

THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

Supply and Demand Sides of Public Service Delivery in Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia

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Abstract:

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The citizen's standard of living and consciousness is demanding effective service delivery which needs appropriate response from both Demand and Supply sides within this ever growing demanding society World. Service effectiveness on the side of government is mandatory to create sustainable public trust. The study was focused on the supply and demand sides of service delivery in National Regional State of Oromia conducted on two purposely selected towns namely, Shashemene and Haromaya. The principal objective of the research is to explore the regional sectors effectiveness of service delivery from both supply and demand sides. The study analyzed the supply side from the perspective of implementation capacity of organizations and the demand side focused on four dimensions - transparency, accountability, responsiveness, and voicing mechanisms. Both qualitative and quantitative research designs were used to conduct the study. To collect the primary data, survey questionnaire has been administered for 60 customers and 60 officers of government organizations (Health sector, Education sector, Social Service Sector, Land Administration, Water and Sewerage, Electric Power Service and Civil Service and Good Governance Offices). In addition, secondary data were collected from different public service providing organizations to elaborate the present situation and the existing gap. Accordingly, the result showed that the accountability and responsiveness dimensions were found to be the most important, while transparency and voicing mechanism were the least important factors contributed for the existed gap on demand side; and lack of implementing capacity on the supply side. With this finding, the study concluded that, there is significant gap between the actual service provision and demand; and expectation of the society which resulted in customer's dissatisfaction on the government organizations service delivery. Thus, it was recommended that, the government organizations needs to improve their effective service delivery in the entire dimensions, especially on accountability, responsiveness and capacity building.

Keywords: Demand side, supply side, service effectiveness, expectation, perception, customer's satisfaction

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

It is a fact that the public sector is the world's largest service provider and hence, any incremental improvement in public services positively impacts millions of people. The first step in delivering the customer promises is to know the customers and their needs (PSRC, 2005). However, improving public service delivery is one of the biggest challenges worldwide. Public services are a key determinant of quality of life that is not measured in per capita income. It is a particular challenge in Africa, given the low quality of service provision and the pressing needs of the poor.

Some of the public services delivered by the government of a nation are Public health and welfare programs, education, roads, research and development, national and domestic security, clean environment etc. And different terms have been used such as citizens, recipients, consumers, and users of services interchangeably to refer to the people who are supposed to receive and benefit from these services. Before delivering any of these services, it is necessary to design proper policies that match the public perception. The main tradition in the analysis of public service provision has been to study how people respond to policies and to gauge who are the beneficiaries from various public programs. And because of this, reforms in the public sector was necessitated aiming at improving service delivery have received considerable focus during the last decades. Moreover, global trends such as rising customer expectations, budgetary constraints, and global competition for investment, public sector reform programs and changing demographics have transformed the environment in which the public sector operates (PSRC, 2005). Thus, effective service delivery can be summarized as the relationship between policy makers, service providers, and consumers of those services and encompasses both services and their supporting systems.

In economic aspect the private sector provides private goods efficiently, and the public sectors are involved in providing public goods and services and uses taxes or subsidies to correct externalities. And it is argued that government intervention is needed to deliver public goods and services because of market failure. Market failure is “an economic term that encompasses a situation where, in any given market, the quantity of a product demanded by consumers does not equate to the quantity supplied by suppliers” (www.Ivestipedia.com). On the other hand, inequality, poverty, fraud, discrimination, bankruptcy, layoffs, high prices, and so on are not market failures (Labonte, 2010). While they are undesirable phenomena which may be valid targets of public policy, they are problems that either are not economic in nature, or do not meet the definition of economic inefficiency. There were historic evidences when great economic depressions had happened in America during 1929 – 1933 and 2008 – 2012 where government intervention was necessitated because of market failure. For such instances government interference was mandatory. Thus, in any nation (neoliberal state or developmental state or democratic developmental state) maximizing the supply and demand for public services should be taken as a critical issue.

There are a number of approaches applicable in public service delivery. The first one is the Traditional Public Administration (TPA) model that assumes the State as a sole provider of public service. But, in the contemporary world phenomena, especially in the case of developing countries this approach has got its limitations so that the state cannot provide the services alone due to administrative and a resource limitation which has been undermined by an increasing demand for the services associated with rapid population growth, urbanization and rural developments. Due to these, New Public Management (NPM) Theory has become in to figure by reforming TPA acknowledging the role of the private actors as a key player in the service delivery. This approach is in turn limited to address the involvement of other non-state actors, especially the community from the demand side. Accordingly, this problem calls for new governance approach that promote the role of non-state actors from broader dimension as the private sector and the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) from the supply side of the public service delivery and the community from the demand side of the public service.

Here the supply side represents multi-stake holders which involve in the production as well as the delivery of the public services. While the demand side refers citizens and their role in raising and articulating their need towards the performance of the public service providers with respect to access, service quality, appropriate time of the service delivery and holding the provider accountable for its poor performances. The demand and supply side interaction will be seen in the broader framework of the Principal-Agent Theory (PAT).

The whole matter of a PAT is all about the interaction among the principal and agents and its impact on the services delivery to the demand side (Awortwi, 2012). The PAT has got its foundation in an attempt to solve the agency risk. This happens when there exists a conflict of interest between the principal and the agent and when the acts or efforts of the principals towards fulfilling the interest of the agents are either unattainable or expensive in such a way that the principal costs much than the benefits to be obtained. Different literatures on the PAT used different entities as principal and agent based on their role in the reason of interaction among them. For instance, Gialmard (2010) has considered the public (citizens) as a principals and government bodies as agents. On the other hand, Amagoh (2009) has considered the government as a principal while contracting out some of its activities to private firms and the private sector as an agent while handling some activities outsourced by the public agencies.

Every citizen of a nation demands for better public services with expectations that transcend economic status, geographies and the different methods of funding, managing and delivering these services. However, there are observable demand-side public service delivery barriers which can be defined as determinants of use of public services that are not dependent on service delivery or direct price of those services. They include distance, education, opportunity cost, and cultural and social barriers. There is some evidence that these barriers are at least as important in determining access to services as the quality, volume, and price of services delivered by public services providers (Ensor and Cooper, 2004).

Moreover, public sector leaders around the world face a common set of challenges if their services are to meet the increased expectations of their citizens. And because of this, governments, civil society, and donors have become increasingly interested in the idea that citizens can contribute to improved quality of service delivery by holding policy makers and providers of services accountable (World Bank, 2012).

In Ethiopia, the authority to deliver services is heavily decentralized to regional and sub-regional levels and the government has been promoting civic engagement in the context of decentralization of authority to lower levels as an important policy instrument for addressing local needs effectively and situating the power for public service delivery closer to the people. Since 2001, regions have significantly devolved their service delivery functions to District level. At the root of the drive for decentralization is the need for ensuring effective and responsive public service delivery, with the aim of encouraging government responsiveness, citizen participation and greater accountability (UNDP, 2014).

Oromia Regional State is one of the regional states in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE). The Comprehensive Civil Service Reform Program (CSR) with several subprograms, such as service delivery, top management, human resource management, expenditure management and control and ethics, is one of those capacity building programs that have been widely under implementation in Oromia in particular and the country in general. Besides, Business Process Reengineering (BPR), the Balanced Scorecard (BSC); and Citizen Charter (CC) and Civil Service Army are among the reform tools that have been put in place to complement the major reform programs in the region.

1.2. Problem Statement

An effective state is crucial to provide quality public services for economic growth, poverty reduction, and social protection (World Bank 2013). However, in the case of most developing countries, the dissatisfaction in the provision or access to public services is

becoming persistent. Like most countries in the developing world, African countries have major difficulty in providing effective and equitable public services. Of which Ethiopia is a country with such difficulty for a number of decades as has been heard from government media and objective reality shows. There are several factors that have contributed to this phenomenon of which the fundamental problems are broadly related to lack of transparency, responsiveness and effective accountability mechanisms over services. The poor are usually excluded from participation in the design and oversight of the policies and programs that affect their lives. Moreover, the developing African countries have a problem of access to financial and human resources which limited the fulfillment of the demand for public services which has a significant contribution in improving the livelihood of citizens.

It is clear that, in public service delivery, the public suffer from informational asymmetries in which the service providers are more informed than the demanding society. Moreover, the information possessed by service providers often is not available, affecting their capacity to voice. Due to such problems, even there is a conflict of goals between the public and the service provider (the public agency). Government's restrictions on access to information on poor service delivery of public agencies or backward communication technologies can contribute for the existence of the information asymmetry.

However, focusing only on the supply side of the public service delivery doesn't make the sector more efficient, but also giving parallel attention to the demand side in which the service users request for improved public service delivery through better decision and actions by the state. According to the Kouzmin (2007), the influence of the demand side (the public needs) on the improvement in the public service delivery is basically determined by citizen's level of illiteracy in such a way their capacity to express the level of service and their demand. In other words, the lower ability of the public to voice and demand an improved public service may result in poor service delivery by the state or a service delivery that does not console with the need of the public.

Based on the above points, the primary research problem can be stated as:

Has much attention been given to the gap between Demand and Supply sides of Public Service Delivery by Service Providing Organizations and the Public administrators as a primary driver of effective public service delivery?

Secondary questions, which may arise from the above basic question, are:

1. What is the level of the public servants' capacity in providing effective service to the citizens?
2. What is the current status of transparency, accountability and voicing mechanisms in service providing bodies?
3. What is the major gap between supply and demand sides of public service delivery?
4. What is the remedial solution for the identified problems in supply and demand sides of public service delivery?

1.3. Review of Related Literature

1.3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, all issues addressed concerning Ethiopia are also directly related to Oromia Regional State as it is the largest part of the country. The region is found to be centre of socio-economic and political interaction of the country, all rules and regulations regarding civil service is first practiced in it. This chapter provides an overview of what the Ethiopian civil service system looks like, its origin and basic characteristics, the systems that the civil service is currently using, and the qualities of a competent civil service. Moreover, it assessed what literatures say about supply and demand sides of public service delivery in different aspects.

1.3.2. Overview of the Ethiopian Civil Service

In general, the origin of civil service dates back to the administrative system of traditional Chinese government, which gave its empire stability for hundreds of years and served as a model for the civil service system in Asia and the West (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2012c). Van de Walle and Scott (2009:8) state that serving the public is what makes the government visible to citizens for citizens are directly in line with the government through the services the government provides. According to UNPAN (2012:8), the first true bureaucracies came about due to the desire and commitment of governments to provide services by monitoring the flow of water and supervising the distribution of water in great river valleys like that of the Nile, the Tigris and Euphrates, the Indus and the Yellow River. In the millennia that have since passed, this remained the major task in the growing multiplicity of government functions.

Modernisation required governments to change or evolve new forms of institutional management and supervision, motivation and remuneration. Today, civil service can be described as a system that comprises functionally and structurally of interconnected components with specific characteristics and sets of rules (EROPA, 2004:5-25). These components usually include:

- Human resource management, training and development;
- A policy-formulating/implementing agency;
- Research and development in public administration;
- Strategies for change management;
- Enabling legislation and ethical standards
- Performance management and pay structure;
- Position classification;
- Basic employment qualifications;
 - Recruitment and selection processes;
 - Working conditions;
 - Employee and retirement benefits;
 - Gender and age range distribution;

- Civil service unions;
- Office deployment; and
- Civil service coverage

Apart from the civil service components as mentioned above, civil service can also be described in terms of being open and closed (Ramio & Salvador, 2004: 311). In a state where the civil service is open to its external environment and includes, for example, universities or professional training institutions, civil service posts remain open to people outside government. Therefore, in an open or position-based model of civil service, posts are filled through open competition between internal and external candidates and recruitment is allowed to mid-career jobs (Oda, 2009:100).

The civil service composition thus represents the type of society within which it is situated. A closed or career-based system allows only for those graduates of a specific civil service training school to enter that civil service. The system marks an elite group distinct from the rest of the society with a strong civil service ethos (Oda, 2009:100). An example of a civil service system model that explains both a closed and open system can be found in a number of countries around the world. Countries for example the United Kingdom (UK), New Zealand and Australia have a position-based system, while France, Belgium, Denmark and Norway have a career-based civil service system (OECD, 2008:4).

The civil service, by its nature, substantially varies among countries, policy sectors and levels of government (Van den Berg & Toonen, 2007:101). As discussed by Halligan (2003:195–211), external relationships of the civil service with the society and political executives, its internal features and patterns of change can be used as the basis for reviewing systems of civil service in different countries. According to this view, the patterns of change in the civil service may be seen in terms of its historical development, and its internal features are reflected in the civil service active participation in the process of public policy making and through the processes of job analysis and design, staffing, job security, reward structure and rules. Measures designed to gain greater influence over civil servants, the way and nature of civil service representativeness, and the significance of society relative to state institutions designate relationships of the civil service with its external environment. With regard to the civil service system explained above, it is clear that Ethiopia has a closed system. The closed career-based model, which the Ethiopian civil service system follows makes the standard of civil service appointment rigorous and allows for internal promotions and lifelong employment (Oda, 2009:100).

Regarding an open or closed system, Oszlak (2001:1) states that a civil service system implies a set of rules dealing with the conditions whereby the state ensures the availability of civil servants with the skills and attitudes to perform the tasks involved in discharging the role of civil society in society efficiently. According to UNPAN (2012:3–5), the characteristics of a competent civil service, include the following:

- merit-based and politically neutral appointments;
- well-structured, “right-sized”, and well-paid staff;
- accountable and professional services, free of corruption;
- relatively autonomous, responsive and representative institutions; and
- well-trained, performance-oriented staff within a relatively open system.

Governments today are structured in such a way that they comprise of civil servants with the ability and power to influence the formulation and execution of public policies (Xiaoqi, 2012:1) and whose behaviour in their relationships with politicians and the public is shaped by the same system (Horton, 2011:32). Governments, therefore, pre-require professionalization and the search for social responsiveness and societal support in the public policy process, which as a modernisation agenda, greatly influences dimensions of the policy capacity of the civil service system (Brans & Vancoppenolle, 2005:164, 175).

1.3.3. Origin and Characteristics of Civil Service in Ethiopia

The country of Ethiopia has its own distinctive institutional features and traditions that determine the functional and structural development and characteristics of its civil service. The making of its modern statehood goes back to “the mid-nineteenth century when different regions were gradually reintegrated to form the nucleus of a modern state by strong monarchs”. Of these monarchs, it was during the reign of Emperor Minilik II (1889–1914) that the modern administrative system in Ethiopia was established with the formation of the first cabinet on 25 October 1907 (Marcus, 1994:110). The cabinet comprised of ministries of war, justice, pen (performing duties and responsibilities related to state public relations), finance, commerce and foreign affairs, agriculture, public works, and the ministry of the imperial court (Zewdie, 1991:153). There was no specific administrative agency to deal with public human resources as the council was intended to strengthen the imperial foundation, expand the power of the sovereign and ensure the continuity of the imperial state (Zewdie, 1991:153). The ministers were members of the Emperor’s trusted advisors and confidants. They were not up to date enough to run the modern ministerial agencies as they lacked proper education and training in modern public administration other than war-time and traditional leadership skills. A year later, in achieving these objectives, the Emperor introduced, among others, the first educational institution in his name Minilik II School in the capital city, Addis Ababa (Adejumobi, 2007:33).

The last monarch after Emperor Minilik, Hailesilassie I, also pushed forward the agenda “to educate the elite as he believed that the effect of education would transform his feudal empire into a modern state” (Marcus, 1994:160). He attempted to strengthen the national government by introducing a new generation of educated Ethiopians into new and enlarged ministries. The first written Constitution for Ethiopia was introduced and a bicameral legislature with a senate and a chamber of deputies was established for the first time in the history of the country during the reign of Emperor Hailesilassie in 1931 (Adejumobi, 2007:54). This and the revised Constitution of 1955 provided for the establishment and growth of ministries to execute new state policies. The Emperor was both head of state and government with all powers to decide upon the duties and responsibilities of the ministries, appoint and dismiss

ministers and their deputies. The personnel administration of all other government officials was dealt with through regulations made by the cabinet and approved and proclaimed by the Emperor (Hailesilassie 1955:11).

The Emperor also introduced major structural reforms that included professionalization of the bureaucracy, and ordered for the establishment of the first administrative agency, the Central Personnel Agency (CPA), responsible for governing the state civil service with general rules and regulations, and entrusted with the most technical work of personnel administration (Paulos, 2001:80). The agency regulated the recruitment and selection of personnel for employment, promotion and transfer that took place through competitive examination (Paulos, 2001: 85). The agency also kept personnel records of all employees in the civil service. It planned, organised and carried out training programmes for all levels of the civil service through seminars, conferences, lectures, and correspondence courses (Afework, 1969:75). The training programmes were conducted by the Imperial Ethiopian Institute of Public Administration (IEIPA), an institution established to organise the CPA and to support the civil servants with training as the need arose (Afework, 1969:82). Both agencies were poorly staffed with educated personnel, and rules and regulations approved to process major functions that were related to human resource management were frequently abused by the ministers and other high officials (Afework, 1969:64-74).

With the end to the imperial administration in 1974, the political system and economic structure of Ethiopia were dramatically changed towards a socialist system where the activities of the country were to be guided through a central plan (Ofcansky, 2004:163). Consequently, a planning commission, later the Office of the National Council for Planning (ONCCP) chaired by the head of state, Colonel Mengistu Hailemariam, was given the power and responsibility to prepare the directives, strategies and procedures for all plans (Ofcansky, 2004:163). The human resource plan and implementing procedures were, thus, made and approved, by the Office of National Council for Planning (ONCP). The agency recruited graduates from colleges and universities into the civil service and most bureaucrats who had served the Emperor were allowed to remain at their posts. Army officers were appointed in every ministry to monitor activities of the bureaucrats. Yekatit 66, an ideological school named after the month (*Yekatit*, which means February in the English language), and 66 (which indicates the year 1966 in the Ethiopian calendar when a change in regime occurred), was established in 1976 to train people in the civil service in the Marxist-Leninist doctrine and to encourage and monitor their political education and productivity (Ofcansky, 2004:231-236).

The imperial CPA was also renamed the Public Service Commission (PSC) with a new organisational structure (MCS, 2007:14). It was, however, highly politicised to the extent that it routinely by-passed the basic laws it established to support its own system (Taffesse, 2008:397). The ADB (2009:4) reports that the quality of the Ethiopian public administration during the times of both the imperial and military regimes was characterised by “a highly centralized and control oriented civil service”. Ministers in both regimes were responsible for every act done in their respective ministerial administrative agencies. Employees’ arbitrary dismissal, punishment without inquiry and promotion without competition, irrespective of personnel administrative rules and regulations, were common features in all ministries.

1.3.4. Role and Function of the Ethiopian Civil Service

The civil service is in charge of carrying out functions, which usually involve proposing or advising on public policy issues, coordination and monitoring of their implementation, and the management of training for civil servants (Trendafilova, 2008:2). A civil service has four main functions, namely “advising government ministers on policy matters; managing the use of government resources; making decisions in the name of their ministers; and carrying out the day-to-day administration of government departments” (Pilkington, 1999:2). In performing such functions, a professional civil service system relies upon mechanisms and institutions that are able to set up and assure the application of best public personnel management practices. Accordingly, a consolidated institutional arrangement for regulation and supervision of the personnel management in the Ethiopian civil service is defined in primary legislation of HPR. This function of the civil service in the federal state involves the relationship and division of roles between an administrative agency with central civil service management capacity, the Ministry of Civil Service (MCS), and other individual ministries responsible for employing and administering civil servants in their jurisdictions.

The MCS is accountable to the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers and has the power and duty, among others, to:

- ❖ initiate civil service policies and laws, prepare its plans and budgets, to implement these upon approval by the Council of Ministers or parliament as required, and to ensure their enforcement;
- ❖ undertake study and research, and capacity building activities;
- ❖ provide assistance and advice to regional states, and provide coordinated support to the state designated eligible for affirmative support;
- ❖ ensure that the recruitment and selection of employees of the federal civil service are effectively based on a merit system, and that a competence- and
- ❖ performance-related pay and reward system and a competent and effective civil service be established;
- ❖ monitor and ensure the proper enforcement of civil service administrative laws since every ministry is responsible for the recruitment of its employees and the MCS plays the role of a regulatory body in such recruitment processes by the individual ministries; and
- ❖ issue general criteria on education and work experience necessary for civil service positions.

Each ministry in the Ethiopian Council of Ministers is expected to submit periodic performance reports to parliament after the head of government and the council have gone through it. It is the duty of civil servants to prepare such and other ministerial briefs. The civil service plays a major role in helping the ministry for which he or she works to initiate policies and laws, carrying out and coordinating their execution, and guiding legislations through parliament. Each ministry of the country has common powers and duties, among

others, to undertake capacity building activities, commence studies and research, and collect, compile and disseminate information. Each ministry also has specific powers and duties pertinent to its need for establishment, to initiate policies and laws, prepare plans and budgets, and implement these after approval by parliament or the Council of Ministers as required. Linking to this are public policy and law making, two important aspects in Ethiopia.

1.3.5. Public Policy and Law Making in Ethiopia

Generally, policy making is the process by which governments translate their political vision into programmes and actions to deliver desired change (ICS, 2008:4). Anderson (2011:3) describes policies developed by governmental bodies and officials as “public policies”. What makes these policies ‘public’ (Brikland, 2001:4) is the coercive powers of the state that facilitate the process by which choices and outcomes or actions of particular decisions are made. Public policy, for Brikland, is therefore a response to a perceived societal problem. A policy making process involves understanding the broader context, as elaborated by Jann and Wegrich (2007:44), identifying the problem and putting it on the agenda; developing, adopting and implementing policies; and assessing policies against their effectiveness and efficiency.

Public policies enacted in such a process guide socio-economic and political decision-making and thus determine which services will be provided to the public and the level of those services, which kinds of development will occur in the state, and what the country’s future will be (MRSC, 1999:1). The Northern Ireland civil service (ICS, 2008:7), in discussing the characteristics of good policy making states that for policy making to be effective, civil servants involved in policy development need to be familiar with relevant laws and practice, understand the views of key stakeholders, and have the capacity to design implementation systems. They must understand the priorities of the relevant minister and the way policies work out in practice, the way organisations are structured, and processes and culture that influence the policy making process.

Ethiopia is a federal state with a parliamentary form of government having a clear differentiation between the head of the state (the president) and the head of government (the prime minister). In such a political system, the prime minister is the chief executive and, together with the cabinet, exercises executive power or has the authority to form and implement policies and programmes. He/she is usually the leader of the political party that wins the majority of votes in the legislature, either assuming the post automatically or getting elected by the legislature (Macasaquit, 2006:1).

The central feature of a parliamentary political system emanates from its nature to establish the executive from within the legislature and making it responsible to the parliament (Winfield et al., 2004:425). Within a parliamentary government, the legislative and executive functions overlap, as the members of the executive organ, the ministers, are drawn by the prime minister from the parliament. The fusion serves to facilitate the exercise and coordination of governmental powers and functions to formulate desired policies and implement programmes of government (Hogwood & Roberts, 2003:125) The success of this fusion depends largely, though, on the reform of the country’s political party and electoral systems (Macasaquit, 2006). In this political system, the Constitution grants the parliament legislative power (Yusuf, 2014:219). The parliament passes legislation and decides on whether it has agreed on the proposed laws to become law.

Gerring (2008:19), in the theoretical debate over systems of government, concludes that the parliamentary system leads to better governance because it possesses strong political parties and corporatist interest organisation; exercises tighter principal-agent relationships within the various arms of the bureaucracy, electoral accountability; and enjoys the capacity for flexible policy making, a more institutionalised political sphere, and decisive leadership. The Constitution of Ethiopia grants both the federal government and the states with legislative, executive and judicial powers (HPR, 1995a:101). It identifies (HPR, 1995a:102) the legislative body as the House of Peoples “Representatives (HPR)”, and is the highest authority of the government of FDRE responsible to the nation, nationalities and people of the federal state. The HPR is the sole legislator on matters that underlay the federal jurisdiction, which implies the fact that responsibility for approving all new or amended federal legislation lies with this chamber.

The highest executive powers of the government of FDRE are vested in the prime minister and in the Council of Ministers, both of which are responsible for the HPR. The council has the power to formulate and implement federal policies and strategies and to declare a state of emergency (HPR, 1995a:121). It also enacts regulations pursuant to powers vested in it by the HPR. The State Council, in its part, is the highest organ of state authority with the power to draft, adopt and amend the state Constitution where it is inconsistent with the provisions of the federal Constitution, and make legislation on matters falling under its jurisdiction. The state administration constitutes the highest organ of executive power, and the federal Constitution expects both federal and state structures to respect the powers of one another.

In the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, sovereignty of the people is expressed through the federal Constitution, which identifies and delimits the highest authority of the FDRE government to be accountable to the people. The Constitution allows no organ of the state and nobody in the country to alter any of its content and/or structure unilaterally but ensures obedience to its entire observance. The sovereign (the Ethiopian nations, nationalities, and peoples) is therefore at the top of the hierarchy followed by the organ composed of its direct representatives at both federal and local levels. The executive is accountable to these representatives.

1.3.6. Policy Capacity in the Ethiopian Civil Service (ECS)

The Ethiopian government “has articulated democratic developmental state as its policy to take center stage in Ethiopia” (Fiseha, 2014), and that it attempts to play a key role in the process of structural and economic transformations (Sehen & Tesfaye, 2012:4; Teshome, 2012). Accordingly, the state needs to have the required policy and state (strategic) capacities, and administrative (organisational and technical) capacity attained through building a strong civil service (ETU, 2013).

The public relies on the civil service to respond to its changing demands. However, to be able to respond to these demands, policy capacity and professionalization are required by the civil service. Professionalization, in terms of policy making process in the Ethiopian civil service (ECS), is still in its beginning stage. It was only since the launching of the Civil Service Reform Programme in 1994 that the performance incompetence of civil servants was mentioned for the first time since the Imperial era (Adebabay, 2011:6). This was further emphasised when the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) was launched in 2010 that called for superior organisational performance through the mobilisation of professional employees, including those in the civil service (Adebabay, 2011:9). Due to the capacity problem being experienced, government services in Ethiopia rarely if ever address the basic needs of the public (UNECA, 2009:170), for example maternal care services. According to the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey, only eleven per cent of births in the country are delivered with the assistance of a trained health professional (CSA & ICF, 2012:14).

Personal capacity to understand how policy decisions are made also affects and is influenced by institutional system capacity to use plain, accessible language to clarify and de-mystify written policy, and the structural ability to create a vision of how policy issues should be addressed.

Indicative Factors of Building Capacity to Develop Policy			
SN	Personal Capacity	System Capacity	Community/Structural Capacity
1	An understanding of how policy decisions are made	A commitment to engage communities in the creation of public policy at all stages, and to use community input in a meaningful and transparent way	The ability to identify and name the issue allies in other sectors who can assist communities in developing strategies to influence policy
2	The capacity to recognize one's own strengths and weaknesses, and to know and set one's own boundaries	A willingness to increase public confidence by encouraging open and consistent communication	The ability to create a vision of how the issue should be addressed
3	The communication skills of listening, understanding and assertiveness	Knowledge of best practices on policies that are most effective in addressing a particular issue, and a willingness to listen to community expertise on best practices	The ability to articulate that vision to help identify needs, understand and communicate issues, and assess effects of policy and interventions
4	The ability to resolve conflicts with the intention of both achieving goals and improving relationships	An ability and willingness to assess the influence of policies in references to gender, age, culture, income levels and other factors, and a willingness to use holistic approaches that cross sectors and consider the whole person, the whole community and the whole environment	Knowledge of government and non-government structures (such as hospitals) and systems and the role they play in the policy development process Knowledge of best practices to address a particular issue
5	Planning and evaluation skills for understanding issues and strategic interventions	Facilitation skills to support collaborative processes for working across sectors and outside of traditional government silos	The ability to work collaboratively across sectors to identify opportunities for strategic intervention and ideal methods for intervention
6	Leadership skills to motivate others Credibility in and knowledge of one's community The ability to work collaboratively	An ability to use plain, accessible language to clarify and de-mystify written policy	The ability to identify the most salient information and present it in the most useful format for policy makers. The ability to use various approaches simultaneously to influence policy (for example generating information through community-based research, preparing policy briefs, circulating petitions, and making presentations at government-initiated consultations).

*Table 1: Personal, system, and community abilities required in the process of public policy making
Adapted from: Dodd and Boyd (2001:7-11)*

1.3.7. Policy Skills Required by Civil Servants

As stated previously, policy making is a fundamental function of any government, and the civil service is the major role player in any government. According to the Northern Ireland civil service, good public policy making features forward/outward looking, innovative, flexible and creative thinking, experience and evidence-based and inclusive policy, and should take a holistic view, and be communicative and evaluative. The UK civil service (UKCS, 2012a) states that successful policy depends on:

- ❖ the development and use of a sound evidence base;
- ❖ understanding and managing the political context; and
- ❖ planning from the outset for how the policy will be delivered.

Indeed, the irony of politics–policies relationship lays in the fact that “the expectations of policy makers often exceed their abilities to perform” (Gerston, 2010:72). Public policies design must draw on a wider range of views and expertise and thus should be able to be implemented practically as well. In that regard, civil servants engaged in the process of policy making should have the skills and tools to understand what works based on vigorous evidence, they should scan the horizon for threats and opportunities ahead, and focus on ministerial priorities (UKCS, 2012a:). The UK Cabinet Office (1999:4) emphasizes policy capacity as an important asset for civil servants, especially for those who are actively involved in the public policy process because it encourages better mutual understanding among ministers and policy makers regarding what is possible and what is not possible. Policy skills need to be integrated into civil service training programs and get civil servants trained since most professional civil servants lack the ability to understand the policy process to which all are part directly or indirectly. (

Ethiopian civil servants, as those in the UK (UKCS, 2012b) work across the country and overseas but all support the government there by providing advice to help shape its policies and ensuring seamless and practical implementation in line with those policies. This requires of them to have public policy capacity (knowledge and skills). These public policy capacities (knowledge and skills) are categorised as: Bring together communication stakeholders, Evidence: Research analysis and surveying and modelling, Politics and strategic management, Policy delivery: Strategic and accountability, advocacy and project management.

1.3.8. Civil Service Education and Training

The need to provide some form of professional education and training in public administration to support the work of civil servants has been recognised as far back as the eighteenth century since the education of civil servants as well as Public Administration as an academic subject has gone through many phases of development (Adedeji & Baker 1974:119). One of the first schools for the education of civil servants of high rank was established in the Kingdom of Siam (Thailand) in the nineteenth century (Adedeji & Baker 1974:117).

Education and training in public administration therefore entail the improvement of employee performances in the civil service system. Vemić (2007:211) believes that training in a civil service system implies: obtaining new knowledge, abilities and skills; supporting and introducing civil servants to attitudinal changes and entrepreneurship and encouraging them; introducing civil servants to important public policy decisions; and involving them actively in the process of policy decision-making.

The training techniques are supported by training facilities available, depend on the quality of the trainers, and vary with the training locations (FAO, 2012). The training is then implemented in accordance with the training plan, and is subsequently evaluated against the plan (Coultas et al., 2012:495).

Civil service training		
Training phase	Guiding principles	
1	Analyse training needs	Conduct due diligence
		Define performance requirements
		Define cognitive and affective states
		Define knowledge, skill and ability (KSA) attributes
2	Plan training programs (develop training content)	Define learning objectives
		Design learning architecture
		Establish instructional experiences
3	Implement training	Develop assessment tools
		Set the stage for learning
		Deliver blended solutions
4	Evaluate training	Support transfer and maintenance
		Execute evaluation plan
		Gauge trainee learning
		Gauge team learning
		Gauge organizational effect
	Disseminate training results	

Table 2: Civil service training
Source: Salas and Stagl (2009:61–64)

The systematic nature of effective civil service training requires “institutional structure that encompasses overall strategic guidance at the political level and a national body responsible for defining training needs, guiding the training curricula, contracting out training delivery, monitoring quality and evaluating impact” (UNDP 2007:4). The provision of appropriate and effective training enhances professionalization of the civil service that can, for example, improve the effectiveness of public policies by providing knowledge and skills relevant to policy making process (Brans & Vancoppenolle, 2005). Baskoy, Evans and Shields (2011:227) identify professional training as one of the major indigenous factors to influence policy capacity of the civil service. Training in a civil service system can be viewed in different ways. It can be seen on the basis of the level, content and style of education the civil servant has obtained before joining the civil service (pre-service training), like the French national schools of public administration (UNDP, 2007:3). It can

also be seen in terms of tailored courses provided to ensure the skills, knowledge and ideas of civil servants are kept up to date (in-service training), like the civil service training in the UK.

Likewise, Finci (2006:7) classifies civil service training into three main categories on the basis of the aims they intend to achieve as can be seen in Table 4 below.

Civil Service Training		
Category		Aim is to develop
1	General cross-cutting training	general skills and knowledge required by all civil servants working in different institutions across administration
2	Common substance training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ specific skills and knowledge of civil servants related to a policy field implemented by several institutions ✓ specific skills and knowledge related to horizontal management systems
3	Sector-specific training	Specific skills and knowledge required by civil servants working in specific policy areas in the same institution.

Table 3: Main categories of civil service training

Source: Adapted from Finci (2006:7)

1.3.9. Overview of Demand and Supply Sides of Public Service Delivery

The traditional approaches to public administration assumed public service production and delivery to be the sole responsibility of the state. Ministries, parastatals, and other government departments were considered the only available agencies to produce and provide urban public services as well as implement other development goals. Such an approach, however, proved to be a failure in many countries in general and in African countries in particular where states had limited capacity. Governments have been unable to provide, operate and maintain public services in line with rapid urbanization, resource deficiencies, poor urban management and population growth. By the early 1980s, many African states were found to have been over extended and literally unable to produce and provide basic services.

In the same period, there was a shift from the traditional public administration to the new public management (NPM) approach. The paradigm believed that the public and private sectors did not have to be organized and managed in fundamentally different ways. It would be better for the public services if they could be organized and managed as much like the private sector as possible. The focus of the NPM movement therefore, was on creating institutional and organizational contexts which are to mirror what is seen as critical aspects of private sector modes of organization and management.

Restructuring the public sector alone was however found to be insufficient to improve the quality and quantity of public service delivery to citizens. This is because making government affordable and lean through cost reduction and containment measures, especially by way of rationalizing the machinery of government, divesting non-core operations, retrenching redundant staff, freezing employment and adopting measures to control the wage bill and other personnel-based expenditures had little positive direct impact on delivery of public service. In fact, such measure had contrary results, which in most instances they severely constrained both capacity building and service delivery. Due to employment freeze that resulted in shortage of skilled professionals, it was not possible to sustain let alone to improve quality and expand public services in key areas such as education, health, safe drinking water and road infrastructure. As a result, since the end of the 1980s in general and the beginning of the 1990s in particular, the policy community started searching for development practice tools that would go beyond the state.

The search called for radical reforms that advocated the involvement of multiple actors representing multiple sectors of society, which transformed the issues and discussions of public service from the sphere of public administration to governance. Non-state providers including both formal and informal private providers, as well as civil society institutions, also have important roles to play. Public service delivery in the context of responsive governance model, among others, involves distinguishing the strategies of the supply and demand sides.

1.3.10. The Supply Side of Public Service Delivery

The Supply side of public service delivery refers to the production and delivery of public services through the involvement of multiple governance actors that include public agencies, private enterprises, NGOs, CBOs, and communities at large. Thus, strategies designed to improve the supply side of public service delivery need to focus on increasing the capacity and incentives of public agencies and other service providers to participate in different ways so that they can best fulfill their functions. There are two major approaches to improving the supply side of public service delivery, viz. administrative and fiscal decentralization to public agencies and creating the enabling environment for the involvement of non-state actors that include private-sector agencies, user organizations, and NGOs in the provision of public services. The first approach aims at improving the capacities of autonomous service delivery public agencies and local governments. This approach, however, is challenged by lack of willingness and commitment by central/state governments to ensure effective administrative and fiscal decentralization.

The second approach to improving the supply side of public service delivery aims at creating an enabling environment for non-state providers to engage in activities that increase and improve service provision to poor people. There are a number of institutional arrangements or intervention modalities through which non-state actors take part in the production and delivery of public services. The

most common institutional arrangements include contracting out, privatization, public-private partnerships, public-private-civil society partnerships, devolving management authority to user groups, and service cooperatives.

1.3.11. The Demand Side of Public Service Delivery

The demand-side of public service delivery refers to community members and their organizational capacities to aggregate and articulate demand towards service providers with the objective of influencing the quality, quantity and time of services provided as well as to claim accountability. Aggregation of demand is critical in public service delivery because demands for better service can only be responded to in an effective manner if a critical mass of people shares the same problem and organize their demands. Of course, the degree of assertiveness of citizens is influenced by the level and type of information they have about their rights, regulations, and financial sources and allocation mechanisms. All these require strengthening the capacity of citizens in general and poor people and disadvantaged groups in particular to demand better services, and creating institutional arrangements that help them channel their demands to public agencies and hold them accountable. The demand side of public service delivery thus, focuses on the voice, regulation, financial management, and transparency and accountability dimensions of governance (AfDB, n.d.).

Voice Mechanism-citizens need to have voice, and government should provide avenues so that they can express it effectively. Nonetheless, only few governments, particularly in developing countries, recognize the real value of providing open and responsive avenues for consumers to exercise their voice (e.g. complaint mechanisms). Even if some governments have established higher level systems of voice and recourse through regulatory bodies such as human rights commissions, ombudspersons and the judiciary, these are inaccessible to the vast majority of the target population (AfDB, n.d.).

Transparency and accountability are intrinsically linked in such a way that the former is a prerequisite for the latter. Citizens can hold service providers accountable for their decisions and the use of resources only when they have access to information. Service providers have to constantly provide information to clients about various dimensions of the services they provide. This in turn necessitates service providers being responsive and thereby accountable to the clients they serve. Sector budget analysis and publication, community-based management, citizen report card, involvement of private sector operators; reporting and disclosure of targets and achievements are important mechanisms that can increase transparency and accountability (AfDB, n.d.).

The agenda of public administration reforms, accompanied with several models, so as to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of government in providing services has been the subject of experimentation for several years. Many of the reforms were preoccupied with the supply side as they aimed at improving public service delivery through training, introducing merit-based recruitment and promotion, and creating incentives by adjusting payment structures. Such reforms were basically confined to the public sector. Public service production and delivery in the recent reforms, however, transcended the public sector domain and included several non-state actors. Nonetheless, improving the supply of public goods and services is not an end in itself nor is it possible to achieve responsive and accountable service delivery.

Accountability- an institutional relationship (with five features: delegation, finance, performance, information about performance and enforceability), is at the heart of effective and efficient public service delivery. Reducing information asymmetry among parties in the service provision system is key to strengthening the accountability relationships in service delivery. The literature suggests that increasing client power over service providers can increase efficiency and control in the system. The principal-agent theory provides a framework for understanding of accountability in public service delivery (Awortwi and et al, 2012). Public service delivery involves three broad categories of actors, viz. clients/citizens, politicians/ policy makers, and providers (public, private or self-organized groups).

2. Research Methodology

2.1. Background of the Study Area

National regional state of Oromia is one of the regional states in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. It is the largest regional state in the country. Geographically, Oromia extends from 3° 24' 20" N - 10° 23' 26" N latitude and 34° 07' 37" E - 40°58'5" E longitude. It shares borderlines with all the regional states in the FDRE, except Tigray. It also shares international borderlines with South Sudan in the West, Kenya republic in South (BoFED, 2008).

The total area of the region is 363,136 square kilometers, accounting about 34.3% of the total area of the country. Administratively, the region is divided in to 18 Administrative Zones, 304 Districts (out of which 39 are towns structured with the level of Districts and 265 rural Districts); more than 6342 Rural and 482 urban dwellers' Kebeles (Partition of District). According to CSA (2007) report, the total population of Oromia is 27,158,471 which account 36.7% of the total country's population. As of January 2016, the population of Ethiopia is estimated to be 100,658,562 (www.worldmeter.com), accordingly, the population of Oromia is estimated to be more than 37,000,000 currently.

Agriculture (mainly rain-fed, subsistence) is the main economic sector of the Region, accounting for 69 percent of Regional GDP and employing 89 percent of the labor force. The Region accounts for a large proportion of Ethiopia's agricultural exports: coffee, hides and skins, pulses and oil seeds. Despite this fact, increases in agricultural output and productivity are constrained by several factors, including traditional farming methods and rapid population growth, which is causing fragmentation and reduction of farm sizes and contributing to natural resource degradation. Oromia has significant number of water sources: lakes, rivers, energy, mineral, wildlife and historical and cultural resources (BoFED, 2008).

As Ethiopia is one of ethnically diverse nations in the world, Oromia shares the whole of these diversity since it is the largest region and is home of all types of nations and nationalities in the country. This multiplicity in language, religion, culture, tradition and the overall identity is actually a beauty for the region considering the fact that the peoples of Ethiopia have had the culture of living together without any narrowly and shallowly-focused ethnic belongingness. Meanwhile, nowadays, due to variety of factors, some identity-based conflicts have been seen in some parts of the country and most of the conflicts are seen in this largest region. As a result, the idea of pan-Ethiopian sense has become de-emphasized (Muhabie, 2015).

Nowadays, the Region faced problems of good governance and service delivery performance gaps and contemporary challenges in the public institutions of the region in turn has a far reaching implication in the country's socio-economic activities due to large size of the region both in geography and population (POS, 2015).

2.2. Selection of Study Cities

In this research, two cities (Haromaya and Shashemene) were selected and a number of criteria were considered while selecting Haromaya and Shashemene. Shashemene has a long history of urban service delivery. It is densely populated city with a number of diversified ethnicity and services are found; it is also among the fast growing cities of the region. Haromaya was selected because it is one of the remote cities with unique culture of working habits and transparency of the residents.

2.3. Research Design

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Mixed methods research designs serve for the purposes of triangulation, complimentary, illustration of data and offset weaknesses and providing stronger inferences. Thus, utilizing a mixed methods approach allowed the limitations of each approach to be neutralized while strengths are built upon thereby providing stronger and more accurate inferences (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2009). Accordingly, qualitative and quantitative data were collected concurrently, given equal priority and simultaneously used for the analysis.

The survey employed different empirical instruments:

1. Supply-side - a quantitative questionnaire, which addresses service providers and semi-structured key Informants (KI) with selected representatives of service providers.
2. Demand-side - a quantitative questionnaire based perceptions response and qualitatively semi-structured interview was used to get information from the key Informants (KI) with selected representatives of the public.

2.4. Sampling

For the sampling technique, purposive sampling technique was adopted to identify the respondents from both sides of the Public service providers and the public service users. Generally, respondents from both the supply and demand sides were contacted.

Public Service Providers: Bureau heads in the town, planning heads, public relations officers, Process owners and Model workers has been chosen as respondents based on purposive sampling method.

Public Service receivers: Leaders from chamber of commerce, large firm (business) owners and urban dwellers were selected as respondents based on purposive sampling method. Accordingly, the respondents from Demand-Supply sides were categorized in the table below.

Selected Towns		Supply Side	Demand side		Total
		Government Officials and Experts	Business Owners	Urban dwellers	
1	Shashemene	30	10	20	60
2	Haromaya	30	10	20	60
Total		60	20	40	120

Table 4: Supply and Demand Sides Respondents Data

Source: Researchers Survey

2.5. Methods of Data Collection

The study employed both primary and secondary data through semi-structured interviews and different online and published secondary data sources. For the purpose of producing strategy and policy related information on the performance and development of the public service, a desk review on different secondary data was conducted. For collecting the primary data, key informant interview was used with the informants both from supply (public service providers) and the demand side (the public). The interviews focused on questions related to capacity, partnership among the different actors, voicing mechanisms for citizens, transparency and accountability of public service providers, as well as the challenges those actors faced and the opportunities for the development and improvement of the sector. To supplement the data collection mechanism by objective and reliable information; Physical observation of public service delivery; open ended and close ended questioners were provided for the selected respondents.

2.6. Data Analysis

Data analysis involves the breakdown of research data into constituent parts to provide answers to research questions. These two authors also define data analysis as the categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising of research data to provide answers to research questions. Data analysis entails three steps, namely data reduction, data display and verification. As explained by De Vos and

Fouché, data reduction entails reducing data “to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied, tested and conclusions drawn.”

For the raw data to be analysed, it has to be placed in categories. Categories of data were grouped according to the eight dimensions of the model of social programmes, which was used as an analytical framework for this study. These categories enabled to classify questionnaire and interview responses, identify similarities and differences, themes, patterns or trends, items of significant importance and to collate the study findings. Patterns emerging from the data were matched with patterns in the model of social programmes (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 283). The data that was collected from the self-administered questionnaires and follow-up personal interviews was transcribed, coded, analysed and presented in tables, numbers and percentages so that it is easily understood. Data verification refers to checking the accuracy or reliability and validity of data collected (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 290). For this study, the data collected from self-administered questionnaires and follow-up personal interviews was compared with data collected through the literature review and document analysis. Comparisons were made with Oromia regional government official records, review reports; consultancy studies etc.

The research data can either be analysed manually or by computer. For this study, the data was analysed by SPSS20 to obtain simple statistical analyses (numbers and percentages). For relatively small studies such as this study that involve fewer amounts of data and a small sample of 120 respondents, simple or manually statistical analyses are recommended, while complex computational statistical analyses such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences are recommended for studies that involve huge amounts of data and large samples of 300 or more respondents. Due to the qualitative nature of this study and small population size, simple descriptive statistical analyses were used for data analysis and interpretation. Data analysis precedes data interpretation.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Assessment of Organizational Capacity of Public Service Providers

3.1.1. Human Resource

Standards of excellence for public administration education and training refer to the standards at which the education and training should take place. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs and International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA, 2012) believe government institutions as public sector organizations must perform proficiently to provide the public with high-quality services. Consequently, civil servants working in such institutions need to possess the highest level of public policy knowledge, skill and preparation. This would be filled through appropriate training and professional development of the service providing organizations

According to OCSGGB (2016) Report on the level of education for the region’s civil servants clearly reveals on shortage of high level professionals, civil servants with second degrees (MA/MSC and LLM) and above (PhD, and MD) constitute a mere 2% of the total civil service workforce, making it a critical priority area requiring interventions. Also, professionals in civil service BA/BSc and LLB make up 25% of the total civil service employees. Diploma holders and University/College dropouts comprise over 47 percent of civil servants. Semi-professionals with certificate accounts for about 40.2%, making up the largest proportion; while about 18.4 % civil servants are non-professionals with low level of education.

The Regional Government of Oromia has established 55 CS institutions (Bureaus, Commissions, agencies, Authorities Institutes and Offices) to carry out its functions at Regional, Districts, Towns and *Kebele* Administrative levels. In 2015, the Region’s CS Institutions employ 419,278 (284,058 male and 135,220 female) civil servants, about 30% of the country’s total civil servants. Over the past five years, there has been an annual increase of 8.1% on average of the civil service workforce.

Apart from these, since 2005, the number of civil servants in Federal Ethiopia has increased near to 1,398,000, which results in one civil servant for every seventy-five citizens. This number is therefore too small in terms of ratio for the entire population of about 103 million (www.worldmeter.com), especially when compared to other African countries like Mauritius (1:22), and Egypt (1:12) (MCS, 2007:3). Accordingly, Oromia regional state civil servant to population ratio based on the current information is estimated to be 1:83 (419,278:35,000,000) which is even less than to the national civil servants to population ratio. Even though, objective reality shows increment of civil servants in the region, this study revealed lack of skilled human resources which is one of the major factors that hinder effective service delivery of the service providers. On top of analysis of secondary data, the primary data taken from the survey also showed the following result.

Have you taken adequate training to bridge your skill and knowledge gap?	Respondents	
	Number	Percentages
Yes	15	25
No	45	75
Total	60	100

Table 5: Assessment of adequacy of training to bridge your skill and knowledge gap
Source: Survey result, April 2016

Seventy-five percent of the respondents agree that adequate trainings are not given that could bridge their knowledge and skill gap and thereby enhancing their performance of effective public service delivery. They stated that, the training they have been taking is not only inadequate rather either has no direct relation with their specific duties or too general to address their skill gap. However, in the

education sector, the FGD indicated that round based intensive training has been given to bridge the knowledge and skill gap of foreign language teachers. Even though, such trainings are welcoming in enhancing teachers' performance but its converge was not promising as it disregarded all the remaining teachers. With respect to other public service providing organizations, though they took different trainings, it contributed less to bridge their knowledge and skill gap of the workers as they are not adequate and not task specific. In general, an assessment of the human resource capacity of the service providing government organizations indicated that sufficient short term trainings are not given to the workers to bridge their skill and knowledge gap.

3.1.2. Financial Resource

Almost all the respondents from all service providing organizations admitted that they have insufficient financial resources to effectively undertake their responsibilities. According to respondents, it is a budget constraint that limits the expansion and upgrading of service level to satisfy the ever increasing demand of the society. Moreover, most of the organizations' human resource capacity was also under the standard set due to budget limitation which in turn caused over load work on the limited number of the workers. Furthermore, FGD participants in both cities stated that it is budget inefficiency that the limited their scale and effective service provision. Findings of some the studies done in different cities of our country also showed that service providing organizations and agencies have limited financial and human resource capacities to meet the growing demands of the population in their study area (RDLS, 2012; 2013).

Is there any budget deficiency in your organization which may limit effective service delivery	Respondents	
	Number	Percentages
Yes	56	93.33
No	4	6.67
Total	60	100

Table 6: Response on budget constraint

Source: Survey result, April 2016

3.2. Transparency, Accountability, Voicing Mechanisms and Responsiveness

3.2.1. Transparency

Transparency is a characteristic of governments, companies, organizations and individuals that are open in the clear disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions. It is the matter of public's unbound access to up-to-date and trustworthy information about every aspect of public services they need. When people are properly informed and able to see what public officials are doing they can articulately interact with their state institutions to build up dialogue on social and economic issues in society.

In order to realise transparency in public service, good institutional arrangements are needed, openness and honesty should be promoted and functional measures of internal and external control must be instituted correctly applied. Effective information and technologies sharing and usage at all levels of public service are regarded as imperative toward realising transparency. Consequently, the above leads to improved services delivery to the people and support functional democracy. Transparency among public institutions ensures information accessible to citizens. This provides an opportunity for them to demand accountability for public officials' action. With context of this study, transparency was addressed with respect to Citizens' access to up-to-date and trustworthy information; whether organizational policies and procedures and reform tools such as BPR, BSC, Citizen Charter (CC), Civil Service Army... of service providing organizations were well communicated or not to the citizen; and public knowledge on budget allocation and utilization

Transparency aspects	Rate	Frequency	Percent
Citizens' have access to up-to-date and trustworthy information concerning the service they are provided by the institution	Strongly agree and agree	33	55
	Disagree, Strongly disagree	27	45
Reform tools such as BPR, BSC, CC, Citizen Charters ...) are communicated to the citizen	Strongly agree and agree	15	25
	Disagree, Strongly disagree	45	75
Organizational policies and procedures of service provision were communicated to the citizens	Strongly agree and agree	24	40
	Disagree, strongly disagree	36	60
Transparency of budget allocation and utilization	Strongly agree and agree	31	51.67
	Disagree, strongly disagree	29	48.33

Table 7: Response on Transparency aspects

As revealed by the study, more than half of the respondents from demand side agreed that the public service providing organizations provide sufficient information to citizens concerning the service provided by the institutions. Public notice board, pamphlets and meetings are used to communicate every concern of the service they provide. In contrast, even though BPR, BSC, CC and Civil Service Army are in place, the study showed that they were less communicated to the citizens. Moreover, 60 percent of the respondents do not agree with the well communication of organizational policies and procedures of service providing organizations to the citizens. And this negatively affected effective service provision of the sectors. With regard to transparency in financial resource

allocations, though the allocated budget is posted on public notice board, the study showed that 48.33 percent of the respondents in the cities indicated that they did not have any information as to how much money was allocated and how much of it was utilized for what purpose. In general, since organizations have all aspects of transparency, transparency problem is not significantly affecting effective service provision of each sector.

3.2.2. Accountability

Accountability can be defined as ensuring that officials in public, private and voluntary sector organizations are answerable for their actions and that there is redress when duties and commitments are not met. "Accountability is regarded as the basis of public service" (Rondinelli, 2007:21). In this regard, accountability is the pillar of effective service delivery that compels the state, the private sector, and civil society to focus on results, seek clear objectives, develop effective strategies, and monitor and report on performance (Cheema, 2007:32).

In terms decentralisation, local-level representatives are meant to become more accountable to their constituencies. This theory assumes that local constituents have the ability to call such representatives to account for their actions and for their performance, and to discipline or reward them accordingly. In addition, caution that accountability is only possible where political representation is highly localised, and citizens have information about government performance and voice, and exit channels that can effectively be used to ensure the accountability of their representatives.

For Cheema (2007:32), accountability has three dimensions. They are as follows:

- ✓ Firstly, financial accountability which implies an obligation on the part of the person(s) handling resources, or holding public office or any other position of trust, to report on the intended and actual use of the resources.
- ✓ Secondly, political accountability which means regular and open methods for sanctioning or rewarding those who hold positions of public trust through a system of checks and balances among the executive, legislative and the judicial branches.
- ✓ Thirdly, administrative accountability which implies systems of internal control by the government, including civil service standards and incentives, ethics codes, and administrative reviews.

These dimensions, particularly administrative accountability, tie well with the purpose of this study. For service delivery practices to be effective it requires reform of administrative rules and procedures to allow public officials to carry out their duties in the manner acceptable to society. It requires effective control mechanisms that not only direct procedures but also ensure that services are reaching the intended beneficiaries. In the context of regional and local governance, citizens delegate power to public officials (politicians and administrative officials) by means of electing the government into power. Citizens' expectations are that public officials carry out their work diligently and provide services to society. In other words, public officials are accountable to the government and citizens for their actions.

In the context of this study, majority of the respondents agreed that, even though they doubt its implementation and practicality, the workers are accountable for their poor service delivery. They have also an understanding of making the public service providers accountable by submitting their complaint to the respective organization. Moreover, they are aware of the existence of organizational structure as a system through which all the service providers are responsively accountable for every poor service provision. In the system, the workers are accountable to the process owners and in turn the process owners are accountable to the bureau heads.

Accountability aspects	Response	No	Percent
Do you know what measures the service providing organization take measure on worker that commits misconduct on the service delivery	Yes	15	25
	No	45	75
Heads of service providing organizations check and find out any poor service delivery and takes the responsibility	Yes	16	26.67
	No	44	73.33
Have you encountered a worker being punished for his/her poor performance of delivering public service at organizational level	Yes	5	8.33
	No	55	91.67
Have you met a worker promoted for his/her good performance in public service provision	Yes	2	3.33
	No	58	96.67

Table 8: Response on Accountability aspects

The study revealed that, 75 percent of the respondent knows nothing about the measure taken on misconducted workers, 73.33 percent of the respondent do not believe that the heads of service providing organizations check and find out any poor service delivery and takes the responsibility, 91.67 percent of the respondents clarify that they haven't encountered a worker being punished for his/her poor performance of delivering public service at organizational level; and 96.67 percent witnessed that they haven't met a worker promoted for his/her good performance in public service provision. In general, from the survey result it can be concluded that accountability problem is significantly affecting effective service provision of each sector.

3.2.3. Voicing Mechanisms and Complaint Handling

Hirschman (1970) has introduced the concept 'voice' as the mechanism for consumers dealing with the poor performances of the private sector in the production of goods and services. Later on, Paul (1992) has adopted the concept to the arena of public sector with an argument that 'Voice' of the public is mandatory factor in making public service providing entities efficient, accountable and responsive. Accordingly, he has defined *Voicing* as, the extent of which the public (the principals) can determine or influence the institutional outcomes of the deliverables through different ways including participation, articulation of feedback or protest.

With the context of the study, voicing can be taken as, means of influencing effectiveness of public service delivery through different ways including participation, monitoring and evaluation, articulation of feedback or protest. Thus, voice of the public is mandatory factor in making public service providing entities efficient, accountable and responsive. For this reason, every service providing organization/ agency has established different voicing mechanisms through which community members can address their concerns and complaints. The FGD suggested that each the public service providing organization has established complaint handling units through which public can submit their compliance either in formal letters or orally or through suggestion boxes to their respective service providing organization. The public can also use other channels such as FM radio and public meetings at Kebele (portions district) level and/or direct meetings with officials. Thus, with respect compliant handling system establishment every service providing organization has no shown any problem. However, the public partly did not agree the effectiveness of the established system in solving their immediate complaints as per their need.

3.2.4. Responsiveness

Responsiveness refers to the ability of public organizations to react for the demands/requests of the citizens as per they need. With respect to the study, responsiveness focuses on timely response of public service providing organizations to the demand of the citizen in terms public service coverage, quality and effective service delivery. Almost in all service providing sectors responses to the citizens were considered to be late due to different reasons as:

Response	Degree of responsiveness					Total
	Very high	High	Modest	Low	Very low	
Number	3	6	34	15	2	60
Percent	5	10	56.67	25	3.33	100%

Table 9: Degree of Responsiveness by service providing organizations

Thus, the study found different factors contributing for such low responsiveness of service providing sectors. These include lack of coordination among service providers, adequate IT infrastructure, along with lack of good governance.

3.2.5. Lack of Coordination among Service Providers

According to the study, the FGD participants believe that lack of coordination among the service providing workers is one of the factors that caused the delayance of effective service provision. Thus, lack of coordination among the employees of the organization affects the effectiveness of public service provision by complicating the processes of service provision and delaying the completion of tasks of each employee.

3.2.6. Lack of Adequate IT Infrastructure

FGD discussants believed that the inadequate IT infrastructure development has negative impact on effective public service provision to the public. Access to internet and limited number of computers used by the workers affects service provision quality and effectiveness, and retards the timely delivery of public service.

3.2.7. Lack of Good Governance

Good governance is defined in different literatures as a public service that is efficient, and an administration that is accountable to the public. Thus, the definition indicates that lack of good governance contributes to inefficient and ineffective public service provision. The FGD discussants also asserted that lack of good governance in public service providing organizations negatively affected the rate of response to the public service provision. Almost all discussants indicated that corruption, nepotism in selecting employees for promotion and capture of recruitment by groups with vested interests are common to all surveyed sectors.

4. Summary of Key Findings and Recommendations

4.1. Summary of Key Findings

Supply and demand public service delivery perspectives are concerned with the roles and relationships between service provider and the public. Thinking in terms of value creation can be helpful, with a public service provider renegotiating the extent of their role in delivering public value and alternative providers, or alternative solutions, taking their place. A critical part of demand side is finding alternative ways of meeting public needs, which depends on understanding those needs in the first place.

The demand for public service is increasing in the region since the last two decades due to the region's economic growth and population is increasing ever, thus contributing for increasing demand for public service. And, the study also revealed that there is very high demand that could not be met by the current level of public service provision. For instance, health service delivery is below the standard even though number of health centers is increasing in the cities, deliveries water supply in the cities was just shift wise and the coverage was below half of the amount demanded by the residents; with respect education, though enrollment coverage at all levels was satisfactory, the number of schools and expected quality were below the standard set in both cities as indicated by FDG discussants

In line with the overall and specific objectives of the study, the study has been conducted with a view to answer certain questions, which would lead to the identification gap between demand and supply sides of public service delivery against which progress in basic service provision will be measured with regard to:

- What is the current level of the public servants' capacity in providing effective service to the citizens?
- What is the current status of transparency, accountability and voicing mechanisms in service providing bodies?
- What is the major gap between supply and demand sides of public service delivery?
- What is the remedial solution for the identified problems in supply and demand sides of public service delivery?

Based on this, the key findings are summarized as follows:

1. There is shortage of higher level professionals and number of public servants in the region indicated by workers to population ratio 1:83 (419,278:35,000,000) which is by far less than some African countries such as Mauritius (1:22), and Egypt (1:12). The study also revealed that adequate and task specific trainings are not given to relevant workers that could bridge their knowledge and skill gap.
2. Budget constraint and utilization problem was also found as a factor that limits the expansion and upgrading of service level to satisfy the ever increasing demand of the society.
3. Even though reform tools are in place, the study showed that they were not well communicated and there was implementation problem.
4. Even though organizational structures and hierarchies as a system were established, the survey result showed that accountability problem is significantly affecting effective service provision of each sector due to weak enforcement of rules and regulation in public service providing organizations.
5. Although, service providing organization/ agency has established different voicing mechanisms through which community members can address their concerns and complaints, the public partly did not agree the effectiveness of the established system in solving their immediate complaints as per their need.
6. Finally, almost in all service providing sectors responses to the citizens demand for effective service delivery were found to be late due to different reasons such as lack of coordination among service providers, adequate IT infrastructure, along with lack of good governance

4.2. Recommendations and Policy Implications

Based the key findings obtained the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Even though over the past five years, there has been 8.1% (on average) an annual increase of civil service workforce of the region, workers to population ratio, 1:83, indicates that there is high gap between the number of workers needed to deliver public service and the actual number of workers currently delivering the service. In addition, there is shortage of high level professionals. Thus, high interventions are needed by the regional government in the form of, for instance, increasing participation of other Non-Governmental Organizations and outsourcing some of the public services such as water supply. Moreover, continuous task specific training should be given to the workers by each service providing organizations avoiding rent seeking behavior, nepotism and favoritism.
2. Since budget constraint and utilization problem was one of the factors that affected effective service delivery, each service providing organizations need to optimize the utilization of their limited budget for upgrading and expansion of their respective services by deploying entrepreneurial leadership mechanism, by integrating manpower to reduce operational costs.
3. As the study revealed the reform tools were not well communicated and implemented well. To communicate reform tools to the public, the service providing organizations need to use traditional community associations such as Idir, Ikubs, Clubs, and other social meeting opportunities, i.e. strengthening the implementation of decentralization policy of the regional government to the grass root level.
4. Since accountability problem is significantly affecting effective service provision of each sector: to ensure accountability in every service providing organizations, strengthening vertical and horizontal relationship within and between institutions needs critical attention. Moreover, establishing 360^o performances based evaluation mechanism, developing rewarding systems for good performance, based on all rounded monitoring and evaluation system enforcements of the necessary rules and regulations and forfeits illegal acts and poor service provision.
5. To enhance the effectiveness of voicing mechanisms, the established system needs to be practical in solving the immediate complaints and demand from the public through making complaint handling unit responsive and responsible.
6. Finally, to make fast responses to the citizen's demand for effective service delivery strengthening coordination among service providers, giving due focus in building adequate IT infrastructure and ensuring good governance by focusing on policy implementation.

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