



2015 HAWAII UNIVERSITY INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

S.T.E.A.M. & EDUCATION JUNE 13 - 15, 2015

ALA MOANA HOTEL, HONOLULU, HAWAII

S.T.E.A.M & EDUCATION PUBLICATION:

ISSN 2333-4916 (CD-ROM)

ISSN 2333-4908 (ONLINE)

THE (UN) IDENTICAL TWINS: PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT:
TOWARD IMPROVING EDUCATION AND TRAINING
FOR EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN GHANA

ANTWI-BOASIAKO, KWAME BADU

STEPHEN F. AUSTIN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT.

Dr. Kwame Badu Antwi-Boasiako
Department of Government
Stephen F. Austin State University.

**The (Un) Identical Twins: Public Administration and Public Management: Toward
Improving Education and Training for Effective Governance in Ghana**

Synopsis:

The effect of education and training for public officials in Ghana.

The (Un) Identical Twins: Public Administration and Public Management: Toward Improving Education and Training for Effective Governance in Ghana

Abstract

Undoubtedly, there are some disagreements between academics and practitioners on how to improve the performance of government officials in Ghana. While academics advocate for reforms in governance through education and training, practitioners may have differing interests and expectations. Such impasse has contributed to the lack of a unified framework of concepts in nation building. Core concepts for training public managers for good governance have fragmented within public administration, public policy, and public management. However, there is hope that pre-service and in-service training and education may provide opportunities to implement reforms through human development. There should be a closer dialogue among all schools of thought based on a generally agreed paradigm for effective governance through education and training. This article looks at education and training of public officials through the lens of the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA). The similarities and differences between public administration and management are examined.

Keywords: Public administration, new public management, traditional administration, training, and education.

Introduction

The management of public affairs by public administrators is a rather complex activity, which entails the balancing of various and sometimes contradictory objectives. These training¹ and education objectives are necessary for the understanding and implementation of public policies. Education and training for public administrators are essential for development in African countries, including Ghana (Okereke, 1985 and Jacobs 1990). One must understand and accept the role and goals of government in both the public and private sectors before such education and training can be administratively effective and productive. Effectiveness is defined in this paper as government's ability to maximize available resources for the benefit of the citizens, while productivity is the outcome of effective management.

As a unitary administrative country, Ghana more or less practices a centralized administrative system despite the constitutional support for administrative decentralization (Antwi-Boasiako 2014b, 283-288). The challenges faced by Ghana are due to the negative implications of ineffective governance and the “widespread recognition that *Ghana* suffers from a lack of management *and administrative* capacities, and that this scarcity of indigenous talent is a major, if not the major, constraint in stimulating national development” (Kerrigan and Luke 1989: 904). The historical development and role of public administration education and training in improving managerial and administrative competence in Ghana are discussed in the following sections.

Historical Development of Public Administration Education and Training in Ghana

In a review of public administration education and training, it became evident that there was no single system that is recognized as a model. As a result, there are various approaches to public administration education and training. These variations may be based on national size, interest of tertiary institutions, and diversity. The type of political system, structures, and the role of the central government are also a key point in understanding a country’s approaches to public administration education and training. As the literature shows, there are many different ways for one to become a public administrator or manager with the exception of France, where one has to attend and graduate from the Ecole Nationale d’Administracion (ENA) to become a public administrator. The same cannot be said about other countries, including Ghana or the United States (Kolishnichenko 2006). Formal training and education have been the essential components in the attainment of knowledge, skills, abilities, and competencies for various careers for quite some time – for instance, “[t]he apprenticeship method was the accepted procedure for training craftsmen during the era of guild development in industry” (Wingo 1937:84). It was not until the

early 20th century that formal, institutionalized public administration education and training became a reality. In Ghana, public administration education and training were first seen during the colonial era. It was continued after the country attained its political independence in 1957 (Haruna and Kannae 2013; Adu 1965; Haruna 2004). In terms of governance, Ghana has a checkered local government history and experience. Ayee (2004) noted that before political independence, Ghana has pursued local government policies. This local government experience was deeply rooted in “national bureaucratic framework that tends to hurt rather than promote the transformation of local and rural life,” (Haruna and Kannae 2013b:140), hence the need for education and training to improve not only local governance, but also the national government.

In the early 20th century the need for trained public administrators and formalized public administration education and training grew rapidly. This was due to the increase in population, the size and functions of government, the replacement of the spoils system with a professional civil service (Schachter 2007), and the increasing complexity of national affairs. The need for government to “widen its activities continually to take up new kinds of work, particularly in the social and scientific fields,” and the establishment of new positions “requiring not only technical skill but *real executive ability*” (Wingo 1937: 84). Supporting Wingo’s argument, though dated but still relevant, Haruna (2004:176) also noted that the establishment of institutions in Ghana, a new independent country-post colonial Gold Coast, in the early 1960s “contributed to reinforce the bureaucratic perspective of administrative education, training,” and managerial skills. He argues that public administration institutions in Africa were modeled after the colonial occupiers: The British, French, Portuguese and others. For example, Haruna maintains that GIMPA, a public administration institution in Ghana, reflects the Royal Institute of Public administration in England.

The central administration strategy associated with public administration and management of public affairs in Ghana was evident in the British colonial administration, the post independent civilian administrations of Kwame Nkrumah (1957-1966), Kofi Abrefa Busia (1969-1972), and Hilla Liman (1979-1981) including the 1966, 1972, 1979, and 1981 military administrations. Since the genesis of the Fourth Republic of Ghana (from 1992) and the 1992 Constitution, much emphasis has been placed on local government administration and reforms for effective governance. While the 1992 Constitution clearly supports local government and decentralization, one could argue that not much training and education are given to local government personnel to specifically address the needs of the citizens. This is, in part, due to the centralized governance structures where the central government continues to appoint public administrators for the regions and districts (Antwi-Boasiako 2010).

These appointments are based on political affiliations (the spoils system) and not solely on the appointees' professional training and educational background. As Ayee (2002:174) noted, "the president appoints almost every one to practically every key government institution at the national, regional, and local level." Governance at the local level is different. Education and training in public administration should provide adequate preparation for public management, as they create awareness of the political process for government officials. Unfortunately, one could argue, some government appointees lack the required training to function as expected, since most of the appointees by the government are rejected at the district level.ⁱⁱ Although some institutions of higher learning provide public administration education and training in Ghana, it is the University of Ghana's -School of Business (UGSB) and GIMPA that are known for their quality education and training for administrators, public service personnel, and politicians. A critical

examination of GIMPA's curriculum by Haruna and Kanna (2013) revealed the institution's full commitment in the education and training of future public administrators and managers in Ghana.

Education and Training for Public Administrators and Managers in Ghana

As Haruna and Kanna (2013:502) noted, GIMPA uses a semi-residential modular education and training format, which allows "public managers to combine work with study in a manner that minimizes the losses in man-hours while maximizing education and training." GIMPA, in providing a theoretical-based education in all its programs, places pragmatic emphasis on professional effectiveness. In addition to UGSB and GIMPA, other universities and institutions, such as the Management Development and Productivity Institute (MDPI) and the Civil Service Training Center (CSTC), also provide public administration education and training "for top, middle, and junior level civil service employees" (Haruna 2004: 178). GIMPA, established in 1961, is undeniably the only institution in Ghana that provides and focuses solely on an extensive education and training for administrators in its graduate school of governance and leadership, where masters degrees are offered in public administration, development, management, executive governance and leadership, along with public sector management training programs. The school also provides consultancy services in many areas, including strategic management, human resources management, and community training (Haruna 2003).

It should be noted that UGSB, in addition to its masters and doctoral degree awarding programs, also provides weekend and executive masters of public administration (MPA) to serve the educational needs of individuals who may already be in the workforce. Education and training in Ghana for public officials dates back to the colonial era, when the British laid the foundation for how Ghana should be governed. In so doing, expatriate public administrators were

purposely trained in universities in the United Kingdom to conduct administrative business of the British Colonial Empire in Ghana and other occupied British colonies (Kirk-Green 1969; Haruna 2004). Such administrative structures only served the interest of the colonizers and not the governed or colonized: Ghanaians, the locals had absolutely no inputs in the administration of national affairs.

GIMPA is primarily focused on public affairs education and training in the country. This institution was empowered through Act 676, which was passed unanimously by the unicameral legislative Ghanaian parliament in 2004. Referred to as the GIMPA Bill, Act 676 legally gave GIMPA the authority to consolidate and reestablish itself as a self-sustaining public tertiary institution and “graduate-degree-granting university” (Haruna 2013: 495). Since its inception, Haruna maintains, GIMPA has taken a bureaucratic perspective of management education and training similar to the British civil service model. GIMPA and the other institutions mentioned above, based on their curricula provide, at least in theory, public managers and officials with the competence to manage national affairs, nation building, and the task of human resource development, but their educational model still mirrors the British system despite attempts for reforms by post-independence governments.

Public Administration and Public Management in the Context of Education and Training

The following sections cover first, traditional public administration and the predominant form of public management – the New Public Management (NPM). This discussion then proceeds to an examination of the similarities and differences between public administration and NPM. In the concluding thoughts, major points are reviewed and suggestions are offered with respect to how higher institutions in Ghana, such as GIMPA and UGSB, can provide training and

education to ensure competency in public administrators and managers through their degree and certification curricula.

Given the Ghanaian political environment, it is obvious that competence in governing is not restricted to government officials and the public sector alone, but also involves the private sector, including not-for-profit agencies. While much improvement is needed in administrative and managerial capabilities, one is likely to admit that scant attention has been directed to training and education for nation building. I argue that public administration and NPM can supplement each other in ways that can help promote effective governance, which will improve public welfare through training and education. This will increase managerial productivity and competence at all levels - national, regional, and local governments.

It is most likely that public administration and management are often confused, with many failing to recognize the difference and using the two concepts interchangeably (Leonina-Emilia and Ioan 2010). There are boundaries, however, surrounding public administration and public management that distinguish the two concepts. Exploring this distinction enables one to compare and contrast public administration and management. Additionally, an understanding of what constitutes the two can help practitioners and academicians initiate steps to understand one another by establishing a unified framework of governance to promote public welfare, where each official's duty is clearly defined and well understood by the citizenry.

Public Administration Education and Training – An Overview

The practice of public administration has been around since the emergence of governing structures and is “as old as the governance itself” (Leonina-Emilia and Ioan 2010:1020). Public administration education and training generally consists of professional education and training for

those who are going to join the public sector and further their professional training and/or education for those who are employed in public administration. It was not until Woodrow Wilson (1887) wrote *The Study of Administration* that public administration emerged as an academic area of study. This is not to argue that the practice of public administration was absent in traditional societies. The indigenous African societies had their own administrative system unknown to their European slave traders and occupiers (Antwi-Boasiako 2012). Initially, public administration was considered to be a sub-discipline of political science (Boyne 1996; Gray and Jenkins 1995), but with the passage of time it has become a discipline of its own, which is firmly rooted in political science, constitutional law, and other disciplines that touch on the realm of public administration (Henry 2010: 27-40).

The concept of public administration can be referred to as the academic area of study (public administration theory), the activity of executing policy (public administration practice), or the administrative structures of a country. As such, it is not surprising that public administration has evaded precise definition (Stillman II 2010:1-6). For example, in Ghana, the role of the public administrator is so confusing that most citizens, arguably, look up to the central government - the executive - to provide basic necessities, ignoring the other institutions of government. This situation is further complicated because public administration, “[d]ue to its sociocultural context, its evolving intellectual content and its tacit values . . . is not constituted by a single set of principles or concepts” (Sindane 2004:666). The particular forms of administrative structures and systems utilized in a country are path-dependent (Gheorghe 2012; Kim 2007; Pollitt 2002) and are shaped by context – specifically, a country’s history, culture, and level of development (Ackroyd 1995; Gheorghe 2012; Jreisat 2010; Sindane 2004; Pollitt 2002). Thus, public administration as structure and practice can be characterized by flux and transformation. This, in

turn, insinuates that public administration theory can also be characterized by flux and transformation (Haruna 2003) because “[c]hanges to the study of public administration tend to follow those in the practice of the administration of government” (Gray and Jenkins, 1995:75). That is, public administration is adaptive, art, and reactive.

Nevertheless, several key characteristics define the traditional conception of public administration. Public administration is Weberian in the sense that it is characterized by command and control structures that are intended to prevent arbitrary decision making, promote accountability, and encourage consistency and coordination, such as bureaucracy, hierarchy, rules, the concentration of power, and clear lines of accountability (Gheorghe 2012; Kim 2007; Leonina-Emilia and Ioan 2010; Riccucci 2001). Those characteristics could be well understood through education and training. Public administration is also concerned with public management; according to traditional conceptions of public administration, “the fundamental responsibility of public managers was to develop efficient, programmatic means for accomplishing well-defined goals” (Moore, as cited in Terry 1998: 195). A well-defined goal for Ghana to ensure continuity in development has eluded successive administrations since the overthrow of the first president, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah on February 24, 1966. The reason, according to Danso (2007) and Ayittey (2005), is lack of visionary leadership cumulating from the absence of trained public administrators and managers.

The Traditional Public Administration Argument

Traditional public administration rejects the politics-administration dichotomy on which classical public administration was based, and accepts that public administration is inherently political (Leonina-Emilia and Ioan 2010; Lynn 1998; Sindane 2004). Nevertheless, “in practice, public administrative questions require political answers” (Sindane 2004:666). Unfortunately,

those political answers are not provided in Ghana. Public administration, however, goes beyond asking administrative questions that require political answers. It is also “concerned with . . . the politics of service provision” (Boyne 1996: 679). As such, Ghanaian institutions of higher learning such as GIMPA and UGSB “need to be understood as more than instruments that produce policy outcomes” (Sindane 2004: 668). These institutions must also be seen as instruments of change in the country’s political environment, culture, and development.

Public administrators engage in political management, which is based on the assumption “that public managers have a *legitimate right* to exercise political power in the policy making process” (Terry 1998: 195) in the interest of the public. The concept of public administration is both instrumental – functioning as a means to attain a collective, public end – and constitutive or formative – defining that end during implementation by placing administrators and managers in the position to either subtly or overtly engage in forming public law (Boyne 2002; Cook 1998). In the Ghanaian political unitary administrative structure, public administrators and public managers fulfill this constitutional role through the administrative exercise of delegated authority to give meaning to, or interpret, ambiguous legislative mandates. More often than not, they prioritize competing and sometimes conflicting goals and objectives to identify public goods and services for the people (Sindane 2004) living in more deprived and rural communities. Given this perspective, “the preferred role of government. . . *is viewed as* acting as the principal vehicle for socio-economic development” (Kaul 1997:14). As long as this lack of clarity remains in defining public service and who is entitled to such service, politics and administration will be inseparable (Antwi-Boasiako 2010; Kelly 1998).

Although public administration is closely linked to administrative structures, especially the bureaucracy, “[w]hat is important about the theory and practice of traditional public

administration is the value system embraced and served” (Gray and Jenkins 1995: 83). Public administration emphasizes what Hood (1991) classifies as lambda-type values; these include resiliency, endurance, robustness, reliability, adaptability, and survival. Additionally, public administration addresses questions of ‘how’ *and* ‘why’ and, as such, is concerned with normative values (Cook 1998; Sindane 2004). These normative values include those classified by Hood as theta-type values, which include fairness, honesty, and mutuality. Moreover, public administration is based on political values, including democracy, accountability, due process, collective choice, fairness, justice, participation, and representation (Ricucci 2001 and Rimington 2009). Collectively, these values are required by “goals, such as equity and accountability, that are absent in the private sector . . . [and] stem from the common ownership of public organizations, and from attempts to control their behavior in order to achieve collective purposes” (Boyne 2002: 100). This means if the proper public administration education and training are provided in Ghana, administrators and managers should be able to understand and follow the democratic political process for effective and efficient decision making in the interest of the populace. Thus, administrators must be able to explain to the citizenry within their various constituencies “how” and “why” certain political decisions are taken.

Making Sense of Public Administration Training and Education in Ghana

Basic public administration education and training usually occur at the university level in both public and private institutions of learning in Ghana. A handful of these institutions offer undergraduate and graduate programs in public administration and public management. Some of these institutions are operating in an increasingly competitive commercialized environment where their programs and curricula are geared toward public servants at all levels are oriented to issues of economy, productivity, efficiency, and social policy (Kolishchenko 2006). Education and

training are most likely to be the key causes for transformation in any industry, organization or country. These two, education and training, are balancing activities that reinforce each other. Education concentrates on explaining concepts, doctrines, beliefs, practices, and teaching procedures; for instance the theory of how a task should be done. Training, on the other hand, deals with *practicing* and *applying* the knowledge acquired through education, which helps to execute what has been learned. The classical public administration literature tends to provide a framework for developed countries and how, in an idealistic democratic political environment, public administrators and managers should function.ⁱⁱⁱ Ghana, like most African countries, was deconstructed and constructed by external powers in 1844: Colonization. This partition of Africa (Antwi-Boasiako 2014 and Gavshon 1981) has undeniably affected its political, social, cultural, educational and administrative structures.

Despite these colonial and foreign administrative structures, the native administrative system continues to function; the chieftaincy system. The concept of chieftaincy as a form of administrative authority at the local level still persists and it is constitutionally recognized (Antwi-Boasiako and Bonna 2012) and functions. Ayittey (2005:21) admits that the study of the Ghanaian traditional “societies reveal[s] an astonishing degree of functionality: participatory forms of democracy, rule of customary law, and accountability,” but the administrative system of modern Ghana “is a meretricious fandango of imported or borrowed institutions that are little understood by” public officials, administrators, and managers. This imported administrative system has forced tertiary institutions in Ghana, including GIMPA and UGSB to unfortunately respond “to external pressures, offering internationally acceptable courses that provide students with generic managerial and technical managerial competencies” to the detriment of traditional administrative structures where the tertiary institutions curricula fail to address issues of

traditional administration and policies relevant to Ghana (Haruna 2013:507). Haruna notes there is the need for public administration training and education to address domestic issues. Thus, any public administration training and education must “build knowledge and the ethic for administering in the unique context of Ghana” (507).

Localizing Public Administration in Ghana

The classical writings in public administration do not discuss traditional administration and management, which have been part of the administrative system in Ghana since the pre- and post-colonial eras. This section looks at the concept of public administration and public management from the Ghanaian perspective regarding the type of education and training available for public administrators. Before public administration became an academic discipline there were administrative structures in indigenous societies, including Ghana (Ayittey 1992). While those structures were not documented, there was consensus in the administration of justice, law making, policy making (taboos), and delivery of public services through local leaders and traditional chiefs (Antwi-Boasiako, 2012). Traditional leaders, similar to elected political leaders, had different leaders styles, which varied from chief to chief (region to region). For example, the Ghanaian political heads of state, from the first president, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah (1957-1966), through to John Dramani Mahama (2012-)^{iv}, have different leadership and administrative skills that affirm the diverse administrative styles of public administrators. This unsurprisingly diverse nature in public administration is normative in focusing mainly on public interest (King and Chilton, 2009). Each one of these administrators, including those not mentioned here, had their fair share of public criticisms of maladministration, given their respective lack of public administration education and training, yet all of them (including the administration of military leaders Colonel I. K. Acheampong 1972-79, and J.J. Rawlings 1982-2000) are more likely to vow

that the performances of their administrative teams were in the interest of the public. Ghana, a country of only 58 years of political independence from British barbaric colonial rule, has experienced democratic governance under four different constitutions; nevertheless, 21 out of the 58 years were under military decrees, leaving only 37 years of constitutional administration in Ghana.

These leaders and other public officials in Ghana have exemplified the various definitions of public administration, which means there is no singular definition or approach to managing public resources (Stillman II 2010). Public administrators are engaged in technicalities but, unfortunately, some Ghanaian politicians and a portion of the populace lack the knowledge of the political process to fully comprehend and understand the role of public administrators, as voters are deceived with election campaign promises. Moreover, Ghanaians are not alone as “empirical descriptions from an external perspective,” have shown, that “no one really sees the big picture” in the definition of public administration (King and Chilton 2009: 29); hence the education and training of Ghanaian administrators is based on imported public administration theory and practices, which in most cases do not address the needs of domestic issues (Haruna 2013).

One can therefore argue that some of the citizens may not fully understand the duties of their public administrators and managers. In addition to budgetary preparations and job classifications, public administrators in Ghana are equally concerned with development of human resources and achieving goals of the people (public interest), but the question remains; do public administrators and managers have adequate education, training, and competence to perform their duties? Haruna (2013) attempts to answer these questions; first, he sees the challenges facing tertiary institutions in Ghana through their curriculum development. Using GIMPA’s curriculum as a case study, for public administrators to acquire adequate training and education, Haruna

posits that good governance principles must be incorporated into “public affairs education and training in the larger society” (508). He provides a sample framework for curriculum^v for development management, which is more likely to focus on, and address domestic administrative and political challenges facing Ghana. Haruna calls for specific course components to address domestic (local) issues and conditions to foster competencies geared toward development, management, and public administration.

Defining Public Administration in Ghana

Public administration in Ghana, like any other academic discipline, is not isolated but intertwined with the critical dilemmas confronting the entire country. Its diverse nature makes it difficult for ordinary Ghanaians who are not part of an administration to identify the goals of that administration, if those goals are not clearly defined. Many studies, including King and Chilton (2009), Stillman (2010: 2 - 4), and Starling (1998) have offered different definitions of public administration. Cropf (2008: 8- citing Dwight Waldo) also agrees “no single, and authoritative definition of public administration is possible.” For example, Starling (1998) argues that public administration is the process by which resources are marshaled and then used to cope with the problems facing a political community. Public administration is also the use of managerial, political and legal theories, and the processes to fulfill legislative, executive, and judicial governmental mandates, for the provision of regulatory and service functions for Ghana or some segments of the country. Given the complexities and the amalgamation of traditional (chieftaincy) and modern administrative structures in Ghana, it becomes more confusing if the administration of local communities is laid only on the shoulders of the central government. The logical definition of public administration, I argue, must be derived from sagacity of different premises. To Ghanaians, despite how ill defined the field is, public administration must be seen as including

transparency, accountability, and decentralization, where the needs of the public are addressed by both elected and appointed government officials. Public administration should be a collective effort to manage the human resources, both skilled and unskilled, for effective implementation of public policies within the budgetary constraints of the country for the local and national administrative agencies.

Public administration is defined here as an art, which strategically combines available resources to maximize their utilization in the interest of the citizens within a governed jurisdiction (Antwi-Boasiako 2010:166-168). For public administrators to be seen as effective and productive, the area of administration must be politically and clearly defined, hence the importance of education and training to build competent leaders who understand the political processes. The next section looks at public management in the Ghanaian context.

New Public Management in Ghana

The transfer of business, management techniques, and market principles from the private to the public sector may be referred to as the new public management (NPM). This concept is based on neo-liberal interpretation of the state and economy where a state's involvement in public activities is expected to diminish while business principles of efficiency are promoted.

Unfortunately, in Ghana, any agency (for example, Ghana Water Company Limited and Electricity Company of Ghana Limited) run by the central government does not perform well, hence the need for government to adopt best practices in the business world. According to Hunt (2008:398), management is an art, a science, a philosophy, and most importantly a technique. Management, as he puts it, "has been called the art of persuading other people to pursue enthusiastically your [ones] own particular objective." Hunt noted that management is expressed in the techniques of administration and organization that have been developed throughout

organized society. As a social process, management is based on the acceptance of the philosophy of co-operation. It is, therefore, not a discipline for few individuals but for all. In Ghana, because of the parochial politicians, political party leaders are always at impasse with each other. This has not helped in the administration, management, and development of the country. To Boyne (1996) and Hope Sr. (2001), public management has had a far stronger impact on practice than theory; indeed, “The very word management implies a practical focus” (Boyne 1996:684). Nevertheless, various “different approaches to advance the understanding of public management research and practice” have been developed, including quantitative/analytic management, political management, market-driven management, and liberation management (Terry 1998: 194).

Unfortunately, the two leading political parties (National Democratic Congress-NDC and National Patriotic Party-NPP) ideological approaches to managing the affairs of the country do not seem to complement each other, hence lack of development in Ghana. Haruna (2003:347), in his article *Reforming Ghana's Public Service: Issues and Experiences in Comparative Perspective*, argues that “a composite framework of reform blending the social and cultural experiences of the people of Ghana with Anglo-American values offers an opportunity for transforming *the* Ghanaian society.” Here, I strongly argue that management skills and values of the Anglo-America framework of administration could help educate and train competent administrators in Ghana, where certain characteristics exhibited by the Ghanaian government worker - inefficiency, absenteeism, and tardiness - could be minimized, if not eradicated.

The cultural and political uniqueness of Ghana must be considered as tertiary institutions develop their curricula. In so doing, the blend between the Anglo-American management style, as suggested by Haruna and Kannae (2013), and that of Ghana- the traditional administrative system

could help to address domestic needs of the country. The most prominent form of public management since Ghana's Fourth Republic is NPM, which has its theoretical roots in public choice theory, rational choice theory, economic and micro-economic theory. However, as Ayittey (2005:21) would argue, Ghanaian elites and administrators have very little understanding of these borrowed theoretical concepts developed from afar with little or no relevance to domestic issues; hence the managerial competence in public administration has become "a product of mass confusion and an internally contradictory system that bears no affinity to either the indigenous system" or the imported Anglo-American system. He maintains that the concept and understanding of management in Ghana is elitism, which runs parallel to NPM concept.

Challenges: Public Administration and New Public Management

NPM directly challenges the ideological core of public administration – particularly the political-administrative dichotomous relational context, its basic values, and concept as understood in the Ghanaian context – and, as such, NPM represents a departure from prior traditional public management approaches. Management reforms are viewed as important developments to improve governance, but reforms are seen as rejections of previous administration's political ideas. Despite these challenges facing Ghana, waves of NPM reforms have been undertaken in developed and, more recently, developing countries (Gheorghe 2012; Kim 2007; Sindane 2004; and Haruna 2003). However, the impact of the various political administrative reforms for improvement is yet to be seen by the governed in Ghana. The spread of NPM has not been universal; in fact, in Ghana, the various administrative structural adjustment reforms have had abysmal results. For example, Hood (1991:8) recognizes the absence of any significant impact at the local level. He states,

NPM seems to have had much less impact on international bureaucracies than on national ones, and less on controlling departments than on front-line delivery units. Moreover, much was made of the need for local variation in management styles – so long as such variations did not challenge the basic framework of NPM.

Nevertheless, it is undeniable that there has been increasing discursive and decisional convergence of NPM reforms on a global scale (Pollitt 2002). The extent to which countries are also transitioning toward practice convergence is debatable; however, if practice convergence is increasing, this “would mark an important departure from the prevailing belief in cultural determinism” (Lynn 1998:232).

Practical applications of NPM may result in many different types of management reforms; consequently, a wide range of new definitions of NPM have been proposed, few of which are identical. Nevertheless, there are various characteristics that broadly define the NPM movement and encompass its various structural forms (Betley, Bird, and Gharney 2012). NPM rejects public administration and bureaucratic structures as inefficient, ineffective, and failing to ensure accountability, something that is common in Ghana. In seeking to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of government, NPM conceptualizes the role of the central government as facilitative and collaborative (Hope Sr. 2001; Kim 2007). As such, NPM encourages marketization, managerial entrepreneurship, private sector management practices, structural decentralization through the institution of lean, flexible, disaggregated, and autonomous organizations, and the substitution of hierarchical relationships with competitive, contractual relationships and privatization (Kim 2007 and Rimington 2009). Thus, NPM can be understood as promoting governance instead of government (Kim, 2007) due to the “narrowing of government institutions and responsibilities,” which is based on the assumption that “governments need not be involved in many aspects of policy implementation” (Kaul, 1997: 14).

For example, Behn (1998:210) asserts, “Public managers can help to improve... [a] system of governance . . . [by] help[ing] correct seven failures of governance: organizational, analytical, executive, legislative, political, civic, and judicial.” To enable Ghanaian public administrators and public managers, both at the local and national level, to succeed in this endeavor of improving the efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability of administrative systems, NPM reforms must be incorporated in the curricula of institutions at all levels. Additionally, NPM shifts the managerial focus from inputs and processes to outputs and outcomes or results, thereby elevating the importance of performance measurement in promoting accountability through unambiguous output control (Kim 2007; Pollitt 2002).

NPM reinstates the Wilsonian politics-administration dichotomy that has been discarded by traditional public administration (Gheorghe 2012 and Antwi-Boasiako 2014). Hood asserts that ‘political neutrality’ contributes to NPM framework’s flexibility, which enables the adoption and implementation of reforms in a variety of contexts such as district, local, and traditional governments in Ghana. Additionally, NPM reforms distinguish between political responsibilities (policy formulation) and managerial responsibilities (policy implementation), thereby rejecting the constitutive role of public administrators and public managers in favor of a solely institutional role (Cook 1998; Kaul 1997). Unfortunately, in Ghana, such distinction is not made clear by politicians to voters making the latter confused in what is expected of the public administrators and managers. Advocates of NPM overlook the rhetorical-reality disconnect that this rejection of constitutive roles and elevation of institutional roles causes and instead view this as “a necessary precursor to strengthening accountability” (Kaul 1997:17). In his article, *The new public management: Context and practice in Africa*, Hope Sr. (2001:123) argues that all societies need a capable public management structure to keep order, collect revenue, and carry out programs.”

Ghana, like most African countries, in the 1960s, 70s, and 80s, experienced severe political instability (series of military coups), which made it difficult to implement the reforms identified by Hope Sr. The disruptions by non-democratic administrations (military coups in 1966, 1972, 1979, and 1982) in Ghana's political history and the absence of well defined national policy for development have affected progress in this regard. For example, any time there is a military administration, the programs by civilian governments are abandoned, while a change in civilian administration tends to reject previous administration's projects and political ideology.

According to Hood, the politically neutral framework of NPM also allows many different values to be effectively incorporated into management reforms. Among the most commonly emphasized values in NPM are sigma-type values, which "match resources to defined tasks" and, in doing so, promote frugality (Hood1991: 12). Due to its incorporation of private sector management practices, NPM also emphasizes private sector values including efficiency, effectiveness, quality, responsiveness, empowerment, innovation, and entrepreneurialism (Hope Sr. 2001; Pollitt 2002; Sindane 2004). These values associated with the private sector suffered under the various military regimes in Ghana. For example, in the 1982 military coup, led by Flight Lieutenant Jerry John Rawlings, the properties of some private companies were confiscated while others were sold through the military government's divestiture programs.^{vi} Some scholars have expressed concerns that the values NPM promotes, however, may not be mutually exclusive or universal. Indeed, Gray and Jenkins (1995:86) claim that the values underlying NPM are inherently in conflict, due to the conflicting values of the political ideologies on which it draws. They argue that this conflict can be seen in different conceptualizations of "a seemingly common reform strategy, decentralization," as either administrative decentralization or political decentralization, "each leading to different frameworks of analysis and offering differing

structural solutions.” Such different conceptualizations are what have affected the lack of development in Ghana.

Public Administration and Public Management: Comparative Analysis

Although public administration and public management are distinct concepts as discussed above, they are not mutually exclusive (Hope Sr. 2001). Indeed, there are numerous differences and similarities between public administration and NPM; however, they are sometimes used interchangeably. The following section attempts to examine some similarities and differences.

Similarities: Political and Public Administrators

It would not be out of place if one argues against the claim that public administration is both political and public. “Public administrators are, after all, public servants” (Diver, as cited in Terry 1998:197). So how do education and training given to public administrators and managers create awareness of Diver’s argument, that public administrators are servants, given the Ghanaian traditional understanding the role of public officials who are mostly referred to, and seen as *Honorables*? Advocates of NPM claim that it is ‘apolitical’ or politically neutral due to its acceptance of the politics-administration dichotomy and its corresponding separation of political responsibilities from managerial responsibilities. Nevertheless, both public administration and NPM are inherently political and public; everything is about politics in Ghana. For one to be an effective administrator, one has to understand the administrative and political processes. Here, the role of GIMPA and other tertiary institutions become essential. The education and training provided must not only focus on the theoretical understanding of public administration, but also incorporate the idea that public officials are elected or appointed to serve the people in the interest of the public.

Public administration and NPM both focus – or at least claim to focus – on promoting the public welfare, although they conceptualize the public welfare differently as a result of their different underlying values and definitions. As such, both public administration and NPM are concerned with “politics of the most fundamental sort . . . the politics of fulfilling, maintaining, and enhancing the character of the regime,” an undertaking which is in and of itself *public* (Cook 1998: 229). In addition, Moe posits that “all reports on government organization and management have as the basis some theory about the nature of government and about the management of that government” and, as such, are political and public (as cited in Gray and Jenkins 1995:75).

Furthermore, both public administration and NPM are concerned with administration and management that, in practice, is carried out by public organizations, which “are controlled predominantly by political forces . . . [such] political control is the essence of *publicness*” (Boyne 2002:98-99). Thus, public administration and NPM are inherently political and public in that both seek to define the proper role of administration and management in the public sector. In Ghana, questions of who gets what, when, and how depends on the type of leadership and political party in power, though all political parties claim to work in the interest of public at large.

Taken together, these points insinuate that, regardless of whether NPM is regarded as neutral or ‘apolitical’ by its advocates, NPM is, in fact, both political and public. NPM’s prescriptions, which seek to answer political questions in terms of enhanced efficiency, in an attempt to promote the public welfare, are carried out in a political and public context, making both administration and management political instrument for development. Moreover, NPM’s conceptualization of the proper role of the administrative state should be rooted in agreed-upon values and political ideologies of the government of Ghana, which are central in determining the

proper role of public administration and public management as a political instrument. For this reason, Cook (1998: 227) insists that: “An understanding of an appreciation of the inescapable fact of public administration’s character as a political institution and its complex implications should be the foundation of the administrative enterprise. It should stand at the center of the conception of the public manager’s job.” The political and public aspects of NPM need to be further embraced to ensure that public administrators and managers act as public servants, especially given the fact that “[p]ublic entrepreneurs of the neo-managerialist persuasion only exacerbate the problem because the theories embedded in neo-managerialism are incapable of entertaining any notion of the public interest” (Terry 1998:198). The following sections examine the differences between public administration and public management.

Differences: The Impasse; Public Administration and NPM

Perhaps the most fundamental concern of public administration and NPM is how the relationship between the public and the private sector is perceived. This difference sees “[t]he boundary between the public . . . [and] private sector[s] . . . has a crucial importance in the understanding [of] the future course of public administration” (Leonina-Emilia and Ioan 2010: 1022). Where this boundary is drawn has implications concerning the management practices, values, and accountability systems that can appropriately be applied in the public interest. In Ghana, it is not uncommon to argue that some of the administrative decisions and policies implemented are not seen to be in the interest of the public. Public administration is based on the presumption that, while there are similarities between the public and private sectors, they are “fundamentally alike in all unimportant respects” (Sayre, as cited in Boyne 2002: 98). With my understanding of public administration, the public sector is characterized by several peculiarities – most notably that the public sector is *publically owned* and *publically accountable* since its

operations are funded via taxation and is also concerned with the *public good* (Boyne 2002; Rimington 2009 and Sindane 2004). These peculiarities cause the public and private sectors to be fundamentally different with respect to their environments, goals, structures, and values (Boyne 2002).

As such, advocates of public administration claim that these fundamental differences should inhibit the blind application of private sector practices in the public sector (Boyne 2002; Chandler 1991; Sindane 2004). It is not uncommon that public officials do not know their exact role as public administrators; therefore education and training for public administrators and managers by tertiary institutions must incorporate in their curricula a pragmatic approach in ensuring the courses offered are not solely theory-based but a blend of theory and practice. Education and training for public administrators are crucial in Ghana since administrators need to understand how the traditional system functions within the modern political system: Democracy.

As a result “[r]ecent management reforms have recognized the interdependency between the public and private sectors . . . [and] are clarifying the boundary between the two” (Kaul 1997:21). NPM blurs – and, according to some scholars (Kim 2007; Pollitt 2002), erodes or eliminates – the distinction between the public sector and the private sector, due to its incorporation of private management practices and reliance on privatization, contractual relationships, and public/private partnerships. The adoption of private sector management practices “was one of the earliest features of NPM, and remains one of the most enduring,” demonstrating the centrality of the blurred distinction between the public and private sectors and the re-clarification of public-private boundaries in NPM (Boyne 2002:97). Critics of NPM identify this blurred distinction and consequential removal of traditional barriers as the fundamental flaw of NPM, arguing, in the spirit of public administration, that the distinction

between the public and private sectors is too great to allow for the adoption of private sector management practices in the public sector (Boyne 2002; Riccucci 2001; Sindane 2004), but the practices in the private sector could be adopted in improving the public sector. We should remind ourselves that the main focus of the private sector is profit while the public sector maintains provision of service to its clientele.

Researchers have examined whether there are fundamental differences between the public and private sectors that should inhibit the application of private sector practices. For instance, Boyne (2002) tested thirteen hypotheses concerning the supposed differences between public management and private management by analyzing 34 studies of the public and private sectors. Boyne found that statistically significant distinctions do exist between the two sectors – specifically, that “public organizations are more bureaucratic, public managers are less materialistic, and organizational commitment is weaker in the public sector” – but concluded that these differences are too “narrow and uncertain [of a] foundation for rejecting the element of NPM that seeks to draw lessons from the private sector” (116). Boyne’s conclusions play squarely into the Ghanaian public attitude toward public sector workers. Through education and training public administrators and managers’ commitment in the public sector would increase productivity. Unfortunately, the Ghanaian public official is not only overly bureaucratic, but far more materialistic.

Boyne’s findings, however, are not widely accepted especially in Ghana, which is illustrated by the continued persistence of some scholars to point to the distinctiveness of the public sector from the private sector (see Rimington 2009; Sindane 2004). One can hardly argue that the public and private sectors are completely distinct – indeed, “there are great similarities between private and public organizations in as far as administration is a cooperative group effort”

– but in adopting private sector management practices, one cannot lose sight of the fact that “the purposes or goals of human [public] and material [private] organizations vary and . . . that it is the cardinal principle of democratic government that public servants be *guided by public opinion*” (Sindane 2004: 671). Furthermore, although Boyne (2002) notes that the sample of studies is “sufficiently large to allow the broad effects of *publicans* to emerge,” he, however, cautions that “it would be inappropriate to draw definitive conclusions on the differences between public and private organizations from the available evidence” due to the methodological defects in many of the studies (105). Thus, despite findings, which suggest the public and private sectors are not fundamentally different, it should come as no surprise that this continues to be a topic of research and debate in public administration and public management. The public sector (government) provides the basic infrastructure, which benefits the public including the private sector. In Ghana, the activities of the public sector are not inherently different from the private sector, as the two sectors seem to supplement each other. For example, private cocoa farmers rely on the assistance of government or public resources for supplies to improve productivity.

Values. Another fundamental difference between public administration and NPM is related to the values that are espoused in theory and practice. This difference has been widely recognized and is viewed by advocates of public administration as concerning. As such, “[t]here has . . . been extensive discussion of the shifting set of values that underlies the transition from traditional public administration to the new public management” (Gray and Jenkins 1995:76). The “different administrative values have different implications for fundamental aspects of administrative design – implications that go beyond altering the ‘settings’ of the systems” (Hood, 1991:9); in part, because the emphasis on certain values may result in ignoring other critical values, which may have a dramatic impact on the ability of public administration and public

management to improve the public welfare. In Ghana, more often than not, most public policies are implemented without any explanation to the citizens. This, I argue, could be due to the lack of proper education and training for public administrators and managers.

As noted earlier, public administration is more likely to emphasize lambda-type values, theta-type values, and political values, whereas NPM emphasizes sigma-type values and private sector values. NPM reforms are based on a return to the politics-administration dichotomy and are therefore considered to be 'apolitical' or neutral, which insinuates that these reforms "improve the public sector without offending traditional values" (Gray and Jenkins 1995:81). NPM's emphasis on sigma-type values and private sector values, however, can be more appropriately understood not only as "[a] shift in value priorities away from universalism, equity, security and resilience and towards efficiency and individualism" (Pollitt 2002:474) but also as "a major challenge to the traditions and values of the public service" (Kaul 1997:15) and "unhesitatingly hostile to the values of traditional public sector professionals" (Gray and Jenkins 1995:81).

Thus, it is not surprising that NPM regards the private sector values of efficiency, effectiveness, quality, and responsiveness as more important than the political values of accountability, probity, fairness, justice, representation, participation, and due process, which are at the heart of public administration. Furthermore, NPM's emphasis on sigma-type values may cause NPM reforms to "be less capable of ensuring honesty [theta-type values] and resilience [lambda-type values] in public administration" (Hood 1991: 15). It follows that "the traditional bureaucratic paradigm of public administration has proven to be much more responsive to democratic values than has the revisionists' new, customer-oriented managerialism" (Ricucci 2001:172). These reforms and differences must not only be seen as part of the theoretical discussion in the courses offered, but must have pragmatic impact on public administration and

managers in this way common values in the public interest can be identified.

Although public administration and NPM differ in their underlying values, there is a need for advocates of both public administration and public management to recognize the importance of morality as a primary value in the interest of the public. Viewed in this way, public administration's emphasis on equity and NPM's on efficiency and economy (the 'three Es') should be considered secondary values "that only have merit worthy of pursuit if affixed to some more primary value" – in this case, morality (Chandler 1991: 390). According to Chandler, without morality as the primary value, the 'three Es' "can lead to ethical difficulties, which not only may be objectionable in themselves, but can also undermine the whole enterprise" (390). Whereas public administration's emphasis on theta-type values and democratic values promotes the reliance on morality as a primary value, NPM's emphasis on sigma-type values and private sector values cannot be as easily linked to the reliance on morality as a primary value: Profit at all cost.

Accountability. How accountability is ensured represents another fundamental difference between public administration and NPM in Ghana. The accountability systems associated with public administration and NPM vary due to different conceptualizations of the division between the public and private sectors, different underlying values (profit vs. service) that result in different organizational structures, and different conceptions of the role of the public. The differences surrounding the accountability systems of public administration and NPM merit further discussion regarding education and training in Ghana because accountability systems must be appropriate to ensure that the public sector is fulfilling its purpose of providing service for the public welfare.

Unfortunately, in Ghana, given its democratic understanding and process of appointing public officials, public administrators and managers are directly accountable “to the president, not customers of government agencies, for the execution of the laws of the land” (Ricucci 2001: 172). Thus, it is through elected officials that public administrators and managers are indirectly accountable to the citizens. Accountability is proactively promoted through control mechanisms such as bureaucratic structures, policies and procedures (Boyne, 2002). In sum, “traditional visions of public service . . . place administrators as [proactively and retroactively] accountable to the public through the *political system*” (Gray and Jenkins 1995: 92).

In Ghana, the accountability systems of public administration are not effective in the NPM framework due to decentralization and the devolution of resource control. The question of decentralization in Ghana tends to favor the well to do districts in the country. Indeed, “[t]he relatively simple notion of the formal elected representative holding the bureaucracy accountable for delivering goods and services is less viable within this framework;” decentralization (Kelly 1998: 205). Instead, accountability is maintained primarily through performance measurement and the empowerment of citizens as customers. Given the fact that public administrators and public managers are granted increased authority through NPM reforms, it is essential that they are held accountable; again, the education and training provided in our tertiary institutions for public administrators and managers must emphasize on accountability to ensure continues performance of public officials. Monitoring performance is important in continually improving the provision of goods and services in an effort to improve the public welfare. It is also necessary to ensure accountability in an environment of delegated authority characterized by contracting, privatization, and the devolution of resource control with “[a]uthority . . . explicitly delegated to senior officials in exchange for accountability for performance” (Kaul 1997: 20). As such,

performance measurement should effectively promote accountability in the NPM framework and this can be achieved through education and training of public administrators and public managers.

Public Administration Education and Training and Traditional Administration in Ghana

The lenses used to scrutinize public administration and management in Ghana tend to ignore the role of traditional administrative practices, let alone lack of adequate education and training for those leaders, like chiefs and community leaders in the traditional administrative authority. The administrative practices in Ghana would better be understood with a deepened appreciation if the various perspectives (traditional and democracy) were looked at together and synthesized, instead of wholly importing the administrative systems of other societies with very little or no understanding of how they operate (Ayttey 2005). To Haruna (2013), tertiary institutions such as GIMPA must provide education and training for administrators within the context of the Ghanaian social, cultural, and political environment. For example, any solitary approach to examining a phenomenon tends to miss critical aspects of what is to be studied. The Anglo-American understanding of administrative theories tends to either reject or ignore presence of the traditional and chieftaincy administrative systems in Ghana (Antwi-Boasiako and Bonna 2012). The theoretical understanding of the classical public administration literature does not usually translate to the practice of administration in Ghana, since it does not incorporate the Ghanaian culture, or the traditional system, which is unknown to the proponents of these theories.

For example, pre-colonial traditional Ghanaian administrative practices do not separate religion from public administration and public management. Any in-depth understanding of administration needs epistemic pluralism, which is the amalgamation of different perspectives of the multiplicity for administrative data analyses. For instance, would the classical administrative

theories even consider traditional Ghanaian administrative practices? This pluralism, along with other related questions not asked here, is what must be considered as the theoretical framework of administration to address domestic needs as one develops educational training for public administrators and managers in Ghana. The 1992 Constitution of Ghana acknowledges the role and importance of traditional institutions in the country; therefore, any effective educational training for public administrators and managers must incorporate the traditional chieftaincy administrative heads as partners in development in the interest of the public. There are attempts by some of the tertiary institutions in the country, such as GIMPA and UGSB, to provide public administration education and training for academics and practitioners through their programs, but such education is not extended to traditional leaders.

Since the 1960s, Ghana has been steadily increasing its proportion of the limelight in African and world affairs. However, governance and political administration in the country, some studies^{vii} have affirmed, has been on the decline since independence in 1957. It is often easier to document and discuss the collapse of public administration and governance in postcolonial Ghana. There is a “complex notion of subalternity pertinent to any academic enterprise, which concerns itself with historically determined relationships of dominance and subordinations” (Gandhi 1998: 2). Ayee (2000) refers to such phenomenon as proclivity for experimentation or laboratories for investigation. It is good to question or challenge assumptions or classical public administration theories to effect change as noted by Farmer (2010), who insists, “radical change is needed in the way that we conceptualize the role and nature of *political/administrative theory*” (Farmer 1995: 4). To expand on Farmer’s claims, one could argue that Ghana’s pre-colonial traditional administrative system, which focuses mainly in the developments at the local level, has been ignored in public administration education training in the country, despite the efforts of

tertiary institutions to train public administrators. Though many studies (Ayittey 2005 and Danso 2007) have criticized the failures of public administration, leadership, and governance in Ghana, very little has been done to the deconstruction and constructing of theories to advance and effect positive change through public education and training. Given a postmodernist approach of reinventing government for effective performance and efficiency, there is every reason to re-examine the pitfalls of postcolonial political administration in Ghana from a critical theoretical and pragmatic perspective, where education and training are embraced in all formal educational institutions in the country. In an attempt to develop a blueprint for Ghana to address a political structure that encourages development, Ghana must develop a national policy that would be followed by all governments regardless of which political party may be in power.

Conclusion

Public administration and management are both concerned with effective government and governance; however, they are distinct theories and practices that are rooted in different theoretical foundations and, because of this, define ‘effectiveness’ differently. There are similarities between public administration and NPM – most notably that they are both essentially political and public due to their focus on government and governance. Nevertheless, there are also important differences between public administration and NPM regarding whether a fundamental distinction between the public and private sectors exists, which values are of the most importance in promoting effective government and governance, and how accountability to the public is to be ensured. This can be achieved through education and training for public administrators and managers including traditional leaders. Since, Ghana’s Fourth Republic 1992-Constitution recognizes the role of traditional institutions, education and training must consider

incorporating the traditional administrative system in national affairs, at least at the regional and district levels (Antwi-Boasiako and Bonna 2012).

To ensure effective government and governance, there is the need for public administration education and training in Ghana. Fortunately, there are tertiary institutions that have incorporated public administration education and training in their curricula, especially GIMPA and UGSB. Academically, as Haruna (2013) noted, GIMPA has provided the platform to educate and train public administrators and managers. However, the impact of the education and training provided to public officials for effective governance is yet to be realized by the governed. GIMPA and UGSB, despite their impressive curricula, are said to be responding to international pressure to the neglect of addressing domestic issues. Haruna (2013: 509) therefore suggests “a nominative comprehensive curricular” through informed pragmatic local and foreign political conditions as “basis for developing a true global curriculum of public affairs education and training.” It is not clear, however, that the impact of education and training provided by the tertiary institutions had had any lasting impact on public administrators and managers - but one thing is certain: led by GIMPA and UGSB, Ghana continues to provide platforms through universities to improve the quality of education and training for its public administrators and managers.

References

- Ackroyd, S. 1995. From administration to public sector management: Understanding contemporary change in British public services. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 8 (2) 19-32.
- Adu, A. L. 1965. *The civil service in the new African states*. London, UK G. Allen Unwin.
- Antwi-Boasiako, Kwame B. 2010. Public administration: Local government and decentralization in Ghana. *Journal of African Studies and Development* 2 (7) 166-75.
- Antwi-Boasiako, Kwame B, and Bonna, Okyere. 2012. *Traditional institutions and public administration in democratic Africa*. (Revised ed). NC, Okab Publishing.
- Antwi-Boasiako, Kwame B. 2014. The transatlantic relationship: From oppression to hopes of partnership. In *Transatlantic relations and modern diplomacy: An interdisciplinary examination*, eds. Sudeshna Roy, Dana Cooper, and Brian M. Murphy, 114-124. New York, Routledge.
- Antw-Boasiako, Kwame B. 2014b. Public Administration, Decentralization, and Elections in Africa: Ghana, a case study. In *The Theories of Decentralization and Local Government Implementation, Implications, and Realities: A Global Perspective*, eds. Kwame Badu Antwi-Boasiako and Peter Csanyi: 274-295
- Ayee, J.R.A. 2000. *Decentralization and good governance in Ghana*. Unpublished paper of May 2000 prepared for the Canadian High Commission, Accra, Ghana.
- Ayee, J.R.A. 2002. The Balance Sheet of Decentralization in Ghana. In F. Saito (Ed.), *Foundation for Local Governance Decentralization in Comparative Perspective*. Physica-Verlag, A springer Company, 233-258
- Ayee, J.R.A. 2004. Introduction: Local Governance and Democratic Decentralization in Africa. In D. Olowu, & J. Swunsch, *Local Governance in Africa The Challenges of Democratic Decentralization*. Lynne Rienner, 1-28
- Ayittey, George B.N. (1992). *Africa betrayed*. New York St. Martin's Press.
- Ayittey, George B.N. 2005. *Africa Unchained: The blueprint for Africa's future*. New York, Palgrave
- Behn, R. D. 1998. What right do public managers have to lead? *Public Administration Review*, 58(3), 209-24.
- Betley, M., A. Bird, and A. Ghartey. 2012. Evaluation of public financial management reform in Ghana 2001-2010: Final country case study Report. <http://www.oecd.org/countries/ghana/ghana.pdf> (accessed 4/18/2014).

- Boyne, G. A. 1996. The intellectual crisis in British public administration: Is public management the problem or the solution? *Public Administration*, 74(4), 679-94.
- Boyne, G. A. 2002. Public and private management: What's the difference? *Journal of Management Studies*, 39 (1), 97-122.
- Chandler, J. A. 1991. Public administration and private management. Is there a difference? *Public Administration*, 69 (3), 385-391.
- Cook, B. J. 1998. Politics, political leadership, and public management. *Public Administration Review*, 58(3): 225-230.
- Croft, R. A. 2008. *American public administration: Public service for the 21st Century*. New York, NY: Pearson: Longman.
- Danso, K. A. 2007. *Leadership concepts and the role of government in Africa: The case of Ghana*. Indiana, Xlibris Press.
- Farmer, D. J. 1995. *The language of public administration: bureaucracy, modernity, and postmodernity*. Tuscaloosa, AL: The University of Alabama Press.
- Farmer, D. J. 2010. *Public administration in perspective: Theory and practice through multiple lenses*. Armonk, New York. M.E. Sharpe.
- Gandhi, Leela 1998. *Postcolonial theory: A critical introductions*. New York Columbia University Press.
- Gavshon, Arthur (1981). *Crisis in Africa: Battleground of east and west*. New York, Penguin Books.
- Gheorghe, I. 2012. Weberian public administration versus new public management in Eastern Europe: The case of Romania. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 35(10): 695-702.
- Gray, A. & Jenkins, B. 1995. From public administration to public management: Reassessing a revolution? *Public Administration*, 73(1), 75-99.
- Haruna, P. F. 2003. Reforming Ghana's public service: Issues and experiences in comparative perspective. *Public Administration Review* 63 (3): 343-354.
- Haruna, P. F. 2004. Training public administrators in Africa: A case study of civil service employees in Ghana. *International Journal of Public Administration*. 27 (3-4): 171-95.
- Haruna, P. F. and Kannae, L. A. 2013. Connecting good governance principles to the public affairs curriculum: The case of Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 19 (3): 493-514.

- Haruna, P.F. and Kannae 2013b. Implementing good governance reform in Ghana. Issues and experiences with local governance. In *Public Administration in Africa*. Eds. Shikha Vyas-Doorgapersad, Tshombe Lukamba-Muhiya, and Ernest Preparah Ababio, pp. 135-150. CRC Press, New York.
- Henry, Nicholas 2010. *Public administration and public affairs* (11th ed). New York, New York, Longman.
- Hood, C. 1991. A public management for all seasons? *Public Administration*, 69(1), 3-19.
- Hope, Sr., K. R. 2001. The new public management: context and practice in Africa. *International Public Management Journal* 4:119–134.
- Hunt, G. J. J. 2008. The importance on management theory to the public service. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 10(1) 398-416.
- Jacobs, C. 1990. Training for change in the Ugandan civil service, *Public Administration and Development*, 10: 315-30.
- Jones, M. 1990. Efficiency and effectiveness in an African public administration context, *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 3: 58-64.
- Jreisat, J. 2010. Comparative public administration and Africa. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 76(4), 612-631.
- Kaboolian, L. 1998. The new public management: Challenging the boundaries of the management vs. administration debate. *Public Administration Review*, 58(3), 189-193.
- Kaul, M. 1997. The new public administration: Management innovations in government. *Public Administration and Development*, 17(1), 13-26.
- Kelly, R. M. 1998. An inclusive democratic polity, representative bureaucracies, and the new public management. *Public Administration Review*, 58(3), 201-208.
- Kerrigan, J. E. and Luke, J. S. 1989. Public administration education and training in the third world: Problems and opportunities. *Review of Policy Research*, 8: 904–12.
- Kim, P. S. 2007. Emerging challenges to the public capacity in the era of evolving public administration: Toward collaborative public management. *Asian Journal of Political Science*, 15(3), 282-302.
- King S. M, Chilton B.S. 2009. *Administration in the public interest: Principles, policies, and practices*. Durham, North Carolina, Carolina Academic Press.
- Kirk-Greene, A. H. 1969. Administrative training in Africa: The Northern Nigerian experience and beyond. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 2 (2): 20-22.
- Kolisnichenko, Natalya. 2006. National Organizational Arrangements For Delivering Public

Administration Education And Training. Odessa Regional Institute of Public Administration, National Academy of Public Administration, Office of the President of Ukraine <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un-dpadm/unpan034310.pdf> (accessed April 22, 2014).

- Leonina-Emilia, S. & Ioan, L. 2010. The public administration compared to public management and other sciences. *Annals of the University of Oradea: Economic Science Series*, 19(2), 1020-1024.
- Lynn, L. E. 1998. The new public management: How to transform a theme into a legacy. *Public Administration Review*, 58(3): 231-237.
- Okereke, O. and Mereni, J.I. 1985. Cooperative education and training at the grassroots in Nigeria, *Public Administration and Development*, 5: 219-33.
- Pollitt, C. 2002. Clarifying convergence: Striking similarities and durable differences in public management reform. *Public Management Review*, 4(1): 471-492.
- Riccucci, N. M. 2001. The “old” public management versus the “new” public management: Where does public administration fit in? *Public Administration Review*, 61(2): 172-175.
- Rimington, J. 2009. Public management and administration: A need for evolution. *The Political Quarterly*, 80 (4): 562-568.
- Schachter, H. L. 2007. Does Frederick Taylor’s ghost still haunt the halls of government? A look at the concept of governmental efficiency in our time. *Public Administration Review* 67(5): 800-810.
- Sindane, A. M. 2004. Public administration versus public management: parallels, divergences, convergences and who benefits? *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 70(4), 665-672.
- Starling, G. 1998. *Managing the public sector 5th ed.* New York, NY: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Stillman II, R. J. 2010. *Public administration: Concepts and cases* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.
- Terry, L. D. 1998. Administrative leadership, neo-managerialism, and the public management movement. *Public Administration Review*, 58(3): 194-200.
- Wingo, O.T. 1937. Training for public administration. *Journal of Higher Education* 8 (2) 84.

Endnotes

ⁱ There are several objectives, which are not discussed. This article limits itself to two main objectives: Education and Training.

ⁱⁱ It is not uncommon for government appointees to be reject by citizenry: The basic argument for the rejection is that those individuals and incompetent and lack managerial skills to govern (see *Rejection Galore at DCE Elections* at <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/regional/artikel.php?ID=279836>. Retrieved on November 18, 2014

ⁱⁱⁱ See *Classics of Public Administration* 6th ed. by Jay M. Shafritz and Albert C. Hyde 2004. This is a collection of some classical writings, which provide some foundations for public administration

^{iv} The end date (year) of the John Mahama is not provided because he was still the president of Ghana at the time writing this article.

^v See Haruna, Peter F. and Lawrence A. Kanna, "Connecting good governance principles to the public affairs curriculum: The case of Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration," *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 19, 3:480-93.

^{vi} There are a number of published articles in the Ghanaian print media indicating how governments over the years have discouraged economic growth by the private enterprises. See for example, "Where is the hand of President Mahama in this?" Retrieved on December 23, 2014 from

<http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel.php?ID=339722> See also Dr. Akada Mensema "All Die be Die Ewe/North Elites tell JJ to apologize" Retrieved on December 23, 2014 from <http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel.php?ID=304118>