effort to create access by engendering a feeling of obligation to the groups involved.

In the nature of things, some groups will have more access than others. Public policy at any given time will reflect the interests of those who are dominant. As groups gain and lose power and influence, public policy will be altered in favor of the interests of those gaining influence against the interests of those losing it.

1. One of the main agents for policy change is the initiative by the interest groups.
2. They pressure and interact with the policy makers on preferences and self interest
3. Thus, the role of the political system is to establish and enforce compromise between various, conflicting interests in society.

1.3.1 Assumption of Group Theory

The group model assumes that public policy is a balance of interest group influence; policies change when particular interest groups gain or Lose influence. Group theory starts with the idea that the most important thing in politics is how groups interact with each other. People with similar goals get together, either formally or informally, to put pressure on the government. David Truman, a political scientist, says that an interest group is "a group with a shared attitude that makes claims on other groups in society." He

says that an interest group becomes political "if and when it makes a claim through or on any of the government institutions." People are only important in politics when they do something for or on behalf of a group. Putting the Model to Use

In "Tax Policy: Battling Special Interests," for example, we'll see how powerful interest groups can be when it comes to getting special treatment in the tax code and stopping efforts to change the country's tax laws.

The group becomes the most important link between the government and the individual. Politics is really the fight between groups over how public policy is made. The job of the political system is to deal with group conflicts. It does this by: 1) setting the rules of the game in the group struggle, 2) making compromises and balancing interests, 3) making compromises into public policy, and 4) making sure these compromises are followed.

Group theorists say that the balance reached in the group struggle is the public policy at any given time. The relative power of different interest groups determines how well this balance works. Changes in the relative power of any interest group are likely to lead to changes in public policy. Policy will groups is determined by their numbers, wealth, organizational strength, leadership, access to decision makers, and internal cohesion away from the wants of groups that are losing power.

Forces that affect how the interest group system works

Several forces keep the whole system of interest groups, which is the political system itself, in balance. First, there is a large, almost universal, hidden group in American society that supports the Constitution and the rules of the game as they are now. This group isn't always visible, but it can be used to punish any group that attacks the system and threatens to upset the balance with a huge blow.

Second, group members who belong to more than one group help keep the balance by keeping any one group from moving too far away from the values that are already in place. People who are part of one group are also part of other groups. Because of this, groups have to be careful not to offend their members who are part of other groups.

Lastly, the checks and balances that come from group competition also help to keep the system in balance. For example, in Nigeria, no single group has more people than any other. Each group's power is kept in check by the power of other groups. "Countervailing" centers of power work to keep any one group from having too much power and to protect individuals from being used.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- | | |
|-----|---------------------------------------|
| i. | Explain the Concept of Group Theory |
| ii. | Discuss the Component of Group Theory |

1.4 Limitations of Group theory

Even though it focuses attention on one of the major dynamic elements in policy formulation in pluralist societies, group theory seems both to overstate the importance of groups and to understate the independent and creative role that public officials, political leaders, institutions and ideas play in the policy process. Group analysis has traditionally assumed that individuals are bound together in order to enhance their chances of

obtaining a common goal or good. Implicit in this reasoning is the assumption that groups pursue their self-interest in the same manner as individuals seek their self-interest. (Olson, 1997) Shown in his Theory of Collective Goods is that individuals within large groups will not act to achieve the common or group interest. This conclusion is based on the premise that individuals act rationally and in their own self-interest. However, Olson (1997) states that, If the members of a large group rationally seek to maximize their personal welfare, they will not act to advance their common or group objectives unless there is coercion to force them to do so, or unless some separate incentive, distinct from the achievement of the common or group interest, is offered to the members of the group individually on the condition that they help bear the costs or burdens involved in the achievement of group objectives. Despite these limitations, real or perceived inter-group hostilities and struggles have sometimes been exploited in the process of colonial or neo-imperialist penetration of political systems in the less/technologically developed countries.

Another shortcoming of group theory is that in actuality many people (e.g., the poor and disadvantaged) and interests (such diffuse interests as natural beauty and social justice) are either not represented or only poorly represented in the group struggle

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. State the Limitations of Group theory ii. Explain the Application of Group theory |
|---|

1.5 Application of Group theory

- a) Public policy is the result of a fight between organized groups of people.
- b) A group can become an interest group in politics. A political interest group can make demands or change what people want from a government institution.
- c) A group should have good leadership, a good status or reputation, resources, sources, social skills, and a good relationship with people who make decisions.
- d) Policy will be based on what the dominant group wants.
- e) What's wrong with group theory? The poor and those with problems are not shown. The group isn't well put together or doesn't have a clear goal.



1.6 Summary

This unit stated that, Group theory rests on the contention that interaction and struggle among groups are the central facts of political life

It becomes a political interest group "when it makes a claim through or upon any of the institutions of government

The group model assumes that public policy is a balance of interest group influence; policies change when particular interest groups gain or Lose influence. Group theory starts with the idea that the most important thing in politics is how groups interact with each other Even though it focuses attention on one of the major dynamic elements in policy formulation in pluralist societies, group theory seems both to overstate the

importance of groups and to understate the independent and creative role that public officials, political leaders, institutions and ideas play in the policy process

Application of Group theory: a) Public policy is the result of a fight between organized groups of people. b) A group can become an interest group in politics.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Group Theory

Group theory rests on the contention that interaction and struggle among groups are the central facts 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

2. Assumption of Group Theory

The group model assumes that public policy is a balance of interest group influence; policies change when particular interest groups gain or Lose influence. Group theory starts with the idea that the most important thing in politics is how groups interact with each other. People with similar goals get together, either formally or informally, to put pressure on the government. David Truman, a political scientist, says that an interest group is "a group with a shared attitude that makes claims on other groups in society

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Limitations of Group theory

Even though it focuses attention on one of the major dynamic elements in policy formulation in pluralist societies, group theory seems both to overstate the importance of groups and to understate the independent and creative role that public officials, political leaders, institutions and ideas play in the policy process. Group analysis has traditionally assumed that individuals are bound together in order to enhance their chances of obtaining a common goal or good. Implicit in this reasoning is the assumption that groups pursue their self-interest in the same manner as individuals seek their self-interest

2. Application of Group theory

- a) Public policy is the result of a fight between organized groups of people.
- b) A group can become an interest group in politics. A political interest group can make demands or change what people want from a government institution.
- c) A group should have good leadership, a good status or reputation, resources, sources, social skills, and a good relationship with people who make decisions.
- d) Policy will be based on what the dominant group wants.
- e) What's wrong with group theory? The poor and those with problems are not shown. The group isn't well put together or doesn't have a clear goal

MODULE 4

Unit 1: Elite Theory of Public Policy

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Elite Theory
 - 1.3.1 Briefly explain the Origin of Elite Theory
 - 1.3.2 Highlight the basic assumption of Elite Theory
- 1.4 Discuss the Elite-Mass Model
- 1.5 Explain the implications of elite theory for policy analysis
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Public policy can also be seen as the likes and dislikes of the people who run the country. People often say that public policy reflects what "the people" want, but this may be a myth about American democracy rather than the truth. Elite theory says that most people don't care about public policy and don't know much about it. It also says that elites influence public opinion on policy questions more than the public does. So, it turns out that what the government does is really based on what the elites want. The elite set the policies that public officials and administrators have to follow. Policies come from the top down to the people; they don't come from what the people want.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Briefly explain the Origin of Elite Theory
- ii. Highlight the basic assumption of Elite Theory
- iii. Discuss the Elite-Mass Model
- iv Explain the implications of elite theory for policy analysis



1.3 Elite Theory

1.3.1 Origin of Elite Theory

The "classic" elite theories were developed by Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), and Robert Michels in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (1876–1936). Especially in regards to the importance of political power and charismatic

leadership, Max Weber's thoughts were strongly imprinted on subsequent iterations of these beliefs

As a radical critique of two competing theoretical-ideological streams of thought—the democratic theory ("government of the people, by the people, for the people," as Lincoln put it in his Gettysburg Address) and the Marxist vision of class conflict leading to revolution and egalitarian socialism—the classic theorists focused on the inevitable existence of a group of powerful "elites" in all large-scale societies. In contrast to these two ideologies, "elite theories" postulated a permanent split between a small group of powerful people (named "elites," "ruling classes," "political classes," "oligarchies," "aristocracies," etc.) and the vast majority of people (called "masses") (Bottomore, 1993). Pareto based elite domination on the talent and psychological dispositions of such groups, combined with the skillful use of force and persuasion; Mosca saw the dominance of "oligarchies" as the inevitable outcome of large-scale org structures; and Michels saw the domination of "oligarchies" as reflecting a "material, intellectual, or even moral superiority" (1939, p. 50) of ruling minorities. None of the three argued that economic class differences could be reduced to or derived from preexisting social and political hierarchies based on political power rather than property. Most crucially, elite theorists claimed there was no way out of elite power, arguing that revolutions just mark the circulation of elites and, as the Russian Revolution showed, do not reduce the disparity in power between the elites and the masses. It follows that ideas like a truly democratic and egalitarian political order are merely utopian ideals. According to Pareto, history is a cemetery for failed aristocracies (1963, p. 1430).

The rise of fascist and communist movements and regimes, the consolidation of corporate power, the expansion of bureaucratized mass parties, the consolidation of powerful and centralized mass media, and the weakening of liberal capitalism are all consequences of "modern trends" that strengthened the state. These developments were seen as the result of bureaucratic industrialism by Mosca, Pareto, Michels, and Weber. They believed that elites were best suited to manage democratic institutions, amass the privileges that power brings, orchestrate mass support, and protect their positions by controlling access to the top, given the increasing complexity of modern society and the need for progressive bureaucratic organization of all activities. The basic assumption of classic elite theory is its perspective on power stratification, which includes the insistence on the universality of elites and the presentation of elite characteristics as crucial explanatory factors.

The second theoretical tenet deals with the ability of those in authority to coalesce into coherent groups. Even among a tightly knit elite group, disagreements and splits over particular policy issues are not out of the question. There is no way to stand in the way of the elite when they are acting in concert to protect their shared power interests.

Third, elites are interconnected with "social forces," which might include things like social movements, socioeconomic strata, and racial and ethnic communities. The traditional elite theorists are hazy on the specific nature of such ties, but they assert that they are necessary for elite dominance.

Fourth tenet: there must be a clear path to leadership. Access to the elite ranks is strictly regulated by the elites themselves, both directly and indirectly, and requires the

acquisition of uncommon traits (such as wealth, prestige, and education). Institutional "gatekeepers" (e.g., corporate hierarchies, political party machines) and elite "selectorates" working at each level of hierarchical promotion are two ways that elites manage the recruitment of their successors. One result of such discriminatory behaviors is a skewed social make-up, while another is the maintenance of elite worldviews even in the face of high rates of social mobility and elite turnover (i.e., the frequent replacement of elite members).

The fourth principle describes the normal behavior of powerful people. Every theory of the elite agrees on the concept of "manufactured" elite dominance by influence and manipulation, sometimes backed up by force. democratic elections are largely symbolic and serve as a useful instrument for the orderly movement of elite individuals, but they do little to really change the structure of the elite themselves.

Scholars who study elites after World War II (1939–1955) downplayed elite coherence and questioned the skepticism of classic theorists about democratization's chances. According to Joseph Schumpeter's fundamental concept from 1954, regular elections for political leadership are necessary in a modern democracy because of the importance of elites. Many "plural," "democrat," and "neo-" elite theorists followed in Robert Dahl's (1971) and Giovanni Sartori's (1981) footsteps in developing this concept. Empirical investigations of contemporary elites (summarized by Robert Putnam in 1976) provided support for this theory, finding that, unlike cohesive minority, modern democracies are characterized by complex networks of competing and collaborating elite groups. The central issue was whether or not elites (mostly in the United States) formed a homogeneous and impregnable "power elite," or whether they were instead organized into looser but no less powerful "plural" or "strategic" groups. However, these investigations could not produce definitive results since any image of power distribution is contingent on the definition and measurement of power. Those who relied on reputation and tenure in high positions inside organizations to determine who held sway painted an image of tightly knit "establishments" and "power elites." Those who instead focused on key decision-makers as elites painted an image of "plural" elites, or groups of contending elites.

Modern elite theorists, especially those who focus on postcommunist transformations, look beyond these debates to see elites as part of larger power and stratification schemes, to recognize the multifaceted nature of power, and to see elites as crucial "crafters" and "sustainers" of democratic regimes. Włodzimierz Wesolowski and Eva Etzioni-Halevi, who both considered elites and classes as related, attempted perhaps the most well-known theoretical synthesis of the class and elite visions of the power system. According to this theory, elites form coalitions ("couples") with powerful social groups and institutions. Political elites are the most powerful minorities, whereas economic classes are characterized by their respective roles as owners or laborers. John Higley and his coworkers have investigated the connections between elite and regime types of power (such as postcommunist regimes and well-established liberal democracies) by focusing on two elite characteristics—structural integration and value/normative consensus—as key determinants of political stability and the democratic character of regimes. Stable

liberal democracies can only be maintained by elites that are consensually united, that is, elites that are characterized by inclusiveness and open access (broad integration) as well as strong and widely shared agreement regarding the norms of political activity ("rules of the game"). Stable yet undemocratic governments are run by elites who are united by ideological formulas (like the Chinese), while disunited elites follow and prolong unstable regimes.

Elite theory can be summed up in a few sentences: • There are a few people with power and a lot of people who don't. Society's values are set by a small group of people; public policy is not made by the masses. The few people who run things are not like the many people who are run by them. Elites are mostly made up of people from the wealthiest parts of society.

The movement of non-elites into positions of power must be slow and steady to keep things stable and prevent a revolution. The only way for non-elites to join governing circles is if they agree with the basic elite consensus.

The elites agree on what the basic values of the social system are and how to keep the system going. In Nigeria, the elites agree on the importance of private property, the limits of government, and the freedom of each person.

Public policy doesn't reflect what most people want, but rather what the elite value most. Changes to public policy will be small and gradual, not big and sudden. The apathetic masses don't have much direct power over the active elites. The elites have more power over the masses than the masses do over the elites.

What does elite theory mean for the way policy analysis is done? Elitism means that public policy is based less on what the people want and more on what the elites want, value, and care about. Because of this, re-definitions lead to change and new ideas in public policy.

1.3.2 Assumption of Elite Theory

- a) Reflects the values and preference of the elite
- b) The ruling elite has presence and influence of the governmental decision-making
- c) Society is divided between the haves and have nots The elite is the selected few but does not reflex the needs of the masses
- d) Elite consensus includes private enterprise, private property, and favors minimal government intervention – big business.
- e) Focus on the role of leadership in policy formation, the few govern the many

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- iii. Briefly explain the Origin of Elite Theory
- iv. Highlight the basic assumption of Elite Theory

1.4 Elite-Mass Model

A policy-making elite operates in an atmosphere marked by apathy and information distortion, and they are responsible for governing a mass population that is primarily passive. The elite determine policy, which is then implemented by the masses. Those who

hold power in society are differentiated from those who do not hold power. Values that set elites apart from the general population are held in common. The policies that are now in place are reflective of elite beliefs, and as a result, they tend to maintain the status quo. The elites enjoy greater income, greater education, and higher prestige than the majority of the population. One way to look at the values and preferences of a ruling elite is to consider how they influence public policy. More often than not, elite opinion determines that of the masses. The elite make policy decisions, while public officials and administrators merely implement those policies so that they can be "pushed down" to the masses. It presupposes that 1) society is stratified between a dominant minority and a helpless majority, and that only the minority may distribute value (the mass do not decide public policy).

2) Elites are recruited disproportionately from the upper layers, which means that the few do not represent the bulk in any way.

3) In order to keep the status quo and prevent a revolution, there needs to be a gradual and ongoing ascent of those who are not part of the elite into positions of power; but, this ascent can only occur once the non-elites embrace the values of the elites.

4) All members of society's elites are in agreement with the most fundamental social system values, including private property, limited government, and individual liberty.

5) Changes in public policy will be more evolutionary than revolutionary, reflecting shifts in the ideals held by elites in society (not mass demands).

6) The uninterested masses have very little impact on the behavior of influential elites.

The implication here is that the responsibility for the current condition of affairs, which includes the welfare of the general populace, lies with the elites. The masses are uninterested and poorly informed; the elite are able to manipulate the attitudes of the masses; the masses only have a limited and indirect influence on decisions and policy. Since information can only travel in a downward direction, democratic elections of the people are only symbolic in the sense that they link the masses to the system through political parties and the act of voting occasionally. Policies might shift slightly over time, but the ruling elites are notoriously resistant to fundamental reform and won't let it happen. The only policy options that will be given serious consideration are those that fall within the range of elites' commonly held values. Competition centers on a narrow range of issues, and elites agree more often than they disagree; there is always agreement on constitutional government, democratic procedures, majority rule, freedom of speech and of the press, freedom to form political parties and run for office, freedom to form political parties and run for office, freedom to form political parties and run for office, freedom to form political parties and run for office, equality of opportunity, private property, individual initiative and reward, and the legitimacy of free enterprise and capitalism. Because it is not possible to depend on the people to constantly support these principles, the elite are required to support them (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002).

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Discuss the Elite-Mass Model

2. Explain the implications of elite theory for policy analysis

1.5 Implications of elite theory for policy analysis

What are the implications of elite theory for policy analysis? Elitism implies that public policy does not reflect the demands of the people so much as it does the interests, values, and preferences of elites. Therefore, change and innovations in public policy come about as a result of redefinitions by elites of their own values. Because of the general conservatism of elites—that is, their interest in preserving the system—change in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary. Changes in the political system occur when events threaten the system, and elites, acting on the basis of enlightened self-interest, institute reforms to preserve the system and their place in it. The values of elites may be very "public regarding." A sense of *noblesse oblige* may permeate elite values, and the welfare of the masses may be an important element in elite decision making. Elitism does not necessarily mean that public policy will be hostile toward mass welfare but only that the responsibility for mass welfare rests on the shoulders of elites, not masses (CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2002).



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed the "classic" elite theories as developed by Vilfredo Pareto (1848–1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858–1941), and Robert Michels in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (1876–1936). Especially in regards to the importance of political power and charismatic leadership, Max Weber's thoughts were strongly imprinted on subsequent iterations of these beliefs. The basic assumption of Elite Theory are:

- a) Reflects the values and preference of the elite
- b) The ruling elite has presence and influence of the governmental decision-making
- c) Society is divided between the haves and have nots. The elite is the selected few but does not reflect the needs of the masses
- d) Elite consensus includes private enterprise, private property, and favors minimal government intervention – big business.
- e) Focus on the role of leadership in policy formation, the few govern the many.

A policy-making elite operates in an atmosphere marked by apathy and information distortion, and they are responsible for governing a mass population that is primarily passive. The elite determine policy, which is then implemented by the masses. Those who hold power in society are differentiated from those who do not hold power. Values that set elites apart from the general population are held in common. The policies that are now in place are reflective of elite beliefs, and as a result, they tend to maintain the status quo. The elites enjoy greater income, greater education, and higher prestige than the majority of the population. One way to look at the values and preferences of ruling elite is to consider how they influence public policy. More often than not, elite opinion determines that of the masses.

Elitism implies that public policy does not reflect the demands of the people so much as it does the interests, values, and preferences of elites. Therefore, change and innovations in public policy come about as a result of redefinitions by elites of their own values. Because of the general conservatism of elites-that is, their interest in preserving the system-change in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary.



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The "classic" elite theories were developed by Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), and Robert Michels in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (1876–1936). Especially in regards to the importance of political power and charismatic leadership, Max Weber's thoughts were strongly imprinted on subsequent iterations of these beliefs

As a radical critique of two competing theoretical-ideological streams of thought—the democratic theory ("government of the people, by the people, for the people," as Lincoln put it in his Gettysburg Address) and the Marxist vision of class conflict leading to revolution and egalitarian socialism—the classic theorists focused on the inevitable existence of a group of powerful "elites" in all large-scale societies. In contrast to these two ideologies, "elite theories" postulated a permanent split between a small group of powerful people (named "elites," "ruling classes," "political classes," "oligarchies," "aristocracies," etc.) and the vast majority of people (called "masses") (Bottomore, 1993).

2. Highlight the basic assumption of Elite Theory

- a) Reflects the values and preference of the elite
- b) The ruling elite has presence and influence of the governmental decision-making
- c) Society is divided between the haves and have nots The elite is the selected few but does not reflex the needs of the masses
- d) Elite consensus includes private enterprise, private property, and favors minimal government intervention – big business.
- e) Focus on the role of leadership in policy formation, the few govern the many.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. A policy-making elite operates in an atmosphere marked by apathy and information distortion, and they are responsible for governing a mass population that is primarily passive. The elite determine policy, which is then implemented by the masses. Those who hold power in society are differentiated from those who do not hold power. Values that set elites apart from the general population are held in common. The policies that are now in place are reflective of elite beliefs, and as a result, they tend to maintain the status quo. The elites enjoy greater income, greater education, and higher prestige than the majority of the population. One way to look at the values and preferences of a ruling elite is to consider how they influence public policy More often than not, elite opinion determines that of the masses. The elite make policy decisions, while public officials and administrators merely implement those policies so that they can be "pushed down" to the masses. It presupposes that 1)society is stratified between a dominant minority and a helpless majority, and that only the minority may distribute value (the mass do not decide public policy).

2)Elites are recruited disproportionately from the upper layers, which means that the few do not represent the bulk in any way.

3) In order to keep the status quo and prevent a revolution, there needs to be a gradual and ongoing ascent of those who are not part of the elite into positions of power; but, this ascent can only occur once the non-elites embrace the values of the elites.

2. What are the implications of elite theory for policy analysis? Elitism implies that public policy does not reflect the demands of the people so much as it does the interests, values, and preferences of elites. Therefore, change and innovations in public policy come about as a result of redefinitions by elites of their own values. Because of the general conservatism of elites-that is, their interest in preserving the system-change in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary.

Unit 2: Public Choice Theory

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
 - 1.3.1 Explain the Origin of Public Choice Theory
 - 1.3.2 Discuss the School of Public Choice Theory
- 1.4 Explain the Critics Public Choice Theory
- 1.5 Briefly explain the Public Choice Theory and Collective Decision-Making
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The public choice theory is a constructive theory of advocacy group politics that applies the microeconomic perspectives of market exchange to issues pertaining to public policy and political decision-making. Public choice theory is an approach that considers the ways in which interest groups' policy preferences and relative bargaining power will affect government policies



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- 2. Explain the Origin of Public Choice Theory
- 3. Discuss the School of Public Choice Theory
- 4. Explain the Critics Public Choice Theory
- 5. Briefly explain the Public Choice Theory and Collective Decision-Making



1.3 Public Choice theory

1.3.1 Origin of Public Choice Theory

This approach was borrowed from Anthony Downs' approach to policy selection (1957), in which governments select policies to appeal to a winning coalition of voters. The rationale underlying this idea holds that the government should give policy goods to those organizations that are in the best position to campaign for their interests. In spite of the fact that it has its roots in economics, the public choice approach has primarily been utilized for the purpose of conducting research on political issues. In general, public choice theory and interest group politics have been applied in a variety of political contexts, including tax policy (Becker 1983), trade protection (Schattschneider 1935; Eichengreen 1989), public good provision (Olson 1965), and economic sanctions. These

applications can be found in a number of different political works (Kaempfer and Lowenberg 1992).

Although a market analogy is a helpful way to conceive of policy selection, according to public choice theory, there remain significant differences between economic exchange markets and political exchange markets. This is despite the fact that a market analogy is a useful way to conceive of policy selection. For instance, it is commonly assumed that economic market trades are: (1) carried out voluntarily; (2) beneficial to everyone concerned; and (3) the ideal solution according to the Pareto principle. On the other hand, political markets have a propensity to favor one group over others. As a result, political markets are distributional and intrinsically conflictual. As a result, the political market is defined by rivalry between opposing interest groups that use their political capital to acquire the policies that best suit their needs.

The policy goods that are finally given by a government will, as a result of this competition over policies between competing interest groups with opposing goals, represent the influence-weighted preferences of the competing interest groups. Formally speaking, an equilibrium will be reached in the political market when the influence-weighted utilities of the stronger organizations are equal to the influence-weighted disutilities of their weaker opponents. In addition, shifts in either the fundamental distribution of power between competing groups or shifts in the relative importance that different groups attach to different concerns will lead to changes in policy. These shifts can occur independently of one another. In turn, these adjustments will influence judgments on where these groups choose to employ the limited political capital that they have.

1.3.2 School of Public Choice Theory

The "Chicago School," which considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign, and the "Virginia School," which is based at George Mason University and is concerned about how competition over government largess undermines social welfare through deadweight costs and inefficiencies, are the two primary variants of public choice theory. The "Chicago School" considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign. Gary Becker and other members of the Chicago School suggest that there are two reasons why these social deadweight costs will be kept to a minimum in the future. First, because the utility of policy goods increases at a diminishing rate (as market distortion and deadweight costs accumulate), winner groups will become less likely to lobby for additional rents, while loser groups will become more likely to lobby for relief and a rationalization of the political economy. This is due to the fact that the utility of policy goods increases at a diminishing rate (as market distortion and deadweight costs accumulate). Second, because loser groups will fight to ensure that they experience the least amount of disutilities feasible, this will lead to a further reduction in the costs associated with deadweight. As a consequence of this, the competition between opposing parties will bring the expenses to society down to an absolute minimum.

On the other hand, members of the Virginia School point out that rent transfers, because of their political nature, are frequently highly inefficient in order to disguise the extent to which beneficiary groups are stealing from the community chest. This is done in order to cover up the fact that rent transfers are politically motivated. Worse, when rents are highly concentrated and their costs are widely defused, narrow rent-seeking interests may be able to exploit collective action problems on behalf of the larger body politic for their own benefit, resulting in further net social and economic inefficiencies. This is especially problematic in situations in which rents are highly concentrated and their costs are widely defused. For instance, the economist Gordon Tullock observes that farm support is frequently provided through inefficient market manipulation, as opposed to the more efficient cash subsidies, in order to conceal the true scope of the abnormal returns to farming interests through the political process. This is done in order to avoid the appearance of a conflict of interest (1989). As a result, the Virginia School has a pessimistic outlook on the normative impact that interest groups have on the outcomes of policy debates. This is because they are concerned about the interaction between the pressures of interest groups and rent-seeking on governments, as well as the tendency of governments to overregulate.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the Origin of Public Choice Theory
2. Discuss the School of Public Choice Theory

1.4 Critics Public Choice Theory

In spite of the fact that the public choice theory and interest group politics have been used in the literatures of political economy and economics with some degree of success.

Critics have pointed out two issues with this body of work that have the potential to be important. Because the groups of interest are frequently portrayed as if they were working in an institutionally unconstrained policy market, public choice theory may pay short shrift to the essential role that domestic institutions play in shaping policy outcomes. However, despite the fact that many works in the public choice tradition do not address institutions in an explicit manner, it is still possible to incorporate them into such a framework. Institutions, which are means for politically determining rules and setting agendas, are subject to the same lobbying and bargaining processes as were detailed in the previous section. To put it another way, if one considers institutions to be meta-policies, then public choice methods can be utilized to endogenously assess the construction of institutions as well as their impacts downstream.

Second, detractors argue that public choice theory, which was developed primarily within the political context of the United States of America, is not appropriate for use in non-democratic countries such as those in which opposition groups' abilities to lobby for their policy preferences are restricted. However, it is essential to keep in mind that the term "lobbying" is merely a metaphor, and it is not necessary to take it in its literal sense.

According to the public choice theoretical framework, the term "lobbying" can apply to any form of influence. No matter what kind of government is in place, political negotiation of some kind will always take place, even if it is just covert. Disenfranchised groups in nondemocratic countries can signal their policy preferences by engaging in acts of political resistance such as fomenting armed rebellion. This can have the effect of having an indirect influence on the political process, even though the preferences of excluded groups in nondemocratic countries may not directly affect the political process. Because it raises the expenses of enforcement and administration, this opposition, or the possibility of it, effectively works as a tax on the ruling group's willingness and ability to unilaterally determine policy. This is because it causes the costs to increase. Therefore, even in nondemocratic nations, policies will be set through a process of bargaining between different groups with opposing interests. However, ruling groups in authoritarian regimes are, of course, likely to enjoy policies that are far closer to their desires. In these regimes, political capital is extremely concentrated, in contrast to the relatively widespread distribution of political capital that exists within democratic regimes.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Explain the Critics Public Choice Theory
2. Briefly explain the Public Choice Theory and Collective Decision-Making

1.5 Public Choice Theory and Collective Decision-Making

The field of public choice is the economic study of non-market decision making, with a particular emphasis on applying economic analysis to the process of formulating public policy. Traditionally, economics studied behavior in the marketplace and assumed that individuals pursued their own private interests. Political science, on the other hand, studied behavior in the public arena and assumed that individuals pursued their own personal conception of what was in the public interest. The theory of homo economicus posited a self-interested actor aiming to maximize personal profits, while the idea of homo-politicus suggested a public-spirited actor seeking to promote social welfare. As a result, separate versions of human motivation arose in economics and political science.

The theory of public choice, on the other hand, casts doubt on the idea that people's actions in politics are qualitatively distinct from those they display in the market. This theory operates under the premise that all political actors, including voters, taxpayers, candidates, lawmakers, bureaucrats, interest groups, parties, and governments, are motivated by a desire to maximize their own interests, not only in the marketplace but also in politics. James Buchanan, an economist who won the Nobel Prize and is considered the leading scholar in the field of contemporary public choice theory, contends that individuals come together in politics for their own mutual benefit, just as they come together in the marketplace; and by agreement (contract) among themselves, they can improve their own well-being, in the same way that they can enhance their own well-being by trading in the marketplace. 6 In a nutshell, people seek their own self-interest in both politics and the marketplace; but, even when people are motivated by

their own self-interest, they can still gain from collective decision making and help one other out.

Individuals enter into a social contract with one another for their mutual advantage, wherein they agree to respect laws and support the government in exchange for protection of their own lives, liberty, and possessions. This agreement gives rise to the institution of government. Therefore, proponents of the public choice theory assert that they are the intellectual successors of the English political philosopher John Locke, as well as of Thomas Jefferson, who included the concept of a social contract in the Declaration of Independence of the United States of America. Individuals are motivated by their enlightened self-interest to reach a constitutional bargain that establishes a government to defend life, liberty, and property.

According to the public choice theory, the government is required to undertake certain duties that the free market is unable to manage; more specifically, the government is required to fix certain "market failures." To begin, the government is responsible for providing what are known as "public goods," which are defined as commodities and services that must be provided to anyone who receives them. Because their expenses exceed their value to any single buyer, the market is unable to offer public goods; additionally, a single buyer would not be in a position to prevent non-buyers from utilizing the product in question. The most famous example is national defense: security from foreign invasion is too expensive for a single person to purchase, and once it is granted, no one can be excluded from its benefits once they have been provided. Therefore, in order to provide for the common defense, the people must act jointly through the government. Second, externalities are an additional type of market failure that is widely acknowledged and provides reason for government action. When the actions of one person, group of people, or local government inflict costs on other people without compensating them, this is known as an externality. The most common instances are pollution of the air and water; the discharge of pollutants into the air and water causes additional expenditures for other people. In response, governments either choose to regulate the activities that produce externalities or to impose penalties (fines) on these activities in order to pay for the costs that these activities have on society. The general failure of political parties and politicians to present voters with distinct policy alternatives during election campaigns can be partially explained by public choice theory. The advancement of ideals is not a priority for political parties or candidates; rather, their focus is on winning elections. It is not the case that they win elections in order to establish policy; rather, they win policy positions in order to win elections. As a result, every political party and candidate strives to adopt policy stances that will appeal to the largest possible number of voters. Parties and candidates tend to shift toward the center of the political spectrum in order to maximize the number of votes they receive when the distribution of opinions on any policy subject is unimodal. Ideologues, or those who are illogical and motivated by ideology, are the only ones who disregard the vote-maximizing centrist strategy.



1.6 Summary

This unit explained explains the Origin of Public Choice Theory. It was said that, the theory was borrowed from Anthony Downs' approach to policy selection (1957), in which governments select policies to appeal to a winning coalition of voters. The rationale underlying this idea holds that the government should give policy goods to those organizations that are in the best position to campaign for their interests. In spite of the fact that it has its roots in economics, the public choice approach has primarily been utilized for the purpose of conducting research on political issues. In general, public choice theory and interest group politics have been applied in a variety of political contexts, including tax policy (Becker 1983), trade protection (Schattschneider 1935; Eichengreen 1989), public good provision (Olson 1965), and economic sanctions. These applications can be found in a number of different political works (Kaempfer and Lowenberg 1992)

The "Chicago School," which considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign, and the "Virginia School," which is based at George Mason University and is concerned about how competition over government largess undermines social welfare through deadweight costs and inefficiencies, are the two primary variants of public choice theory. The "Chicago School" considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign

On the other hand, members of the Virginia School point out that rent transfers, because of their political nature, are frequently highly inefficient in order to disguise the extent to which beneficiary groups are stealing from the community chest. This is done in order to cover up the fact that rent transfers are politically motivated

In spite of the fact that the public choice theory and interest group politics have been used in the literatures of political economy and economics with some degree of success.

Critics have pointed out two issues with this body of work that have the potential to be important. Because the groups of interest are frequently portrayed as if they were working in an institutionally unconstrained policy market, public choice theory may pay short shrift to the essential role that domestic institutions play in shaping policy outcomes. However, despite the fact that many works in the public choice tradition do not address institutions in an explicit manner, it is still possible to incorporate them into such a framework. Institutions, which are means for politically determining rules and setting agendas, are subject to the same lobbying and bargaining processes as were detailed in the previous section. To put it another way, if one considers institutions to be meta-policies, then public choice methods can be utilized to endogenously assess the construction of institutions as well as their impacts downstream.

Second, detractors argue that public choice theory, which was developed primarily within the political context of the United States of America, is not appropriate for use in non-democratic countries such as those in which opposition groups' abilities to lobby for their policy preferences are restricted

The field of public choice is the economic study of non-market decision making, with a particular emphasis on applying economic analysis to the process of formulating public policy. Traditionally, economics studied behavior in the marketplace and assumed that individuals pursued their own private interests. Political science, on the other hand, studied behavior in the public arena and assumed that individuals pursued their own personal conception of what was in the public interest. The theory of homo economicus posited a self-interested actor aiming to maximize personal profits, while the idea of homo-politicus suggested a public-spirited actor seeking to promote social welfare.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. This approach was borrowed from Anthony Downs' approach to policy selection (1957), in which governments select policies to appeal to a winning coalition of voters. The rationale underlying this idea holds that the government should give policy goods to those organizations that are in the best position to campaign for their interests. In spite of the fact that it has its roots in economics, the public choice approach has primarily been utilized for the purpose of conducting research on political issues. In general, public choice theory and interest group politics have been applied in a variety of political contexts, including tax policy (Becker 1983), trade protection (Schattschneider 1935; Eichengreen 1989), public good provision (Olson 1965), and economic sanctions. These applications can be found in a number of different political works (Kaempfer and Lowenberg 1992)
2. The "Chicago School," which considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign, and the "Virginia School," which is based at

George Mason University and is concerned about how competition over government largess undermines social welfare through deadweight costs and inefficiencies, are the two primary variants of public choice theory. The "Chicago School" considers the awarding of policy goods through a political market to be relatively benign

On the other hand, members of the Virginia School point out that rent transfers, because of their political nature, are frequently highly inefficient in order to disguise the extent to which beneficiary groups are stealing from the community chest. This is done in order to cover up the fact that rent transfers are politically motivated.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. In spite of the fact that the public choice theory and interest group politics have been used in the literatures of political economy and economics with some degree of success.

Critics have pointed out two issues with this body of work that have the potential to be important. Because the groups of interest are frequently portrayed as if they were working in an institutionally unconstrained policy market, public choice theory may pay short shrift to the essential role that domestic institutions play in shaping policy outcomes. However, despite the fact that many works in the public choice tradition do not address institutions in an explicit manner, it is still possible to incorporate them into such a framework. Institutions, which are means for politically determining rules and setting agendas, are subject to the same lobbying and bargaining processes as were detailed in the previous section. To put it another way, if one considers institutions to be meta-policies, then public choice methods can be utilized to endogenously assess the construction of institutions as well as their impacts downstream.

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2. The field of public choice is the economic study of non-market decision making, with a particular emphasis on applying economic analysis to the process of formulating public policy. Traditionally, economics studied behavior in the marketplace and assumed that individuals pursued their own private interests. Political science, on the other hand, studied behavior in the public arena and assumed that individuals pursued their own personal conception of what was in the public interest. The theory of homo economicus posited a self-interested actor aiming to maximize personal profits, while the idea of homo-politicus suggested a public-spirited actor seeking to promote social welfare.

Unit 3: Agenda Setting

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Agenda Setting
 - 1.3.1 Explain the Problem Identification and Agenda Setting
- 1.4 Discuss the AGENDA Setting
- 1.5 Evaluate the Agenda, Starting From the Top Down
- 1.6 Explain the Interest Groups and Policymaking
- 1.7 Define the concept Lobbying
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Studies on public policy typically concentrate on the process by which policies are formulated rather than the policies themselves or the factors that contribute to their creation. The examination of the actions or procedures that take place inside a political system is typically included in the scope of the study of the formulation of public policy. Although it may be useful to think of policymaking as a series of procedures, in practice, these activities very rarely take place in a clean, step-by-step sequence. This is despite the fact that thinking about policymaking in this way may be helpful. Rather, these processes frequently take place at the same time, with each one blending into the others as it goes. It is possible for various political players and institutions, such as lawmakers, interest groups, lobbyists, executives and bureaucrats, reporters and commentators, think tanks, attorneys and judges, to be involved in separate processes at the same time, even within the same policy domain. The act of policymaking is rarely as orderly as the process model suggests. In spite of this, it is frequently helpful for analytical purposes to break policy making down into its component components in order to have a better understanding of how policies are formulated.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Agenda Setting
- ii. Discuss the AGENDA Setting
- iii. Evaluate the Agenda, Starting From the Top Down
- iv. Explain the Interest Groups and Policymaking
- v. Define the concept Lobbying



1.3 Agenda Setting

1.3.1 what is Agenda Setting

Who makes the decisions regarding what will be decided? In the process of developing policies, having the authority to choose which issues will be prioritized is of the utmost importance. It is of even greater significance to determine what the difficulties will be than it is to determine what the remedies will be.

A significant number of civics textbooks give the impression that agenda setting simply "happens." In a culture that is open and pluralistic like ours, it is sometimes said that the lines of access and communication to the government are constantly available, which allows for any topic to be debated and placed on the agenda of national decision making. It has been suggested that individuals and groups can organize themselves to take on the jobs of defining problems and providing solutions to those problems. People are able to identify their own interests, organize themselves and people around them, convince others to support their cause, acquire access to government officials, influence decision making, and monitor the implementation of government policies and programs. In point of fact, there is a school of thought that suggests that contentment can be inferred from the absence of political activity of this kind. But the fact of the matter is that problems with public policy do not simply "happen." Important political strategies include the creation of a problem, the dramatization of that problem, the drawing of attention to that problem, and the exertion of pressure on the government to do something about the problem. These strategies are utilized by politically significant individuals, well-organized interest groups, organizations concerned with policy formulation, and political candidates and office-holders, and perhaps most important, the mass media. These are the tactics of "agenda setting."

TABLE 3-1 Policymaking as a Process Policymaking can be seen as process-how policies are made

S/N	Process	Activity	Activity Participants
	Problem Identification	Publicizing societal problems Expressing demands for government action	Mass media Interest groups Citizen initiatives Public opinion
	Agenda Setting	Deciding what issues will be decided, what problems will be	Elites, including president, National Assembly

		addressed by government .ij. Developing policy proposals to resolve issues and ameliorate problems	
	Policy Formulation	Selecting a proposal Developing political support for it Enacting it into law	Candidates for elective office Mass media
	Policy Legitimation	Deciding on its constitutionality Budgeting and appropriations Organizing departments and agencies Providing payments or services Levying taxes	Think tanks President and executive office National Assembly committees Interest groups
	Policy Implementation	Reporting outputs of government Programs	Interest groups President National Assembly , Courts
	Policy Evaluation	Evaluating impacts of policies on target and non-target groups Proposing changes and "reforms"	President and presidential staff Executive departments and agencies Independent agencies and government corporations

1.3.2 AGENDA Setting

The "bottom-up," popularly driven paradigm of decision making is the one that is most commonly used in the study of policymaking in the field of American political science. This "democratic-pluralist" model presumes that any problem can be identified by individuals or groups, by candidates seeking election, by political leaders seeking to enhance their reputation and prospects for reelection, by political parties seeking to define their principles and/or create favorable popular images of themselves, by the mass media seeking to "create news," and even by protest groups deliberately seeking to call attention to a particular issue. And of course, the public's attention is drawn to a variety of crises and catastrophes, which can range from those caused by nature, such as storms

and droughts, to those caused by humans, such as mass murders in schools and airplane crashes, which push public leaders to take action.

Opinion Polling and Agenda-Setting Events, as well as the media's coverage of such events, have the ability to bring topics, problems, and so-called "crises" to the forefront of public consciousness. Following the tragic attacks that were broadcast live on television on September 11, 2001 against the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, the public's primary concern was with terrorism. After some time had passed, opinion polls indicated that the war in Iraq had become "the most critical concern facing the country." During the legislative elections that took place in 2006, when Democrats from the opposition won control of both houses of Congress, the problem of Iraq appeared to be the most important policy concern facing the country.

However, the prospect of a complete collapse of the financial system and a severe economic downturn quickly displaced all other matters on the public's mind. The fight against corruption, along with maintaining national security, was elevated to the position of "top priority" under the administration of President Bush. The majority of Americans now rank preventing future terrorist attacks lower on their list of policy priorities than they did previously. Other topics, including but not limited to Social Security, education, healthcare, budget deficits, the poor, crime, defense, and taxation, followed following. Only a small percentage of Americans ranked immigration, foreign commerce, lobbying, and the environment as their highest priority topics. The nation's focus was ultimately not on the issue of global warming.

The Agenda, Starting From the Top Down

When V.O. Key Jr. was faced with the same challenge that we are, determining the impact that popular preferences have on public policy, he came to the conclusion that "the missing piece of the puzzle" was "that thin stratum of persons referred to variously as the political elite, the political activists, the leadership echelons, or the influentials." This is the same group of people that we refer to as "the political elite," "the political activists," "the leadership echelons," and "the influential. The longer one spends pondering the mystery of how democratic regimes are able to operate, the more plausible it appears that a significant portion of the explanation is to be found in the motives that activate the leadership echelon, the values that it upholds, the rules of the political game to which it adheres, in the expectations that it entertains about its own status in society, and possibly in some of the objective circumstances, both material and institutional, in which it operates. This idea is supported by the observation that 1

Opinions of the General Public Regarding Policy Making. It is interesting to note that the majority of American citizens believe that the government pays very little heed to their views on public affairs and that persons who work in government have little awareness of what the general public believes. The vast majority of people living in the United States believe that their country is "controlled by a small number of powerful interests, the sources of wealth used in the development of national policy come from both corporations and individuals. The endowments, grants, and contracts that result from this money are distributed to various foundations, educational institutions, and think tanks that are concerned with policy. Additionally, corporation presidents, directors, and other

top wealth-holders also sit on the governing boards of these organizations and monitor the broad direction of their work themselves, rather than "for the benefit of all of the people." And an overwhelming majority of people in the country are of the opinion that things would be better for the country if public

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

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|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Explain the Problem Identification and Agenda Setting2. Discuss the AGENDA Setting |
|--|

1.4 Interest Groups and Policymaking

Washington is awash in special interest groups, lawyers and law firms, lobbyists, and influence peddlers. Interest groups are active in both policy formulation and policy legitimating. Organized interests frequently develop policy proposals of their own and forward them to the White House or to members of Congress or the mass media to place on the agenda of decision making. And they are even more active in policy legitimating. Indeed, political life in Washington is a blur of "lobbying," "fund-raising," "opening doors," "mobilizing grassroots support," "rubbing elbows," and "schmoozing."

Interest groups influence government policy in a variety of ways. It is possible to categorize efforts to influence government policy as follows:

1. Direct lobbying, including testifying at committee hearings, contacting government offices directly, presenting research results, and assisting in the writing of legislation
2. Campaign contributions made through political action committees (PACs)
3. Interpersonal contacts, including travel, recreation, entertainment, and general "schmoozing," as well as the "revolving door" exchange of personnel between government offices and the industries and organizations representing them
4. Litigation designed to force changes in policies through the court system, wherein interest groups and their lawyers bring class actionsuits on behalf of their clients or file amicus curiae(friend of the court) arguments in cases in which they are interested
5. Grassroots mobilization efforts to influence Congress and the White House by encouraging letters, calls, and visits by individual constituents and campaign contributors

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Evaluate the Agenda, Starting From the Top Down2. Explain the Interest Groups and Policymaking3. Define the concept Lobbying |
|---|

1.5Lobbying

Washington's influence industry is a billion dollar business. Each year lobbyists spend almost \$3 billion trying to influence policy-more than \$5 million for each member of Congress. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce regularly ranks at the top of the lobbying spenders. At the industry group level, pharmaceutical and health product manufacturers spend a great deal on lobbying. The insurance industry also ranks high in direct lobbying

expenditures, followed by telephone utilities, the oil and gas industry, the defense industry, and electric utilities.



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed Public Policy Process with emphases in Problem Identification and Agenda Setting. Problem Identification and Agenda Setting asserted that, the decisions regarding what will be decided? In the process of developing policies, having the authority to choose which issues will be prioritized is of the utmost importance. It is of even greater significance to determine what the difficulties will be than it is to determine what the remedies will be. A significant number of civics textbooks give the impression that agenda setting simply "happens."

AGENDA Setting is the process of Public Policy Process. The "bottom-up," popularly driven paradigm of decision making is the one that is most commonly used in the study of policymaking in the field of American political science. This "democratic-pluralist" model presumes that any problem can be identified by individuals or groups, by candidates seeking election, by political leaders seeking to enhance their reputation and prospects for reelection, by political parties seeking to define their principles and/or create favorable popular images of themselves, by the mass media seeking to "create news," and even by protest groups deliberately seeking to call attention to a particular issue. And of course, the public's attention is drawn to a variety of crises and catastrophes, which can range from those caused by nature, such as storms and droughts, to those caused by humans, such as mass murders in schools and airplane crashes, which push public leaders to take action.

Opinion Polling and Agenda-Setting Events, as well as the media's coverage of such events, have the ability to bring topics, problems, and so-called "crises" to the forefront of public consciousness

When V.O. Key Jr. was faced with the same challenge that we are, determining the impact that popular preferences have on public policy, he came to the conclusion that "the missing piece of the puzzle" was "that thin stratum of persons referred to variously as the political elite, the political activists, the leadership echelons, or the influentials

Interest Groups and Policymaking for instance, Washington is awash in special interest groups, lawyers and law firms, lobbyists, and influence peddlers. Interest groups are active in both policy formulation and policy legitimating. Organized interests frequently develop policy proposals of their own and forward them to the White House or to members of Congress or the mass media to place on the agenda of decision making

Lobbying for instance, Washington's influence industry is a billion dollar business. Each year lobbyists spend almost \$3 billion trying to influence policy-more than \$5 million for each member of Congress. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce regularly ranks at the top of the lobbying spenders. At the industry group level, pharmaceutical and health product manufacturers spend a great deal on lobbying



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Public Policy Process with emphases in Problem Identification and Agenda Setting. Problem Identification and Agenda Setting asserted that, the decisions regarding what will be decided? In the process of developing policies, having the authority to choose which issues will be prioritized is of the utmost importance. It is of even greater significance to determine what the difficulties will be than it is to determine what the remedies will be. A significant number of civics textbooks give the impression that agenda setting simply "happens."
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Answers to SAEs 2

1. When V.O. Key Jr. was faced with the same challenge that we are, determining the impact that popular preferences have on public policy, he came to the conclusion that "the missing piece of the puzzle" was "that thin stratum of persons referred to variously as the political elite, the political activists, the leadership echelons, or the influentials"

2. Interest Groups and Policymaking for instance, Washington is awash in special interest groups, lawyers and law firms, lobbyists, and influence peddlers. Interest groups are active in both policy formulation and policy legitimating. Organized interests frequently develop policy proposals of their own and forward them to the White House or to members of Congress or the mass media to place on the agenda of decision making
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Unit 4: Public Policy Cycle

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Problem Definition
- 1.4 Policy Alternatives/Policy Formulation
- 1.5 Policy Option
- 1.6 Policy Design
- 1.7 Policy Implementation and Monitoring
- 1.8 Evaluation
- 1.9 Summary
- 1.10 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.11 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

There are different approaches to the policy-making process depending on the context and purpose(s), the textbook model commonly accepted within the field of policy science is called the public policy cycle. Anderson (1994); Bardach (1996) and Dye (1992) identified the following process:

1. Problem Definition
2. Constructing the Policy Alternatives/Policy Formulation
3. Choice of Solution/Selection of Preferred Policy Option
4. Policy Design
5. Policy Implementation and Monitoring
6. Evaluation



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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



1.3 Public Policy Cycles

1.3.1 Problem definition:

Problem definition means that, a problem exists that requires government actions. As a starting point in the policy-making process, a problem is usually identified by a group of people in a particular society. If you as the policy specialist are also interested in finding a solution to this problem, you will attempt to get it onto the government's political agenda, i.e., turn the problem into an issue, or make it a higher priority issue if it is already on the agenda. In order to do this, it is necessary to convince both the relevant government agency and the broader policy community that a real problem exists which requires government action. In order to achieve this in the politicized world of public

policy, you will need to present a suitably persuasive and comprehensive argument which details the causes, effects and extent of the problem based on a wide variety of sources.

Policy Making Arena: Negotiating(Actors), Bargaining (Groups) and Struggling (Implementer)

Political Process: Pressure and Supports

Administrative Process: Competence and capacity, Decision and Action

Legislative Process: Review, Investigation and Enactments

Judicial Process: Restraint and resolving conflict

According to Birkland (1997) an agenda is a collection of problems, understandings of causes, symbols, solutions, and other elements of public problems that come to the attention of members of the public and their governmental officials.

The political agenda is the set of issues that are the subject of decision making and debate within a given political system at any one time.

While Agenda Setting 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 institutions have the capacity to address all possible alternatives to all possible problems that arise at any one time ; group must therefore fight to earn their issues places among all the other issues sharing the limited space or to prepare for the time when a crisis makes their issue more likely to occupy a more prominent on the agenda.

Unlike traditional academia which focuses on building knowledge within a group of peers, policy science must address real-world problems, and therefore provide recommendations and a framework for their application within the targeted society.

For example, it is not enough to analyze the causes and patterns of unemployment in a particular society in order to contribute to its understanding as a social phenomenon; a policy study must apply this knowledge to the real situation on the ground by understanding the causes, showing that it is a problem within the community in question and suggesting a course of action to address the problem. Hence, the problem solution relationship must be seen at the heart of the discipline, which means that any analysis undertaken must be driven and targeted on the search for a practical, implementable and comprehensive outcome. Problem inherence in society could be any of the following; inability to define social welfare Limits to democracy and the paradox of voting, Inability to define the marginal benefits and costs of public goods, Political constraints, Cultural constraints, Institutional constraints, Legal constraints, Knowledge constraints and Analytical constraints (Birkland,1997).

The search for such a practical outcome not only requires a well-elaborated and comprehensive analysis of all available data, but as the issues under consideration are of a societal nature, the policy researcher or analyst will also have to make some value-driven judgments about the outcome that would best address the specific problem. Hence, proposing specific solutions in the highly politicized environment of public policy and to such a broad audience, means that central to the work of the policy specialist is not just the cold empiricism of data analysis, but probably even more important is the ability to convince your audience of the suitability of your policy recommendations. In other

words, the presentation of the outcomes of your data analysis will probably not be enough to make an impact in the policy debate on a particular issue, but through the use of this data as evidence in a comprehensive and coherent argument of your position, you will give your work the best possible chance of having this impact (Birkland, 1997).

1.3.2 Policy alternatives/Policy formulation:

Policy alternatives/Policy formulation means that, Considerations are given to all possible solutions. Once the nature of the problem is sufficiently detailed and the issue is on the government agenda, the first step in attempting to address the issue is to elaborate the possible ways it can be solved, i.e., determine the policy options. In order to construct appropriate alternatives, you will need to consider what is currently being done, what options others are suggesting as well as your own suggestions. You should try to make the different options mutually exclusive, i.e., avoid options that are simply variations of the same idea. Also, consider that it will be difficult to find the ideal alternative, so you should try to search for the most feasible and realistic policy alternatives for the context

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the Problem Definition
2. Discuss the Policy Alternatives/Policy Formulation
3. Examine the Policy Option

1.4 Policy Options

Choice of solution/Selection of preferred policy option: Evaluate each option and choose your preferred one. Following the elaboration of the alternatives, a preferred policy option to address the particular problem is then selected based on a set of evaluation criteria. The use of this criteria-based evaluation process not only allows you to choose a suitable alternative, but it will also form the basis on which you can authoritatively argue for the legitimacy of your policy option. Although the issue in question and the context will determine the specifics of the evaluation criteria, commonly used criteria in this process are as follows (Bardach, 1996):

- i. Effectiveness:* To what extent will this alternative produce the desired outcomes, i.e., solve the current problem?
- ii. Efficiency:* Based on a cost-benefit analysis of both money and social impact, how will this option affect the target groups?
- iii. Equity:* Is there a fair distribution of costs and benefits?
- vi. Feasibility/Implementable:* Is there a suitable political, administrative and legal framework in place to allow for the effective and efficient implementation of this option?
- *Flexibility/Improvability:* Does this option have the flexibility to be changed to suit other possible situations or allow for improvements?

Bardach (1996) gives some useful advice for this step by suggesting that you should try to quantify (in terms of both monetary and social costs) as many aspects of your option and projections as possible, use causal modelling approaches and try to be realistic rather than optimistic about the possible outcomes of alternatives. When you have evaluated all

your alternatives, compared the outcomes and weighed up the differences, you need to decide which the best outcome is.

1.5 Policy designs:

Government chooses a policy instrument and a delivery organization mix. Once you have selected your preferred policy option and presented it to the relevant government agency, and assuming that they also accepted it fully or modify your proposal, it now becomes public policy. The government agencies must now decide how they can most effectively implement the policy. In order to elaborate an effective policy design, the agency must choose a policy instrument mix (e.g., legal, organizational or network empowerment) and a delivery organization mix (e.g., governmental or non-governmental, public or private) to provide the services or products outlined in the policy.

1.6 Policy implementation and monitoring

Government implements and monitors policy. Next, the policy is implemented according to the policy design. A balance between good policy design and effective implementation usually leads to the most effective outcomes. Also, an on-going process of monitoring needs to be conducted which forms the basis of a comprehensive evaluation procedure relying on multiple sources of data. According to both Anderson (1994) and Howlett and Ramesch (1996), many policy specialists have taken a keen interest in implementation strategies as they have a direct effect on the quality of policy outcomes and some choose to publish on these issues.

1.7 Evaluation

Government and delivery organization evaluate the effectiveness of the policy. Within the framework of any good policy design and implementation plan, a comprehensive evaluation procedure is essential in determining the effectiveness of the implemented policy and in providing the basis for future decision-making. In designing a policy evaluation plan, government agencies and delivery organizations need to consider how the policy objectives can be accurately and effectively measured and how the evaluation data collected will be used as a basis for decision-making.

The evaluation process consists of looking at the particular public policy in practice, both in terms of objectives and means employed. It will probably involve a broad group of people including bureaucrats, politicians as well as non-governmental agencies and other stakeholders.

As can be seen from the circular and iterative nature of the policy cycle, following the evaluation stage any of the following may be reconsidered: the problem, the chosen policy option, the policy design or implementation. This means that the issue may be put back on the agenda, put back to another stage of the process or may continue to be implemented in the same way.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Discuss the Policy Design
2. Explain Policy Implementation and Monitoring
3. Evaluate Evaluation



1.8 Summary

This unit discussed Public policy cycle as the bedrock of any government. It is what differentiates one government from another. The programmes and projects of the governments are usually derived from the policies. This therefore makes the development of policy management skills necessary for both public servants and public office holders. A bad policy can make a government lose an election. It is therefore important that public policy formulation process should include a very robust consultation stage which will enable all the ramifications of the policy to be considered



1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.10 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Problem definition:

Problem definition means that, a problem exists that requires government actions. As a starting point in the policy-making process, a problem is usually identified by a group of people in a particular society. If you as the policy specialist are also interested in finding a solution to this problem, you will attempt to get it onto the government's political agenda, i.e., turn the problem into an issue, or make it a higher priority issue if it is already on the agenda

2. Policy alternatives/Policy formulation:

Policy alternatives/Policy formulation means that, Considerations are given to all possible solutions. Once the nature of the problem is sufficiently detailed and the issue is on the government agenda, the first step in attempting to address the issue is to elaborate the possible ways it can be solved, i.e., determine the policy options. In order to construct appropriate alternatives, you will need to consider what is currently being done, what options others are suggesting as well as your own suggestions

3. Policy Options

Choice of solution/Selection of preferred policy option: Evaluate each option and choose your preferred one. Following the elaboration of the alternatives, a preferred policy option to address the particular problem is then selected based on a set of evaluation criteria. The use of this criteria-based evaluation process not only allows you to choose a suitable alternative, but it will also form the basis on which you can authoritatively argue for the legitimacy of your policy option.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Policy designs:

Government chooses a policy instrument and a delivery organization mix. Once you have selected your preferred policy option and presented it to the relevant government agency, and assuming that they also accepted it fully or modify your proposal, it now becomes public policy.

2. Policy implementation and monitoring

Government implements and monitors policy. Next, the policy is implemented according to the policy design. A balance between good policy design and effective implementation usually leads to the most effective outcomes. Also, an on-going process of monitoring needs to be conducted which forms the basis of a comprehensive evaluation procedure relying on multiple sources of data

3. Evaluation

Government and delivery organization evaluate the effectiveness of the policy. Within the framework of any good policy design and implementation plan, a comprehensive evaluation procedure is essential in determining the effectiveness of the implemented policy and in providing the basis for future decision-making.

Unit 5: Public Policy Implementation

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Implementation of Public Policy
 - 1.3.1 Instrument of Public Policy Implementation
 - 1.3.2 Feature of Implementable Public Policy
- 1.4 Model/Approaches to Policy Implementation
 - 1.4.1 Iglesias Model of Implementation
 - 1.4.2 Smith Model of Policy Implementation
 - 1.4.3 Grindle's Model of Implementation
- 1.5 Metaphor of implementation failure and Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation
- 1.6 Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Implementation of public policy follows its initiation or formulation policy, implementation process would be seen as all activities that must be undertaken to carry out an intention from its conception to realization.

The policy implementation to some policy analysts includes the time lag or period when an action is being conceived to the point when the objectives being conceived have been realized. There are three elements in the implementation of a given policy namely (i) a decision to be made concerning the organizational structure.

(ii) Policy goals must be translated into specific rules and regulations. (iii) Resources must be allocated and rules must be applied to the specific problems addressed by the policy. Bearing the three major elements in mind, one can make a reference into a comment of Bamisaye (1983) when he asserts that “the success of any given policy depends on how well it has been implemented. “A policy that is well formulated may end in failure if not well implemented. But a policy that is badly formulated with good implementation may end into successful ground”.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the various instrument of Public Policy Implementation
- ii. State Feature of Implementable Public Policy
- iii. Examine the Model/Approaches to Policy Implementation
- iv. Explain the Iglesias Model of Implementation
- v. Evaluate Smith Model of Policy Implementation
- vi. Explain the Grindle's Model of Implementation

- vii. Discuss the metaphor of implementation failure and Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation



1.3 Implementation of Public Policy

1.3.1 Instrument of Public Policy Implementation

According to Cobb & Ross (1976), Instrument of Public Policy Implementation are; Organizational unit, Bureaucratic structure, organization, standard operational procedure, disposition, authority, planning, coordination, communication, modality, Resources and resource allocation

1.3.1 Feature of Implementable Public Policy

1. All issues commonly perceived by members of a political community as meriting public attention of public authorities.
2. To get access to systemic agenda an issue must have: widespread attention/awareness shared concern of a sizeable portion of public and shared perception that it is a matter of concern to a public authority.
3. Explicitly up for active and serious consideration by decision makers.
4. May be an old item which is up for regular review or is of periodic concern. Or it may be a 'new' item.
5. governmental/ formal oriented problem

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Explain the various instrument of Public Policy Implementation2. State Feature of Implementable Public Policy |
|---|

1.4 Model/Approaches to Policy Implementation

This is the stage where policy goals and objectives are translated into concrete achievements through various programmes. Scholars contend that this is the most difficult phase of the policy process, in view of several assumptions can take the form of faithful implementation, changes contemplated are technically feasible and that resources like money, materials and men (knowledge) are adequate and available to implement the policy. To this extent, distortions arise in the course of implementation.

The above therefore suggests that the socio-political context of the policy process, institutional performance/capabilities and identification of the target group should be carefully done and built into policy implementation. Some of these approaches are:

1.4.1 Iglesias Model of Implementation

This model argues that implementation worldwide is a problem. The model which was developed by David U.Iglesias sees implementation process as a function of an administrative agency and so if the policy is not well implemented the administrative agency ought to be blamed. He tried to isolate and identify factors which will enhance or

increase the capability of administrative agencies to implement programmes. Thus, Iglesias was concerned with the factor that will help to implement programmes, example, if one wants to go into a water project; Iglesias says there should be good water engineers for that project to succeed and not just any engineer. He listed the following factors that will help in implementing projects:

The Structure: For any policy to succeed there must be a stable organized structure.

The Technology: This refers to information essential for the operation of the organization.

For instance, if any external affairs minister is brought into a system he is not familiar with, he cannot perform. He needs good knowledge of what is involved.

The Support: This refers to the range of actual potential roles and behaviour of persons and entities which tend to promote attainments of set organizational goals. Any policy that does not have support, input, and compliance from the people will not work. Thus, part of the reason why the Structural Adjustment Programme in Nigeria failed is because people did not support the programme following the hardship it brought on the people.

The Resources: These refer to personnel, without good expertise the project will not succeed.

Leadership: Good leadership that can influence, facilitate implementation and change things is necessary for any organization to succeed. Poor leadership hinders progress.

1.4.2 Smith Model of Policy Implementation

Smith says that government policies are deliberate policies to establish new transaction pattern or to bring about a change. Policies are not by chance; thus, public policy is a purposive action by government to establish new transaction pattern. When government takes any new issue, the reason is to take action or cause a change in the society or organization. For instance, Poverty Alleviation Programmes are established to solve the problem of poverty so that those who have been at certain level of poverty can move up, and some to get a job and start earning money. Operation Feed the Nation was to produce food.

The model maintained that policy serve as tension generating force in society, since, policies are intended to bring about change in the society, some people will be affected so there is bound to be tension in the society. There are people who used to serve as maids but with provision of free education, those maids may not want to continue as maids anymore, and this will cause tension to those masters. Even as school becomes free, and children go to school, no mother releases her child as maid; it generates tension. So changes at times bring tension and can generate conflict. Smith went further to say that in the process of implementation, tension, stress and conflicts are created between the implementer and those affected by the policy. When government wants to dualize roads, some houses will be affected.

Smith, the chief exponent of the model argues that stress and conflict occur within components of the implementation process, and they are: (i) Idealized policy implementation, which involves the interaction of policy makers with particular idealized elements. This is done to set a standard or practice that must be followed as ideal. (ii) Implementing organization: This emphasizes that there should be the organization

responsible for implementation of the policy. That organization is a unit of governmental bureaucracy. Among all the categories of theory, smith model says an unqualified and unstable administrative organization may reduce the capacity to implement public policy. (iii) Target groups: These are groups affected by the policy, when the target group is against the policy or indifferent; there will not be any good implementation; this indifference could be because of prior policy failure.

1.4.3 Grindle's Model of Implementation

Grindle's model argues that the implementation of a programme is influenced by those interested and affected by the programme. That policy implementation brings changes in social, political and economic life of the people, and when a good policy produces social change the programme will attract people in that area, some looking for jobs, some to change their social life style. He mentions that when people are going to benefit from a particular programme they will show a lot of supports. For example, if the government decides to provide electricity, it is for all the people and the support they give to that programme will affect or influence the implementation. Those whose interests are threatened by such project are bound to oppose the project, and those who stand to gain are bound to encourage the implementation of the project. If Nigeria is to have a constant supply of light, many people will not buy generator, in that case the people selling generator will lose market and will not be happy, and they will make sure the implementation of electricity policy in the community is not efficiently done.

Grindles tried to explain the contextual variables that influence project implementation process in Third World countries. He outlined some factors that influenced implementation of policies as: inadequate definition of goals, Socio -political context in which the policy is proposed and executed, the political nature of the place which the policy is to be implemented matters a lot for the smooth implementation of the plan. In Nigeria for instance, the instability in the political sphere of the country affects the implementation of such policies due to political changes. Available institutional capabilities- most time provision is not made for the institution that is going to implement such a policy, it is always good to consider whether the institution will have the means to implement such policies. Lack of identification of target group, when a policy is formulated, and the target group is not determines, there is always a problem of sabotage. Lack of continuity and commitment: Poor monetary term, a situation where there is many project competing for resources, the success of the competing interest group depends on the political resources at their disposal with which to bargain as well as the strategies adopted, sometimes there is no money to complete a project that has been started or it could be due to financial misappropriation. Also, the power base and strategies of actors involved in the implementation can influence the course of implementation.

1.5 Metaphor of implementation failure and Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation

- i. Machine Metaphor: Result of poor chain of command – problems with structure and roles
- ii. Organism metaphor: Result of 'human relations' or the 'environment'

- iii. Brain metaphor: Result of poor Information flows-or 'learning/ problems
- iv. Domination Metaphor: Result of labour/management conflict.
- v. Culture metaphor: Result of the 'culture' of the organization
- vi. Psychic metaphor: Result of subconscious forces - groupthink/ego defenses/repressed sexual instincts.
- vii. Power metaphor: Result of power in and around the implementation process

1.6 Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation

Most projects suffer some failures at implementation stage. Reasons for this are as follows:

1. **Inadequate definition of goals.** Most times the goals lack clarity, compatibility, where various goals are pursued, implementation is also complicated.
 - i. **Over ambitious Goals.** Doing many things without achieving any.
 - ii. **Lack of well defined programme:** In Nigeria, for example, specific actions aimed at achieving policy goals and objectives are often not well articulated. Hence, implementation usually takes the form of trial and error. In some cases programme chosen may not be politically acceptable and politically attractive to the national policy decision.
2. **Cultural consideration:** Cultural consideration hampers project implementation in many areas. Policies in some communities are difficult to implement due to the belief of the people-the people see it as a taboo or violation of their culture.
 - i. **Compromises:** Compromises during implementation could be a problem; it could alter the basic goals. Policies could be formulated but at the implementation in order to favour some factions of the country changes its direction which tends to alter the sole aim of such projects.
3. **Political Opposition:** This refers to the resistance of all sorts which manifest themselves from all groups of people or individuals during the implementation process. Here primordial interests often overcome the rational, practical process. Decision makers only think of themselves and their immediate families (Felicia Okim, 1988).
4. **Lack of continuity and commitment.** A situation where there has been a developed plan and stated in the plan like building of shopping complex. Leader '1' might start the project only for leader '2' to come in and abandon the project.
5. **Insufficient capital to handle projects.** For any project to be effectively implemented, the resources for its implementation must be adequately put in place, when money is not available at the right time it hinders implementation. –
6. **Social economic factor:** This is one of the problems of policy implementation in Nigeria. Predatory elites in Nigeria go out to borrow but do not invest the money. They exploit and deplete the economy.
 - i. **Inexperienced implementers,** I know it all disposition.
 - ii. **Lack of data to follow up events** (Egonmwam, 2000).
 - iii. **Abuse of Contract Awards:** In some cases, contracts are awarded to contractors who have connections, even when their estimates exceed those of others and their efficiency is in doubt. Some collect mobilization fees, misuse them and perform very

poorly. In certain cases, bad jobs are approved by officials who bribed to do so. Also, because there is no rigid law to be invoked against any defaulting contractor than to terminate the contract agreement and re-award it to another contractor, the indiscriminate abuses by contractors tend to delay project execution and seriously affect plan, implementation and cost (Ayo, 1987)

6. **Corruption:** The 2004 corruption perception index, released by Transparency International (TI) the watchdog on global corruption rank, for Instance, Nigeria as the third most corrupt country in the world. In 2003, the organization ranked Nigeria second, one step improvement from the previous position as the most corrupt country in the world. Although President OlusegunObasanjo disputed the rating, many Nigerians agreed that it was correct. No doubt these unfortunate and corrupt practices affect project implementation as they occur at various stages of project execution (Ejiogu, 2005:11).

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

1. Explain the three Model/Approaches to Policy Implementation
2. State metaphor of implementation failure



1.7 Summary

This unit explained the public policy implementation. Various instruments and models of public policy implementation were also discussed. It concluded that, a policy that is formulated which is not implemented cannot solve the problem. Implementation is putting the goals and objectives set forth in a policy decision into practice. Policy implementation therefore, includes all activities that must be undertaken on the course of action to be followed in order to realize the intended objectives of a given policy.



1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. According to Cobb & Ross (1976), Instrument of Public Policy Implementation are; Organizational unit, Bureaucratic structure, organization, standard operational procedure, disposition, authority, planning, coordination, communication, modality, Resources and resource allocation
2. **Feature of Implementable Public Policy**
 - a. All issues commonly perceived by members of a political community as meriting public attention of public authorities.
 - b. To get access to systemic agenda an issue must have: widespread attention/awareness shared concern of a sizeable portion of public and shared perception that it is a matter of concern to a public authority.
 - c. Explicitly up for active and serious consideration by decision makers.
 - d. May be an old item which is up for regular review or is of periodic concern. Or it may be a 'new' item.
 - e. governmental/ formal oriented problem

Answers to SAEs 1

1 Model/Approaches to Policy Implementation

Iglesias Model of Implementation

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Smith Model of Policy Implementation

Smith says that government policies are deliberate policies to establish new transaction pattern or to bring about a change. Policies are not by chance; thus, public policy is a purposive action by government to establish new transaction pattern. When government takes any new issue, the reason is to take action or cause a change in the society or organization. For instance, Poverty Alleviation Programmes are established to solve the problem of poverty so that those who have been at certain level of poverty can move up, and some to get a job and start earning money. Operation Feed the Nation was to produce food

Grindle's Model of Implementation

Grindle's model argues that the implementation of a programme is influenced by those interested and affected by the programme. That policy implementation brings changes in social, political and economic life of the people, and when a good policy produces social change the programme will attract people in that area, some looking for jobs, some to change their social life style

2 Metaphor of implementation failure and Challenges of Project/Policy Implementation

- i. Machine Metaphor: Result of poor chain of command – problems with structure and roles
- ii. Organism metaphor: Result of 'human relations' or the 'environment'

- iii. Brain metaphor: Result of poor Information flows-or 'learning/ problems
- iv. Domination Metaphor: Result of labour/management conflict

MODULE 5

Unit 1: Public Policy Analysis I

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Models of Public Policy Analysis
- 1.4 Process policy model Analysis
- 1.5 Rational policy model Analysis
- 1.6 Incremental policy model Analysis
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Jenkins-Smith, (1990) Policy analysis is a set of techniques and criteria with which to evaluate public policy options and select among them to rationalize the development and implementation of public policy and as the means to greater efficiency and equity in allocation of public resources

Policy analysis can be divided into two major fields (Bührs, Bartlett and Robert, 1993):

Analysis *of* existing policy, which is analytical and descriptive – it attempts to explain policies and their development.

Analysis *for* new policy, which is prescriptive – it is involved with formulating policies and proposals (for example: to improve social welfare).

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 program evaluation would be defined as policy studies. According to *Hambrick (1998)* Public Policy analysis is frequently deployed in the public sector, but is equally applicable to other kinds of organizations, such as non-profit organizations and non-governmental organizations. Policy analysis has its roots in systems analysis, an approach used by United States Secretary of Defence Robert McNamara in the 1960s.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Discuss the Models of Public Policy Analysis
- ii. Explain the Process policy model Analysis
- iii. Analyze the Rational policy model Analysis
- iv. Evaluate the Incremental policy model Analysis



1.3 Models of Public Policy Analysis

Many models exist to analyze the development and implementation of public policy. Analysts use these models to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences. Each of these models is based upon the types of policies (Hugo, 1972).

Government (e.g. federal, provincial, municipal)

Policies adopted within public institutions (e.g. hospitals, child care centres, schools)

Workplace (e.g. policies that govern employees and employee-manager relations)

Some evidence supported models are (Sharkansky, 1978):

Public policy is determined by a range of political institutions, which give policy legitimacy to policy measures. In general, the government applies policy to all citizens and monopolizes the use of force in applying or implementing policy (through government control of law enforcement, court systems, imprisonment and armed forces). The legislature, executive and judicial branches of government are examples of institutions that give policy legitimacy. Many countries also have independent, quasi-independent or arm's length bodies which, while funded by government, are independent from elected officials and political leaders. These organizations may include government commissions, tribunals, regulatory agencies and electoral commissions

1.4 Process policy model Analysis

Policy creation is a process that typically follows a sequence of steps or stages (Hugo, 1972):

Identification of a problem (also called "problem definition") and demand for government action. Different stakeholders may define the same issue as different problems. For example, if homeless people are using illegal drugs such as heroin in a city park, some stakeholders may define this as a law enforcement issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if police presence in the park is stepped up and if the individuals using illegal drugs are arrested and punished); on the other hand, other stakeholders may view this as a poverty and public health issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if public health nurses and government medical doctors and substance abuse counsellors were sent to the park to do outreach with the drug-using individuals, and encourage them to voluntarily enter "detoxification" or rehabilitation programs)

Agenda setting policy analysis

Formulation of policy proposals by various parties (e.g., citizen groups, congressional committees, think tanks, interest groups, lobby groups, non-governmental organizations) (Hugo, 1972).

Policy selection/adoption and legal enactment of a selected policy by elected officials and/or houses of representatives. At this stage, policy legitimating is conferred upon the selected policy solution(s) (Starling, 1988).

Policy implementation, which involves civil servants putting the selected policy option into practice. Depending on the choice made by the executive or legislative branch, this could involve creating new regulation (or removing existing regulations), creating new laws, creating a new government program or service, creating a new subsidy or grant, etc.

Policy evaluation: After the policy has been in place for a year or several years, civil servants or an independent consulting firm assesses the policy, to see if the goals were achieved, if the policy was implemented effectively, etc.

This model, however, has been criticized for being overly linear and simplistic (Young, and Enrique, 2009). In reality, stages of the policy process may overlap or never happen. For example, in some cases, a political Also, this model fails to take into account the multiple factors attempting to influence the process itself as well as each other, and the complexity this entails.

One of the most widely used model for public institutions are of Herbert A. Simon, the father of rational models. It is also used by private corporations. However, many criticize the model due to characteristics of the model being impractical and relying on unrealistic assumptions. For instance, it is a difficult model to apply in the public sector because social problems can be very complex, ill-defined and interdependent. The problem lies in the thinking procedure implied by the model which is linear and can face difficulties in extraordinary problems or social problems which have no sequences of happenings

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

Discuss the Models of Public Policy Analysis
Explain the Process policy model Analysis

1.5 Rational policy model Analysis

The rational model of decision-making is a process for making sound decisions in policy-making in the public sector. Rationality is defined as “a style of behaviour that is appropriate to the achievement of given goals, within the limits imposed by given conditions and constraints” (Herbert, 1976). It is important to note the model makes a series of assumptions, such as: 'The model must be applied in a system that is stable'; 'The government is a rational and unitary actor and that its actions are perceived as rational choices'; 'The policy problem is unambiguous'; 'There are no limitations of time or cost.

Furthermore, in the context of the public sector policy models are intended to achieve maximum social gain. Simon identifies an outline of a step by step mode of analysis to achieve rational decisions. Ian Thomas describes Simon's steps as follows:

Intelligence gathering — A comprehensive organization of data; potential problems and opportunities are identified, collected and analyzed.

Identifying problems — accounting for relevant factors.

Assessing the consequences of all options — Listing possible consequences and alternatives that could resolve the problem and ranking the probability that each potential factor could materialize in order to give a correct priority to said factor in the analysis.

Relating consequences to values — With all policies there will be a set of relevant dimensional values (for example, economic feasibility and environmental protection) and a set of criteria for appropriateness, against which performance (or consequences) of each option being responsive can be judged.

Choosing the preferred option — the policy is brought through from fully understanding the problems, opportunities, all the consequences & the criteria of the tentative options and by selecting an optimal alternative with consensus of involved actors (Thomas, 2007).

The model of rational decision-making has also proven to be very useful to several decision making processes in industries outside the public sphere. Nonetheless, there are some who criticize the rational model due to the major problems which can be faced & which tend to arise in practice because social and environmental values can be difficult to quantify and forge consensus around (Morgan; Kandlikar; Risbey; Dowlatabadi, 1999). Furthermore, the assumptions stated by Simon are never fully valid in a real world context.

Further criticism of the rational model include: leaving a gap between planning and implementation, ignoring of the role of people, entrepreneurs, leadership, etc., the insufficiency of technical competence (i.e. ignoring the human factor), reflecting too mechanical an approach (i.e. the organic nature of organizations), requiring of multidimensional and complex models, generation of predictions which are often wrong (i.e. simple solutions may be overlooked), & incurring of cost (i.e. costs of rational-comprehensive planning may outweigh the cost savings of the policy).

However, Thomas R. Dye, the president of the Lincoln Center for Public Service, states the rational model provides a good perspective since in modern society rationality plays a central role and everything that is rational tends to be prized. Thus, it does not seem strange that “we ought to be trying for rational decision-making” (Dye, 2007).

1.6 Incremental policy model Analysis

An incremental policy model relies on features of incremental decision-making such as: satisfying, organizational drift, bounded rationality, and limited cognition, among others. Such policies are often called "muddling through" & represent a conservative tendency: new policies are only slightly different from old policies. Policy-makers are too short on time, resources, and brains to make totally new policies; as such, past policies are accepted as having some legitimacy. When existing policies have sunk costs which discourage innovation, Incrementalism is an easier approach than rationalism, and the policies are more politically expedient because they don't necessitate any radical redistribution of values. Such models necessarily struggle to improve the acceptability of public policy.

Criticisms of such a policy approach include: challenges to bargaining (i.e. not successful with limited resources), downplaying useful quantitative information, obscuring real relationships between political entities, an anti-intellectual approach to problems (i.e. the preclusion of imagination), and a bias towards conservatism (i.e. bias against far-reaching solutions).

For instance, there are many contemporary policies relevant to gender and workplace issues. Actors analyze contemporary gender-related employment issues ranging from parental leave and maternity programs, sexual harassment, and work/life balance to gender mainstreaming. It is by the juxtaposition of a variety of research methodologies focused on a common theme the richness of understanding is gained. This integrates what

are usually separate bodies of evaluation on the role of gender in welfare state developments, employment transformations, workplace policies, and work experience.
Self-Assessment Exercises 2

Analyze the Rational policy model Analysis Evaluate the Incremental policy model Analysis
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1.6 Summary

The unit examined the models of Public Policy Analysis, many models exist to analyze the development and implementation of public policy. Analysts use these models to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences. Each of these models is based upon the types of policies (Hugo, 1972).

Government (e.g. federal, provincial, municipal)

Policies adopted within public institutions (e.g. hospitals, child care centres, schools)

Workplace (e.g. policies that govern employees and employee-manager relations)

Policy creation is a process that typically follows a sequence of steps or stages (Hugo, 1972):

Identification of a problem (also called "problem definition") and demand for government action. Different stakeholders may define the same issue as different problems. For example, if homeless people are using illegal drugs such as heroin in a city park, some stakeholders may define this as a law enforcement issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if police presence in the park is stepped up and if the individuals using illegal drugs are arrested and punished); on the other hand, other stakeholders may view this as a poverty and public health issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if public health nurses and government medical doctors and substance abuse counsellors were sent to the park to do outreach with the drug-using individuals, and encourage them to voluntarily enter "detoxification" or rehabilitation programs)

The rational model of decision-making is a process for making sound decisions in policy-making in the public sector. Rationality is defined as "a style of behaviour that is appropriate to the achievement of given goals, within the limits imposed by given conditions and constraints" (Herbert, 1976). It is important to note the model makes a series of assumptions, such as: 'The model must be applied in a system that is stable'

An incremental policy model relies on features of incremental decision-making such as: satisfying, organizational drift, bounded rationality, and limited cognition, among others. Such policies are often called "muddling through" & represent a conservative tendency: new policies are only slightly different from old policies. Policy-makers are too short on time, resources, and brains to make totally new policies; as such, past policies are accepted as having some legitimacy.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

Models of Public Policy Analysis

Many models exist to analyze the development and implementation of public policy. Analysts use these models to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences. Each of these models is based upon the types of policies (Hugo, 1972).

Government (e.g. federal, provincial, municipal)

Policies adopted within public institutions (e.g. hospitals, child care centres, schools)

Workplace (e.g. policies that govern employees and employee-manager relations)

Process policy model Analysis

Policy creation is a process that typically follows a sequence of steps or stages (Hugo, 1972):

Identification of a problem (also called "problem definition") and demand for government action. Different stakeholders may define the same issue as different problems. For

example, if homeless people are using illegal drugs such as heroin in a city park, some stakeholders may define this as a law enforcement issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if police presence in the park is stepped up and if the individuals using illegal drugs are arrested and punished); on the other hand, other stakeholders may view this as a poverty and public health issue (which, in their view, could be best solved if public health nurses and government medical doctors and substance abuse counsellors were sent to the park to do outreach with the drug-using individuals, and encourage them to voluntarily enter "detoxification" or rehabilitation programs)

Answers to SAEs 2

Rational policy model Analysis

The rational model of decision-making is a process for making sound decisions in policy-making in the public sector. Rationality is defined as "a style of behaviour that is appropriate to the achievement of given goals, within the limits imposed by given conditions and constraints" (Herbert, 1976). It is important to note the model makes a series of assumptions, such as: 'The model must be applied in a system that is stable'

Incremental policy model Analysis

An incremental policy model relies on features of incremental decision-making such as: satisfying, organizational drift, bounded rationality, and limited cognition, among others. Such policies are often called "muddling through" & represent a conservative tendency: new policies are only slightly different from old policies. Policy-makers are too short on time, resources, and brains to make totally new policies; as such, past policies are accepted as having some legitimacy.

Unit 2: Public Policy Analysis II

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Group policy model analysis
- 1.4 Criteria of Policy Analysis
- 1.5 Process of Public Policy Analysis
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Jenkins-Smith, (1990) Policy analysis is a set of techniques and criteria with which to evaluate public policy options and select among them to rationalize the development and implementation of public policy and as the means to greater efficiency and equity in allocation of public resources.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Group policy model analysis
- ii. Discuss the Criteria of Policy Analysis
- iii. Explain the Process of Public Policy Analysis

1.3. **Group policy model analysis**

This policy is formed as a result of forces and pressures from influential groups. Pressure groups are informally co-opted into the policy making process. Regulatory agencies are captured by those they are supposed to regulate. No one group is dominant all the time on all issues. The group is the bridge between the individual and the administration. The executive is thus pressured by interest groups.

The task of the system is to:

Establish the rules of the game

Arrange compromises and balance interests

Enact compromises in policy

Enforce these compromises.

1.4 **Criteria of Policy Analysis**

There are a number of criteria by which public policies have been studied by various scholars. These include efficiency, effectiveness, equity and impact analysis. Other criteria include feasibility, adequacy, appropriateness, net benefits, compliance, equality, public participation, freedom, predictability and procedural fairness (Deniston et al., 1978)

Akindele and Olaopa, (2004) identified some criteria of policy analysis

Efficiency measures the relationship between the cost and benefits of a policy or programme. The costs and benefits may be in monetary or non-monetary form.

Effectiveness on the other hand measures the extent to which a particular programme or policy is meeting its targeted goals or objectives.

Equity however, focuses on the distributional effects of a policy in terms of “who gains or who loses” as a result of a particular programme or policy.

Adequacy involves the process of assessing a given policy rational or irrational to the problem at stake to be solved. Feasibility deals with means of achieving the end of a given policy. An analyst would like to evaluate his policy in terms of available human and material resources. It is true that a given policy can be formulated and implemented with the means of scarce resources. When such happens there is no magic or evaluation rather to conclude instantly, that such policy is not feasible. Feasibility has to do with the conduciveness of the implementation of such a given policy.

Ethics deals with a situation when one talks about the ethical orientation of a given society during the course of policy implementation. It should be noted that there is a variation of ethical values among countries. To this end, a policy that is successful in a given country may not succeed in another society based on different ethical values.

Technological Assessment. This has to do with technological know-how of a given country. For example, where there are computers with other sophisticated technological equipment. Such a country can easily evaluate policies rather than a technologically bankrupt country where evaluation on technological background is highly anachronistic.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the Group policy model analysis
2. Discuss the Criteria of Policy Analysis

1.5 Process of Public Policy Analysis

In dealing with the process of public policy analysis, one would be required to distinguish between policy output (PO) and policy impact (PI). Policy output refers to the actual activities that government performs by way of implementing policy plan. This leads to an input and output model of a given policy. This can be illustrated with road construction by a given government. For example, for rural transformation,

A government may initiate policy of road construction and tarring. Having pronounced the policy, the next stage and the part of the government is to constitute a Tender Board which will be responsible for the award of contract. It does not stop there and what follows is the awarding of the contract. Although, before this stage, government must have budgeted some amount of money for the road construction and tarring. At the end of the award, real construction and tarring commence. Analytically, the policy output of the road construction under illustration is the amount of road that can be physically observed

as tarred. But, with the initial high budget for the proposed 250 kilometres, if the government end up with only 150 kilometres; the end product of 150 kilometres physically tarred out of the proposed 250 kilometres, is the policy output. On the other hand, policy impact would also be explained by illustration emanating from the above. When the road under illustration has not been tarred, the drivers were driving with care with little or no accident recorded. Conversely, when such road is now tarred, drivers are tempted to speed with high record of accidents. Tarring of roads as recorded in kilometres is the policy output while the recorded accidents that follow would be classified as policy impact. Also, the reduction of damages done to the vehicles after the construction is also an impact. To this end, there can be both positive and negative impact of a given policy.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Discuss Process of Public Policy Analysis



1.6 Summary

This unit explains the Group, Criteria and Process policy model analysis

The unit explained that, Group, policy model analysis is analysed from the forces and pressures from influential groups. Pressure groups are informally co-opted into the policy making process. Regulatory agencies are captured by those they are supposed to regulate. No one group is dominant all the time on all issues. The group is the bridge between the individual and the administration

There are a number of criteria by which public policies have been studied by various scholars. These include efficiency, effectiveness, equity and impact analysis. Other criteria include feasibility, adequacy, appropriateness, net benefits, compliance, equality, public participation, freedom, predictability and procedural fairness (Deniston et al., 1978)

In dealing with the process of public policy analysis, one would be required to distinguish between policy output (PO) and policy impact (PI). Policy output refers to the actual activities that government performs by way of implementing policy plan. This leads to an

input and output model of a given policy. This can be illustrated with road construction by a given government. For example, for rural transformation,

A government may initiate policy of road construction and tarring. Having pronounced the policy, the next stage and the part of the government is to constitute a Tender Board which will be responsible for the award of contract. It does not stop there and what follows is the awarding of the contract



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Group policy model analysis

This policy is formed as a result of forces and pressures from influential groups. Pressure groups are informally co-opted into the policy making process. Regulatory agencies are captured by those they are supposed to regulate. No one group is dominant all the time on all issues. The group is the bridge between the individual and the administration. The executive is thus pressured by interest groups.

The task of the system is to:

Establish the rules of the game

Arrange compromises and balance interests

Enact compromises in policy

Enforce these compromises.

2. Criteria of Policy Analysis

There are a number of criteria by which public policies have been studied by various scholars. These include efficiency, effectiveness, equity and impact analysis. Other criteria include feasibility, adequacy, appropriateness, net benefits, compliance, equality, public participation, freedom, predictability and procedural fairness (Deniston et al., 1978)

Akindele and Olaopa, (2004) identified some criteria of policy analysis

Efficiency measures the relationship between the cost and benefits of a policy or programme. The costs and benefits may be in monetary or non-monetary form.

Effectiveness on the other hand measures the extent to which a particular programme or policy is meeting its targeted goals or objectives.

Equity however, focuses on the distributional effects of a policy in terms of “who gains or who loses” as a result of a particular programme or policy

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Process of Public Policy Analysis

In dealing with the process of public policy analysis, one would be required to distinguish between policy output (PO) and policy impact (PI). Policy output refers to the actual activities that government performs by way of implementing policy plan. This leads to an input and output model of a given policy. This can be illustrated with road construction by a given government. For example, for rural transformation,

A government may initiate policy of road construction and tarring. Having pronounced the policy, the next stage and the part of the government is to constitute a Tender Board which will be responsible for the award of contract

2. Process of Public Policy Analysis

In dealing with the process of public policy analysis, one would be required to distinguish between policy output (PO) and policy impact (PI). Policy output refers to the actual activities that government performs by way of implementing policy plan. This leads to an input and output model of a given policy. This can be illustrated with road construction by a given government. For example, for rural transformation,

A government may initiate policy of road construction and tarring. Having pronounced the policy, the next stage and the part of the government is to constitute a Tender Board which will be responsible for the award of contract. It does not stop there and what follows is the awarding of the contract. Although, before this stage, government must have budgeted some amount of money for the road construction and tarring. At the end of the award, real construction and tarring commence. Analytically, the policy output of the road construction under illustration is the amount of road that can be physically observed as tarred. But, with the initial high budget for the proposed 250 kilometres, if the government end up with only 150 kilometres; the end product of 150 kilometres

physically tarred out of the proposed 250 kilometres, is the policy output. On the other hand, policy impact would also be explained by illustration emanating from the above. When the road under illustration has not been tarred, the drivers were driving with care with little or no accident recorded. Conversely, when such road is now tarred, drivers are tempted to speed with high record of accidents. Tarring of roads as recorded in kilometres is the policy output while the recorded accidents that follow would be classified as policy impact. Also, the reduction of damages done to the vehicles after the construction is also an impact. To this end, there can be both positive and negative impact of a given policy.

Unit 3: Public Policy Environment

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Public Policy Environment
- 1.4 Approaches to public policy analysis
- 1.5 Techniques used in policy analysis
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The public policy and its formulation as discussed herein so far, are usually dictated by the imperatives of the political setting or environment within which the policy makers exist. This is implicit in the fact that: Policy inputs are the transmission sent from the environment to the conversion process of the administrative system. Inputs include demands for policy, resources; and support opposition, or apathy towards the actions of administrators (policy makers).



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. States some essentials of public policy Environment
- ii. Itemize the process through which Public Policy Environment can be explained
- iii. Mention the Approaches to public policy analysis
- iv. State the Techniques used in policy analysis



1.3 Public Policy Environment

Sharkansky, (1978), the stated some essentials of public policy Environment to includes.

Environment: include (1) clients, (2) costs of goods and services, and (3) members of the public and other government officials who support or oppose agencies, administrators, or programs.

Public Policy Environment is explained using the following:

Inputs from Environment Include

- (1) Demands
- (2) Resources, and
- (3) Support or opposition from citizens and officials of other branches of government.

Conversion Process

With Input include:

- (1) Structures,
- (2) Decision procedures

- (3) Administrators' personal experiences and predispositions and
- (4) Control procedures

Outputs to Environment Include

- 1. expression of policy
- 2. performance, or goods and services actually delivered to the public and to official in other
- 3. segments of government

Feedback: represents influence that outputs have upon the environment in a way that shapes subsequent inputs.

There are several other major types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches:

- 1. Empirical versus normative policy analyses
- 2. Retrospective versus prospective analyses
- 3. Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- v. States some essentials of public policy Environment
- vi. Itemize the process through which Public Policy Environment can be explained

1.4 Approaches to public policy analysis

There are several other major types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches:

- 1. Empirical versus normative policy analyses
- 2. Retrospective versus prospective analyses
- 3. Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.

1.5 Techniques used in policy analysis

- 1. Cost-benefit analysis
- 2. Management by objectives (MBO)
- 3. Operations research
- 4. Decision-making based on analytics
- 5. Program evaluation and review technique (PERT)
- 6. Critical path method (CPM).

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|---|
| vii. Mention the Approaches to public policy analysis
viii. State the Techniques used in policy analysis |
|---|



1.6 Summary

Some essentials of public policy Environment to include (1) clients, (2) costs of goods and services, and (3) members of the public and other government officials who support or oppose agencies, administrators, or programs.

Public Policy Environment is explained using the following:

Inputs from Environment Include

- (1) Demands
- (2) Resources, and
- (3) Support or opposition from citizens and officials of other branches of government.

Conversion Process

With Input include:

- (1) Structures,
- (2) Decision procedures
- (3) Administrators' personal experiences and predispositions and
- (4) Control procedures

Outputs to Environment Include

4. expression of policy
5. performance, or goods and services actually delivered to the public and to official in other
6. segments of government

Feedback

The types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches: Empirical versus normative policy analyses; Retrospective versus prospective analyses and Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.

There are several other major types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches: Empirical versus normative policy analyses; Retrospective versus prospective analyses; Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.

The unit explained the Techniques used in policy analysis to includes; Cost–benefit analysis; Management by objectives (MBO); Operations research; Decision-making based on analytics; Program evaluation and review technique (PERT)Critical path method (CPM).



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Sharkansky, I. (1978). Public Administration: Policy-making in Government Agencies, 4th Ed. Rand McNally College Publishing Company, Chicago, p. 6.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs **Answers to SAEs 1**

1. Some essentials of public policy Environment to include (1) clients, (2) costs of goods and services, and (3) members of the public and other government officials who support or oppose agencies, administrators, or programs.
2. Public Policy Environment is explained using the following:

Inputs from Environment Include

- (1) Demands
- (2) Resources, and
- (3) Support or opposition from citizens and officials of other branches of government.

Conversion Process

With Input include:

- (1) Structures,
- (2) Decision procedures
- (3) Administrators' personal experiences and predispositions and
- (4) Control procedures

Outputs to Environment Include

7. expression of policy
8. performance, or goods and services actually delivered to the public and to official in other
9. segments of government

Feedback

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches: Empirical versus normative policy analyses; Retrospective versus prospective analyses and Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.
2. There are several other major types of policy analysis, broadly group into competing approaches: Empirical versus normative policy analyses; Retrospective versus prospective analyses; Prescriptive versus descriptive analyses.

Unit 4: Network Analysis

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Concept of Network Analysis
 - 1.3.1 Objective of Network Analysis
 - 1.3.2 Advantage of Network Analysis
 - 1.3.3 Disadvantage of Network Analysis
- 1.4 Techniques of Network Analysis
- 1.5 Drawing Network
- 1.6 Critical Path Method (CPM)
- 1.7 Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

This unit will discuss Network analysis, it will outline the Objective of Network Analysis, Advantage of Network Analysis and Disadvantage of Network Analysis. The unit will also analyze the two basic network analysis: CPM and PERT



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Concept of Network Analysis
- ii. State the objective of Network Analysis
- iii. Mention the advantage of Network Analysis
- iv. Outline the Disadvantage of Network Analysis
- v. Analyse the Techniques of Network Analysis
- vi. Drawing Network
- vii. Define and analyze the Critical Path Method (CPM)
- viii. Define and analyze the Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)



1.3 Concept of Network Analysis

Network analysis involves a group of techniques which are used for presenting information about the time and resources involved in the project so as to assist in the planning, scheduling and controlling of the project. The information usually represented by a network includes the sequences, interdependencies, interrelationships and critical activity of various activities of the project.

1.3.1 Objective of Network Analysis

1) Minimize Production Delay, Interruptions and Conflicts:

This is achieved by identifying all activities involved in the project, their precedence constraints, etc.

2) Minimization of Total Project Cost

After calculating the total cost of the project the next step is to minimise the total cost. It is done through the calculation of cost of delay in the completion of an activity of the project and calculating the cost of the resources which are required to complete the project in a given time period.

3) Trade-off between Time and Cost of Project

The duration of same activity can be reduced if additional sources are employed and this is the main idea on which the trade-off between time and cost of project is based. Due to technical reasons, the duration can be reduced in a specific limit. Similarly, there is also a most cost efficient duration called 'normal point' stretching the activity beyond it may lead to a rise in direct cost.

4) Minimization of Total Project Duration:

After checking the actual performance against the plan the project duration can be controlled and minimized. If any major difference is found then apply the necessary reschedule process by updating and revising the uncompleted portion of the project.

5) Minimization of Idle Resources:

If there is any variation in the use of scarce resources then it can disturb the entire plan and hence it is required that efforts should be made to avoid any increase in cost due to idle resources.

Advantage of Network Analysis

For planning, scheduling and controlling of operations in large and complicated projects network analysis is very important and powerful tool.

For evaluating the performance level of actual performance in comparison to planned target network analysis is a very useful tool.

With the use of network analysis technological interdependence of different activities can be determined for proper integration and co-ordination of various operations.

Network analysis gives the proper co-ordination and communication between various parts of the project.

Network analysis deals with the time-cost trade-off and provides the optimum schedule of the project.

This technique is very simple and suitable for the computer users

Disadvantage of Network Analysis

Network construction of complex project is very difficult and time consuming in network analysis.

Actual time estimation of various activities is a difficult exercise.

Analysis of the project is a very difficult work because a number of resource constraints exist in the project.

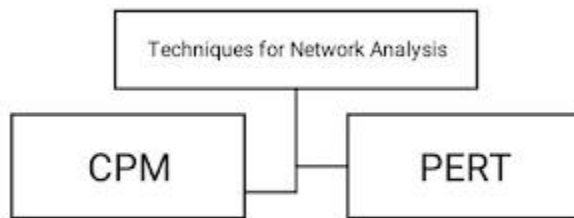
In many situations time-cost trade off procedure is complicated.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define Network analysis,
2. Outline the Objective of Network Analysis, Advantage of Network Analysis and Disadvantage of Network Analysis

1.4 Techniques of Network Analysis

The two common techniques which are used in network analysis are shown in figure below:



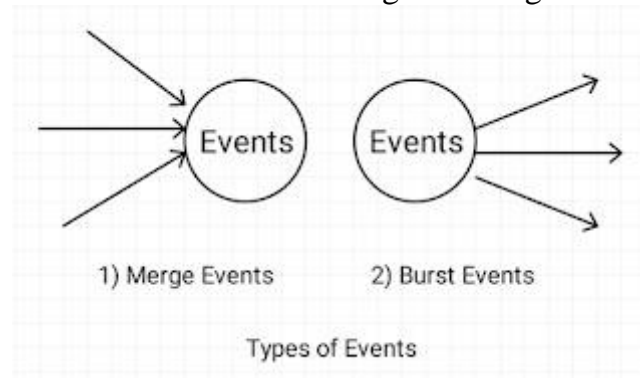
The managers are supported by two well-known network analysis techniques, viz, Critical Path Method (CPM) and Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) in planning and controlling of large scale construction projects, research and development, and so on.

These techniques prove to be very important in supporting the managers in handling such products and performing their project management responsibilities.

Networking Components

1) Events :

In a network diagram events represent the project milestones. For example, start or completion of an activity or activities, and occurrence of the events at a particular instance of time at which some specific portion of project has been or is to be achieved. In the network events are represented by the circles (nodes). The events can be further classified into the following two categories :



i) Merge Event :

The joint completion of more than one activity which shows an activity is called merge event. This is shown in figure.

ii) Burst Event :

An event which shows the beginning of more than one activity is known as burst event. This is shown in figure.

The numbers are used in a network diagram for representing events. For indicating progress of the work, each event is identified by a number which is higher than its immediate preceding event. The numbering of events in the network diagram must start from left (start of the project) to the right (completion of the project) and top to the bottom. It is noted that there should not be any duplication in the numbering of events.

2) Jobs/Activity/Task :

The project operations (or tasks) are represented by activities which are conducted in a network diagram. These activities take a certain amount of time and require resources for completion. An activity is represented by an arrow and its head indicates the direction of progress in the project. The numbering of starting (tail or initial) event and ending (head or terminal) event identifies activities. For example, an arrow (i, j) between two events shows that the tail event i represents starting of the activity and the head event j represents the completion of the activity which is shown in figure. The activities can be further classified into the following three categories:

i) Predecessor Activity

Predecessor activity is an activity which is completed before one or more other activities start.

ii) Successor Activity :

Successor activity is an activity which starts immediately after one or more of other activities are completed.

iii) Dummy Activity :

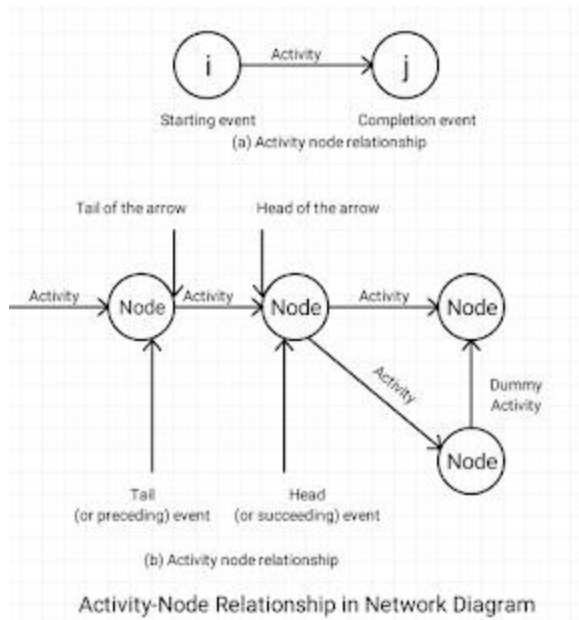
The activity which does not use any time or resource for completion is called dummy activity.

A dummy activity is used in a network to establish the precedence relationship among various activities of the project. It is needed when :

a) Two or more parallel activities in a project have same - the head and tail events.

b) Two or more activities have some (but not all) of their immediate predecessor activities in common.

Dummy activity is represented by a dotted line in the network diagram as shown in figure below.



Precedence Relationship

Diagrammatic representation of project as a network needs the establishment of precedence relationships between activities. For undertaking activities, precedence relationship provides a sequence. It states that any activity cannot start until a preceding activity has been completed.

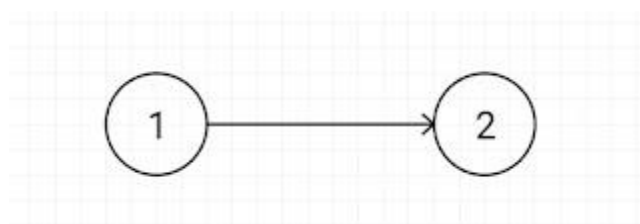
For example :

Brochures announcing a conference for executives must first be designed by the program committee (activity A) before they can be printed (activity B). In other words, activity A must precede activity B. For large projects, this task is essential because incorrect or omitted precedence relationships will result in costly delays. The precedence relationships are represented by a network diagram.

The following two types of precedence networks are used by network models to show precedence requirements of the activities in the project

1) Activity-on-Arc (AOA) :

In an AOA network, arrow is used for representing the activity and both the ends of the arrow which are called nodes shows the start and end of the activity.

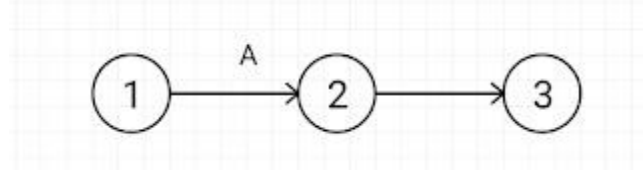


Activities are represented by an arc and events are represented by a node. An activity is separated by a node (an outgoing arc) from each of its immediate predecessors (an incoming arc). One or more activities can be completed at the starting point of any event and one or more events can start from this point. Neither time nor resources are consumed by any event.

AOA approach is an event oriented approach because it focuses on the activity connection points. The precedence relationship explains that an event does not occur until all preceding activities have been completed. AOA approach uses a convention that events are numbered from left to right.

2) Activity-on-Node (AON)

The second approach in the project network is called Activity-on-Node (AON) in which activities are shown on the nodes and precedence relationship between them is represented by arcs. In other words, activities are represented on the nodes and sequencing connection between two different activities is represented by the arrows. Thus, in AOA diagram of following type :

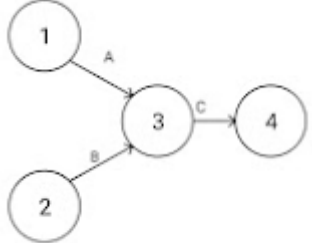
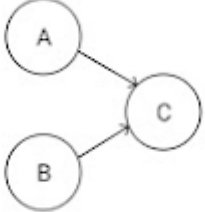
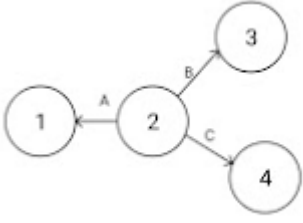
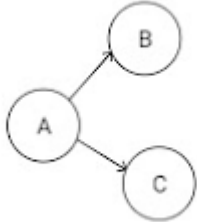
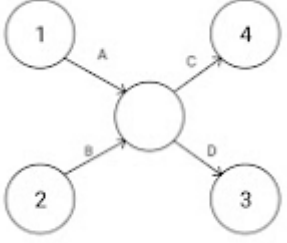
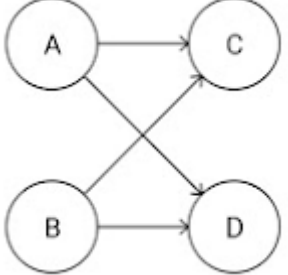
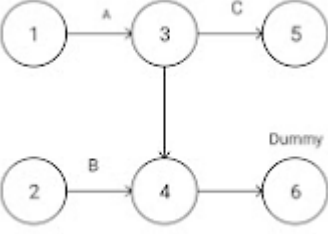
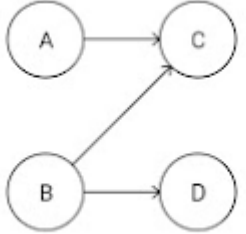
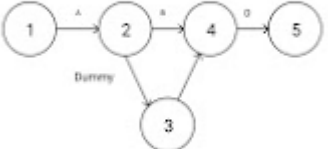
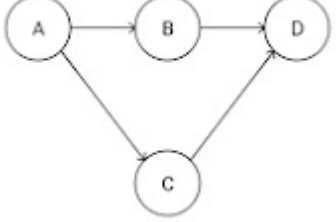


There is no need of dummy activity because this approach is activity based. An AON diagram is better for visual presentation because it is similar to the bar chart. Thus, visual presentation of a project is done better with the use of an AON network diagram.

AOA and AON Approaches

Following Figure Shows AOA and AON Approaches for Several Commonly Encountered Activity Relationship.

Activity – On – Arc (AOA)	Activity – On – Node (AON)	Activity Relationship
<pre> graph LR 1((1)) -- A --> 2((2)) 2 -- B --> 3((3)) 3 -- C --> 4((4)) </pre>	<pre> graph LR A((A)) --> B((B)) B --> C((C)) </pre>	<p>A precedes B, which precedes C.</p>

		<p>A and B must be completed before C can be started.</p>
		<p>B and C cannot begin until A has been completed.</p>
		<p>C and D cannot begin until both A and B have been completed.</p>
		<p>C cannot begin until both A and B have been completed, D cannot begin until B has been completed.</p>
		<p>B and C cannot begin until A has been completed, D cannot begin until both B and C have been completed.</p>

1.5 Drawing Network

The steps of network construction are as follows:

Step 1: Properly define the project and its all important activities or tasks.

Step 2 : Develop the relationships among the activities. Decide which activities must precede the others.

Step 3 : Connect all the activities and draw the network.

Step 4 : Time and/or cost estimates are assigned to each activity.

Step 5 : Calculate the path which has the longest time and this is called critical path.

Step 6 : Use the network for planning, scheduling, monitoring and controlling the project.

Rules for Drawing Network Diagrams

For handling events and activities of a project network there are various concepts and rules which should be followed. It provides help in the development of a correct network structure. Some of them are as mentioned below :

One and only one arrow is used for representing each defined activity in the network. Hence, any activity cannot be represented more than once in a network.

All preceding activities must be completed before selecting any new activity.

The arrow which is used for showing the activity is indicative of the logical precedence only.

The direction of the arrow indicates the general progression in time.

When a number of activities terminate at one event, it indicates that no activity emanating from that event may start unless all activities terminating there have been completed.

Numbers are used for representing the events.

The activities are identified by the numbers of their starting and the ending events.

There should be only one initial and one terminal node in a network.

The joint completion of more than one activity which shows an activity is called merge event, while an event which shows the beginning of more than one activity is known as burst event.

Parallel activities between two events, without intervening events are prohibited.

In any network looping is not allowed. Therefore, if A precedes B, and B precedes C, then cannot precede A.

In the development of a network it must be ensured that loops are not present.

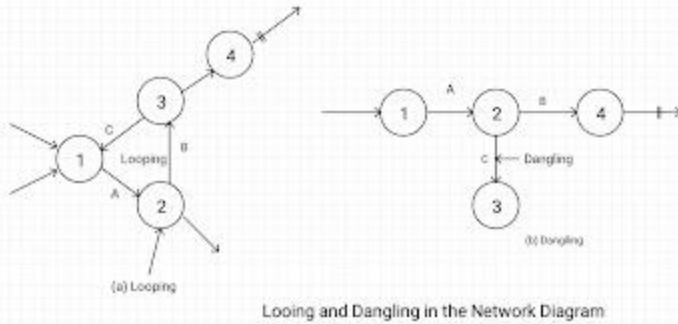
Common Errors Network Construction

Following are three common errors in a network construction

1) Looping :

A case of endless loop in a network diagram, which is also known as looping, is shown in figure, where activities A, B and C form a cycle :

Due to precedence relationships, it appears from figure 4.5 that every activity in looping (or cycle) is a predecessor of itself. In this case, it is difficult to number three events associated with activity A, B and C so as to satisfy rule 6 of constructing the network.



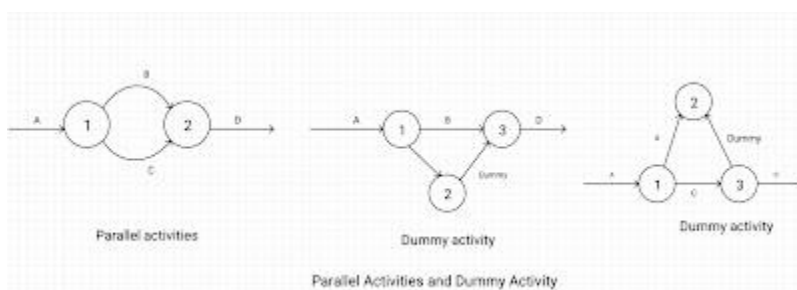
2) Dangling :

A case of disconnected activity before the completion of all activities, which is also known as dangling, is shown in figure. In this case, activity C does not give any result as per the rules of the network. The dangling may be avoided by adopting rule 5 of constructing the network.

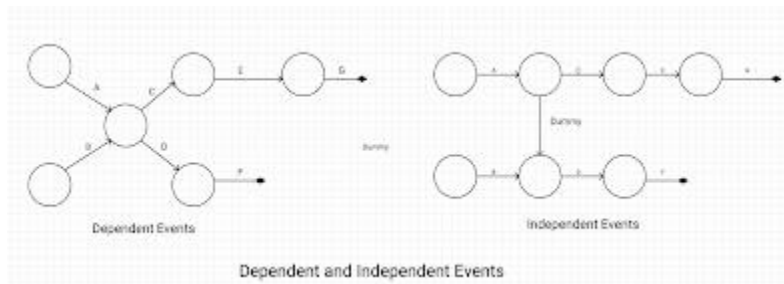
3) Redundant Activity

Following are the two cases in which the use of dummy activity may help in drawing the network correctly, as per the various rules:

i) When two or more parallel activities in a project have the same head and tail events, i.e., two events are connected with more than one arrow. In figure, activities B and C have a common predecessor - activity A. At the same time, they have activity D as a common successor. To derive correct network, a dummy activity for the ending event B is required to show that D may not start before B and C, is completed. This is shown in figure:



ii) When two chains of activities have a common event, yet are wholly or partly independent of each other, as shown in figure. A dummy which is used in such a case, to establish proper logical relationships, is also known as Logic Dummy Activity. In figure, if head event of C and E do not depend on the completion of activities A and B, then the network can be re-drawn, as shown in figure. Otherwise, the pattern of figure must be adhered to.



What Is the Critical Path of a Project?

In project management, the critical path is the longest sequence of tasks that must be completed to complete a project. The tasks on the critical path are called critical activities because if they're delayed, the whole project completion will be delayed.

Finding the critical path is very important for project managers because it allows them to:
Accurately estimate the total project duration

Identify task dependencies, resource constraints and project risks

Prioritize tasks and create realistic project schedules

To find the critical path, project managers use the critical path method (CPM) algorithm to define the least amount of time necessary to complete each task with the least amount of slack.

Once done by hand, nowadays the critical path can be calculated automatically with project scheduling software equipped with Gantt charts, which makes the whole CPM method much easier.

ProjectManager can calculate the critical path for you on our award-winning Gantt charts—[learn more](#).

Now that we know what's the critical path of a project, we can learn about the critical path method (CPM), an important project management technique that's based on this concept.

1.6 What Is the Critical Path Method (CPM)?

The critical path method (CPM) is a technique that's used by project managers to create a project schedule and estimate the total duration of a project.

The CPM method, also known as critical path analysis (CPA), consists in using a network diagram to visually represent the sequences of tasks needed to complete a project. Once these task sequences or paths are defined, their duration is calculated to identify the critical path, which determines the total duration of the project.

CPM History

The critical path method was developed in the late 1950s by Morgan R. Walker and James E. Kelley. The origins of the critical path method are closely related with the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), a similar method which is commonly used in conjunction with CPM.

Why Is CPM Important in Project Management?

Projects are made up of tasks that have to adhere to a schedule in order to meet a timeline. It sounds simple, but without mapping the work, your project scope can quickly get out of hand and you'll find your project off track.

Using the critical path method is important when managing a project because it identifies all the tasks needed to complete the project, then determines the tasks that must be done on time, those that can be delayed if needed and how much [float](#) or slack you have.

When done properly, critical path analysis can help you:

Identify task dependencies, resource constraints and project risks

Accurately estimate the duration of each task

Prioritize tasks based on their float or slack time, which helps with project scheduling and resource allocation

Identify critical tasks that have no slack and make sure those are completed on time

Monitor your project progress and measure schedule variance

Use schedule compression techniques like crash duration or fast tracking

CPM Key Elements

Before we learn the steps to calculate the critical path, we'll need to understand some key CPM concepts.

Earliest start time (ES): This is simply the earliest time that a task can be started in your project. You cannot determine this without first knowing if there are any [task dependencies](#)

Latest start time (LS): This is the very last minute in which you can start a task before it threatens to delay your project schedule

Earliest finish time (EF): The earliest an activity can be completed, based on its duration and its earliest start time

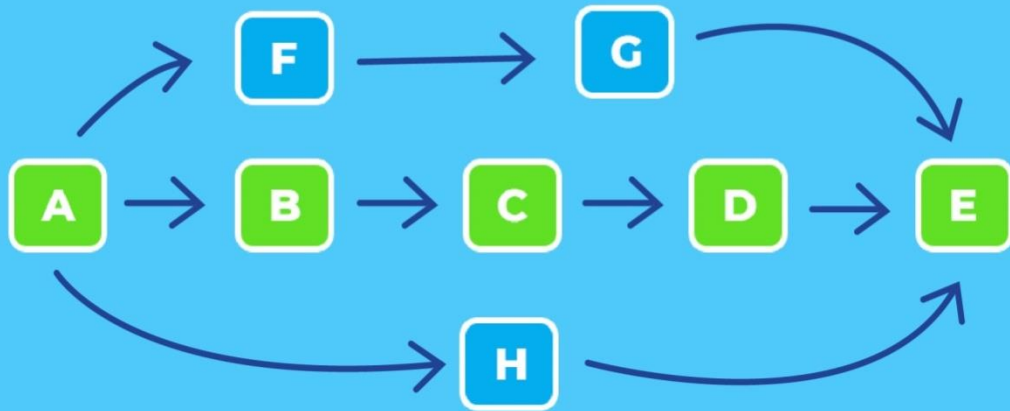
Latest finish time (LF): The latest an activity can be completed, based on its duration and its latest start time

Float: Also known as slack, float is a term that describes how long you can delay a task before it impacts its task sequence and the project schedule. The tasks on the critical path have zero float, because they can't be delayed

Let's take a look at some critical path examples to better understand these critical path analysis elements.

Critical Path Examples

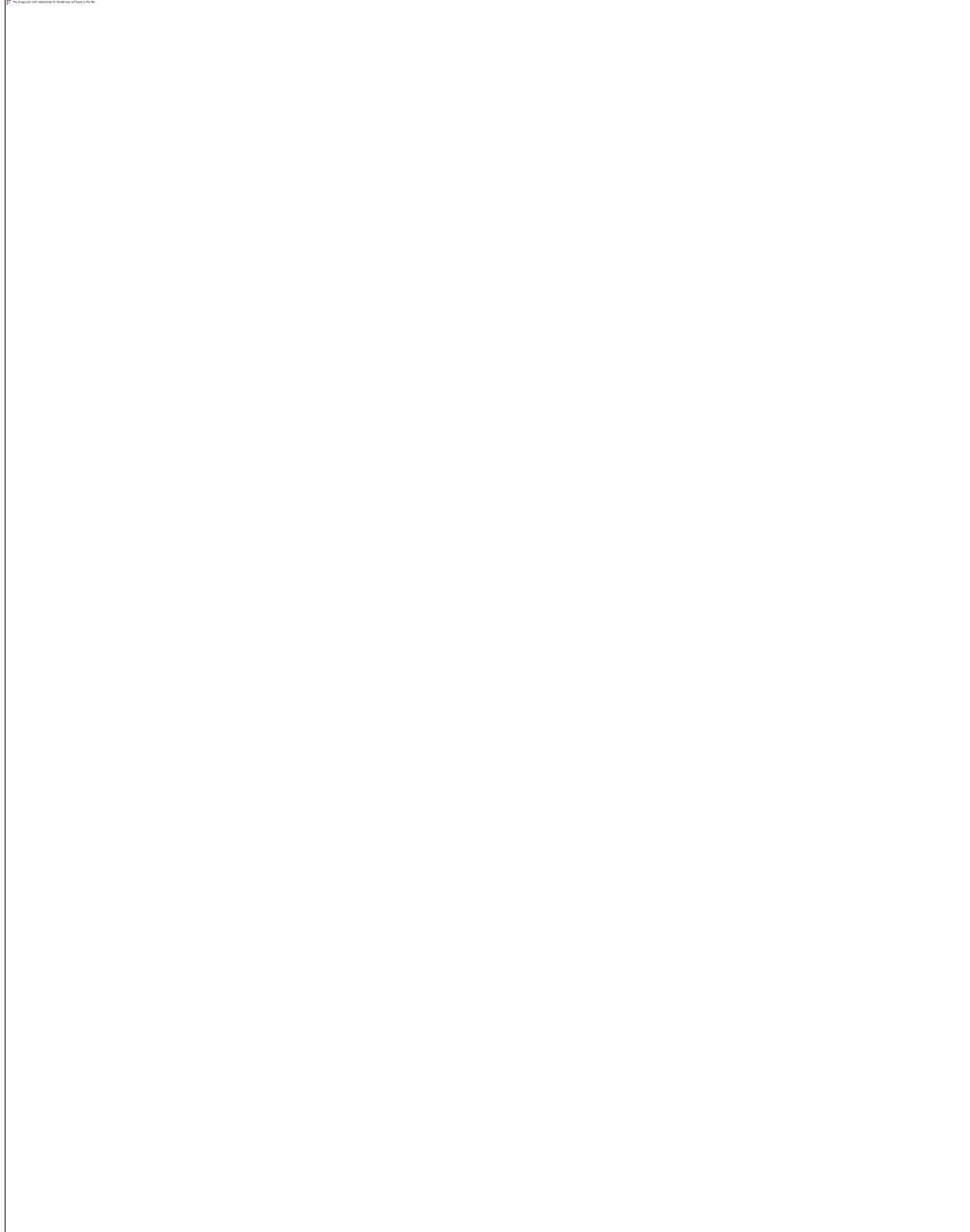
Here's an example of a CPM diagram. Although it's high-level, it can help you visualize the meaning of a critical path for a project schedule. For now, we'll use this critical path diagram to explain the elements that make up the CPM method.



Adopted from <https://www.projectmanager.com/guides/critical-path-method>.

As you can see in this critical path diagram, project activities are represented by letters and the critical path is highlighted in green. Tasks F, G and H are non-critical activities with float or slack. We can also identify task dependencies between the critical path activities, and also between activities (A, F and G) or (A, H and E), which are parallel tasks.

Here's another critical path example from Harvard Business Review, which shows a critical path schedule for the construction of a house. Each circle in the CPM diagram represents a project activity, as well as its duration, while the bolded arrows link the critical path activities. As projects become more complex, you'll find more parallel tasks, like in this example.



Source:Harvard Business Review

How to Find the Critical Path of a Project in 8 Steps

Now that you know the key concepts of the critical path method, here's how to calculate the critical path in 8 steps.

1. Collect Project Activities

Use a work breakdown structure to collect all the project activities that lead to the final deliverable.

2. Identify Task Dependencies

Figure out which tasks are dependent on other tasks before they can begin. Use your judgement and your team members' feedback. Failing to define task dependencies correctly makes the critical path method useless.

3. Create a Critical Path Diagram

A critical path analysis chart, or network diagram, depicts the order of activities.

4. Estimate Timeline

To use the critical path method, you'll need to estimate the duration of each task. Use data from past projects and other sources of information such as subject matter experts.

5. Use the Critical Path Algorithm

The critical path algorithm has two parts; a forward pass and a backwards pass.

Forward Pass

Use the network diagram and the estimated duration of each activity to determine their earliest start (ES) and earliest finish (EF). The ES of an activity is equal to the EF of its predecessor, and its EF is determined by the formula $EF = ES + t$ (t is the activity duration). The EF of the last activity identifies the expected time required to complete the entire project (projectmanager.com, 2022).

Backward Pass

Begins by assigning the last activity's earliest finish as its latest finish. Then the formula to find the LS is $LS = LF - t$ (t is the activity duration). For the previous activities, the LF is the smallest of the start times for the activity that immediately follows.

6. Identify the Float or Slack of Each Activity

Use this formula to determine the float or slack of each task. $Float = LS - ES$

7. Identify the Critical Path

The activities with 0 float make up the critical path. All of these critical path activities are dependent tasks except for the first task in your CPM schedule. All project tasks with positive slack are parallel tasks to the critical path activities.

8. Revise during Execution

Continue to update the critical path network diagram as you go through the execution phase.

These critical path analysis steps determine what tasks are critical and which can float, meaning they can be delayed without negatively impacting the project schedule. Now you have the information you need to plan the critical path schedule more accurately and have more of a guarantee you'll meet your project deadline.

You also need to consider other changes or constraints that might change the project schedule. The more you can account for these unexpected events or risks, the more accurate your critical path schedule will be. If time is added to the project because of these constraints, that is called a critical path drag, which is how much longer a project will take because of the task and constraint (projectmanager.com, 2022).

1.7 What is Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)?

The Program Evaluation Review Technique, or PERT, is a visual tool used in project planning. Using the technique helps project planners identify start and end dates, as well as interim required tasks and timelines. The information is displayed as a network in chart form.

PERT helps project planners identify:

Start and end dates

Anticipated total required completion time

All activities, referred to as events on the chart, that impact the completion time

The required sequence of events

The probability of completion by a certain date

The PERT Process

PERT has a set series of steps in mapping out a complex project, which include:

List all the tasks and milestones (a.k.a. events) required for completion of the project

Determine the required sequence of tasks

Design a chart to visually display all the steps

Estimate the time required for each task

Identify the critical path – the longest series of tasks in the project

Adjust the chart to reflect progress made once the project starts

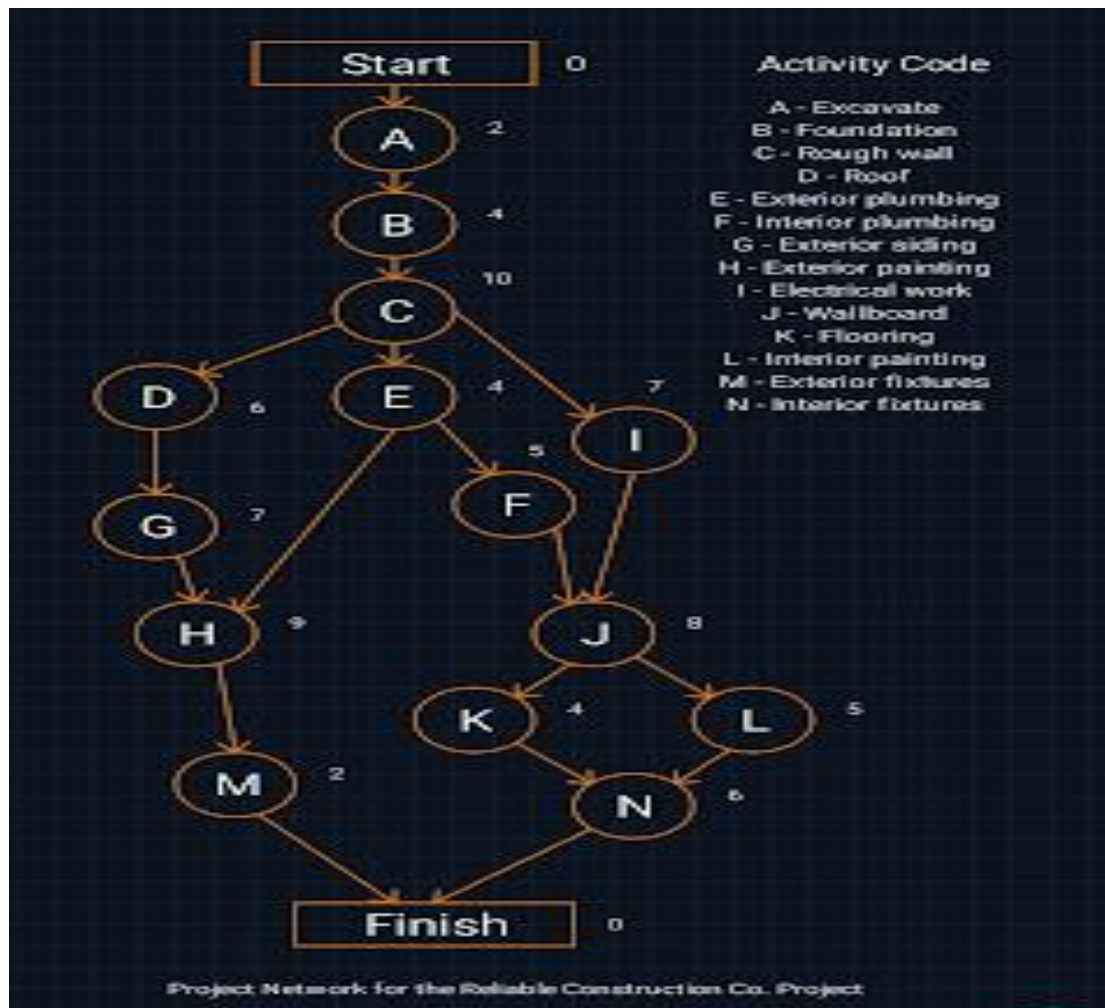
A PERT chart uses numbered circles or rectangles to represent milestones and straight lines with arrows at the end to represent tasks to be completed. The direction of the arrows, and the numbers, indicate the required sequence. Typically, the numbers increase by 10 at each milestone, so that new tasks can be added along the way without requiring the whole chart to be redrawn and numbered.

History

PERT was developed by the U.S. Navy in the 1950s to help coordinate the thousands of contractors it had working on myriad projects.

While PERT was originally a manual process, today there are computerized PERT systems that enable project charts to be created quickly.

The only real weakness of the PERT process is that the time required for completion of each task is very subjective and sometimes no better than a wild guess. Frequent progress updates help refine the project timeline once it gets underway.



Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. What Is the Critical Path of a Project?
2. What is Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)



1.8 Summary

This unit discussed Network analysis; it outline the Objective of Network Analysis, Advantage of Network Analysis and Disadvantage of Network Analysis. The unit also analyze the two basic network analysis: CPA and PERT



1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

projectmanager.com (2022).Critical Path Method. Retrieved from [https://www.projectmanager.com/guides/critical-path-method#:~:text=The%20critical%20path%20method%20\(CPM,which%20are%20known%20as%20paths.](https://www.projectmanager.com/guides/critical-path-method#:~:text=The%20critical%20path%20method%20(CPM,which%20are%20known%20as%20paths.)



1.10 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Concept of Network Analysis

Network analysis involves a group of techniques which are used for presenting information about the time and resources involved in the project so as to assist in the planning, scheduling and controlling of the project. The information usually represented by a network includes the sequences, interdependencies, interrelationships and critical activity of various activities of the project.

2. Objective of Network Analysis

1) Minimize Production Delay, Interruptions and Conflicts:

This is achieved by identifying all activities involved in the project, their precedence constraints, etc.

2) Minimization of Total Project Cost

After calculating the total cost of the project the next step is to minimise the total cost. It is done through the calculation of cost of delay in the completion of an activity of the project and calculating the cost of the resources which are required to complete the project in a given time period.

3) Trade-off between Time and Cost of Project

The duration of same activity can be reduced if additional sources are employed and this is the main idea on which the trade-off between time and cost of project is based. Due to technical reasons, the duration can be reduced in a specific limit. Similarly, there is also a most cost efficient duration called 'normal point' stretching the activity beyond it may lead to a rise in direct cost.

4) Minimization of Total Project Duration:

After checking the actual performance against the plan the project duration can be controlled and minimized. If any major difference is found then apply the necessary reschedule process by updating and revising the uncompleted portion of the project.

5) Minimization of Idle Resources:

If there is any variation in the use of scarce resources then it can disturb the entire plan and hence it is required that efforts should be made to avoid any increase in cost due to idle resources.

Advantage of Network Analysis

For planning, scheduling and controlling of operations in large and complicated projects network analysis is very important and powerful tool.

For evaluating the performance level of actual performance in comparison to planned target network analysis is a very useful tool

Disadvantage of Network Analysis

Network construction of complex project is very difficult and time consuming in network analysis.

Actual time estimation of various activities is a difficult exercise.

Analysis of the project is a very difficult work because a number of resource constraints exist in the project.

In many situations time-cost trade off procedure is complicated.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Critical Path of a Project

In project management, the critical path is the longest sequence of tasks that must be completed to complete a project. The tasks on the critical path are called critical activities because if they're delayed, the whole project completion will be delayed.

Finding the critical path is very important for project managers because it allows them to:

Accurately estimate the total project duration

Identify task dependencies, resource constraints and project risks

Prioritize tasks and create realistic project schedules

To find the critical path, project managers use the critical path method (CPM) algorithm to define the least amount of time necessary to complete each task with the least amount of slack

2. Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)

The Program Evaluation Review Technique, or PERT, is a visual tool used in project planning. Using the technique helps project planners identify start and end dates, as well as interim required tasks and timelines. The information is displayed as a network in chart form.

PERT helps project planners identify:

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All activities, referred to as events on the chart, that impact the completion time

The required sequence of events

The probability of completion by a certain date

Unit 5: Public Policy Evaluation

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Learning Outcomes

1.3 Public Policy Evaluation

1.4 Steps for conducting a policy evaluation

1.5 Public Policy Evaluation chart

1.6 Summary

1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

To obtain compliance of the actors involved in public policy formulation and implementation, the government can resort evaluation and enforce either negative or sanctions, such as revocation of contract or positive sanctions such as; favorable publicity, price supports, tax credits, grants-in-aid, direct services or benefits; declarations; rewards; voluntary standards; mediation; education; demonstration programs; training, contracts; subsidies; loans; general expenditures; informal procedures, bargaining; franchises; sole-source provider awards...etc



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- i. Explain the Public Policy Evaluation
- ii. State the Steps for conducting a policy evaluation
- iii. Draw Public Policy Evaluation chart



1.3 Public Policy Evaluation

The success of a policy can be measured by changes in the behaviour of the target population and active support from various actors and institutions involved. A public policy is an authoritative communication prescribing an unambiguous course of action for specified individuals or groups in certain situations. There must be an authority or leader charged with the implementation and monitoring of the policy with a sound social theory underlying the program and the target group. Evaluations can help estimate what effects will be produced by program objectives/alternatives. However, claims of causality can only be made with randomized control trials in which the policy change is applied to

one group and not applied to a control group and individuals are randomly assigned to these groups (Haynes, 2012).

1.4 Steps for conducting a policy evaluation

Policy evaluation is used to examine content, implementation or impact of the policy, which helps to understand the merit, worth and the utility of the policy. Following are National Collaborating Centre for Healthy Public Policy's (NCCHPP) 13 steps: (Morestin, and Castonguay, 2013).

- a. Planning
- b. Clarify the policy
- c. Engage stakeholders
- d. Assess resources and evaluability
- e. Determine your evaluation questions
- f. Determine methods and procedures
- g. Develop evaluation plan
- h. Implementation
- i. Collect data
- j. Process data and analyze results
- k. Utilization
- l. Interpret and disseminate the results
- m. Apply evaluation findings

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Explain the Public Policy Evaluation2. State the steps for conducting a policy evaluation |
|---|

1.5 Public Policy Evaluation chart

Public Policy Analysts

Type of	Public	Motivation	Approach	Relevant
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Policy Analyst	Policy Problem			Training
Scientist	Theoretic	Search for theory, regularities, truth	Scientific methods, objectivity, pure analytic	Basic research methods, canons of social science research
Professional	Design	Improvement of policy and policy-making	Utilization of knowledge, strategic	Strategic, cost-benefit analysis, queuing, simulation, decision analysis
Political	Value maximization	Advocacy of policy positions	Rhetoric	Gathering useful evidence, effective presentation
Administrative	Application	Effective & Efficient policy implementation	Strategic, Managerial	Strategic, same as for Professional
Personal	Contention	Concern for policy impacts on life	Mixed	Use of many models & techniques from other approaches; less sophisticated

Source: Adapted from Birkland T A 1997: *Agenda Setting, Public Policy, and Focusing Events*. Georgetown University Press, Washington, DC
Types of Public Policy Analysis

Positive Analysis	Normative Analysis
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A concern with understanding how the policy process works 2. Strives to understand public policy as it is 3. Endeavors to explain how various social and political forces would change policy 4. Tries to pursue truth through the process of testing hypotheses by measuring them against the standard of real-world experiences 5. Usually deals with assertions of cause and effect : <p>“ If the Indonesian government raises interest rates , then consumers will borrow less “. This statement may be tested by setting-up an experiment within a state. The results may confirm or refute the statement .</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is directed toward studying what public policy ought to be to improve the general welfare 2. Deals with statement involving value judgments about what should be. For example : “ The cost of health care in Indonesia is too high”. This statement cannot be confirmed by referring to data. Whether the cost is too high or is appropriate is based on a given criterion. Its validity depends upon one’s values and ethical views. Individuals may agree on the facts of healthcare costs but disagree over their ethical judgments regarding the implications of “the cost of health care”.

Source: Adapted from Birkland T A1997: *Agenda Setting, Public Policy, and Focusing E.ents*. Georgetown University Press, Washington,DC

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Draw a table showing Public Policy Evaluation



1.6 Summary

The success of a policy can be measured by changes in the behaviour of the target population and active support from various actors and institutions involved. A public policy is an authoritative communication prescribing an unambiguous course of action for specified individuals or groups in certain situations. There must be an authority or leader charged with the implementation and monitoring of the policy with a sound social theory underlying the program and the target group. Evaluations can help estimate what effects will be produced by program objectives/alternatives

Policy evaluation is used to examine content, implementation or impact of the policy, which helps to understand the merit, worth and the utility of the policy. Following are National Collaborating Centre for Healthy Public Policy's (NCCHPP) 13 steps: (Morestin, and Castonguay, 2013).

- n. Planning
 - o. Clarify the policy
 - p. Engage stakeholders
 - q. Assess resources and evaluability
 - r. Determine your evaluation questions
 - s. Determine methods and procedure



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Birkland T A. (1997): *Agenda Setting, Public Policy, and Focusing E.ents*. Georgetown University Press, Washington,DC



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

3. Public Policy Evaluation

The success of a policy can be measured by changes in the behaviour of the target population and active support from various actors and institutions involved. A public policy is an authoritative communication prescribing an unambiguous course of action for specified individuals or groups in certain situations. There must be an authority or leader charged with the implementation and monitoring of the policy with a sound social theory underlying the program and the target group. Evaluations can help estimate what effects will be produced by program objectives/alternatives

4. Steps for conducting a policy evaluation

Policy evaluation is used to examine content, implementation or impact of the policy, which helps to understand the merit, worth and the utility of the policy. Following are National Collaborating Centre for Healthy Public Policy's (NCCHPP) 13 steps: (Morestin, and Castonguay, 2013).

- i. Planning
- ii. Clarify the policy
- iii. Engage stakeholders
- iv. Assess resources and evaluability
- v. Determine your evaluation questions
- t. Determine methods and procedures

Answer to SAEs 2

Charts for Public Policy Evaluation

Public Policy Analysts

Type of Policy Analyst	Public Policy Problem	Motivation	Approach	Relevant Training
Scientist	Theoretic	Search for theory, regularities, truth	Scientific methods, objectivity, pure analytic	Basic research methods, canons of social science research
Professional	Design	Improvement of policy and policy-making	Utilization of knowledge, strategic	Strategic, cost-benefit analysis, queuing, simulation, decision analysis
Political	Value maximization	Advocacy of policy positions	Rhetoric	Gathering useful evidence, effective presentation
Administrative	Application	Effective & Efficient policy implementation	Strategic, Managerial	Strategic, same as for Professional
Personal	Contention	Concern for policy impacts on life	Mixed	Use of many models & techniques from other approaches; less sophisticated

Source: Adapted from Birkland T A 1997: *Agenda Setting, Public Policy, and Focusing Elements*. Georgetown University Press, Washington, DC
Types of Public Policy Analysis