

The System of Government and Administration in Spain and Argentina: A Comparative Perspective

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Abstract

The objective of this paper was to make a comparative analysis of the system of government and administration of Spain and Argentina. Specifically, the study sought to trace the political history of Spain and Argentina and compare the organizational structure of the legislative and executive arms of governments, as well as the structure and operational patterns of the Spanish and Argentinian bureaucracies. This study was exploratory in nature, relying on existing literature. The historical and case study approaches were adopted for the study. Both Spain and Argentina had experienced political crises and civil unrest (civil wars). However, unlike Spain where the unrest was characterized by revolution by the masses to get rid of the perceived protracted monarchical dictatorship, the crises in Argentina were mainly for emancipation from Spanish occupation and colonization, consciousness for self-rule and subsequently for independence. Both countries operate democratic system of government though on different frameworks. While Spain practices parliamentary monarchy, Argentina operates a presidential system of government. Like Spain, the Argentinean legislature is bicameral in nature. In terms of administrative structures and processes in both countries, bureaucracy is the first major administrative organ for policy initiation and implementation. Both Spanish and Argentinean bureaucracies operate career system of administration. But unlike, the Spanish Bureaucracy which exerts more influence and tightly regulates regional bureaucracies, the Argentinean Bureaucracy grants more autonomy and freedom to regional bureaucracies to operate with some little control in staff recruitment and promotions as well as retirement.

The Spanish bureaucracy operates a closed system of promotion, while Argentina operates an open-closed system of promotion. Finally, while Spain explicitly makes special provision for women participation in politics, Argentina rather makes such an explicit participation of women in administration. Although, Argentina shared similar political history and administrative experience with its colonial master, these similarities however, continue to wain as the former now takes after its powerful neighbour, the United States of America, in political and bureaucratic arrangements with passage of time. It is apt that Argentina ceases imitating and establish her political and administrative identity.

Keywords: Bureaucratic stability, political instability, comparative perspective

Introduction

The need for the study and practice of Comparative Public Administration (CPA) arises in order to develop a more scientific approach by building and strengthening theory in Public Administration. Comparative Public Administration is the first major development in the Post-war evolution of Public Administration. Its objective has been 'to hasten the emergence of a universally valid body of knowledge concerning administrative behaviour- to contribute to a genuine and generic discipline of Public Administration (Sahni, & Vayunandan, 2010).

In 1887, in his famous article, 'The Study of Administration' Woodrow Wilson stressed the need for comparative studies of administration. However, the traditional literature was primarily descriptive rather than analytical or problem oriented. It was essentially non-comparative (Wilson, 1887).

Dahl and Waldo pointed out that cultural factors could make Public Administration in one nation different from that in another. As Dahl (1947) explained by Sapri (1979) states: "The comparative aspect of Public Administration has largely been ignored and as long as the study of Public Administration is not comparative, claim for a 'science of administration' sounds hollow." As it is widely held by the Comparative Administration Group, the basis upon which the discipline can be seen as scientific is through a comparative approach in which different systems of governments and administration can be studied so as to examine the similarities and dissimilarities between and among them, and subsequently observe and test the applicability and workability of theories of Public Administration in different environments and different cultural settings. In the light of the above, Riggs (1967) as reiterated by Chapman (2007) views Comparative Public Administration as; "the theory of Public Administration applied to diverse culture and national settings and the body of functional data by which it can be examined and tested". In the same vein, Dahl (1946) as reiterated by Rathod (2007) submits that; "the construction of science of administration depends on the success of establishing propositions which transcend national boundaries". Given the above, scholarly submissions, this work intends to carry out a comparative study of the system of government and administration of Spain and Argentina by way of tracing their political histories; brief examination of their structures and organizations of governments; and analysis of the bureaucracies in terms of entry, civil service reforms, entry requirements conditions of service reforms and general regulations governing the bureaucracy.

The main objective of this paper is to make a comparative analysis of the system of government and administration of Spain and Argentina. Specifically, the study seeks to trace the political history of Spain and Argentina and compare the organizational structures of legislative and executive arms of governments of Spain and Argentina as well as to compare and contrast the structure and operational patterns of the Spanish and Argentinian bureaucracies.

Significance, Scope-Spain and Argentina

The choice of Spain and Argentina for comparison is deliberate rather than mere academic curiosity. Spain at the peak of her supremacy annexed many colonies before her (warring) fortunes. Prominent among them was Argentina. The two countries share traditions of political crisis, instabilities, and discontinuities. The crises in Spain were as a result of revolt by the masses against the protracted monarchical dictatorship. However, the Argentinian experience was as a result of the desire and consciousness for emancipation, self-rule and independence from Spanish occupation and colonization coupled with the American infiltration and incitement. The two countries also share a great deal of sanctities in their which can be linked to the classic administrative system of France and Germany. However, the Argentina system tilts towards the American philosophy of personal skills and capacity rather than educational qualifications for entrance and placement in the service.

Methodology

This study is exploratory in nature, where by Argentina and Spain are chosen as the case study countries for the comparison. Therefore, secondary data were used which were generated mainly from scholarly articles and government reports as well as reports from international organizations. In line with this, historical and case study approaches were adopted for this study.

Some Major Events in the Political History of Spain and Argentina

The political history of Spain dates back to the early middle ages. In 1516, HabsbeurgeSpain unified a number of disparate predecessor kingdoms. The Spanish empire began since the very discovery of America in 1492, making the beginning of the golden age of Spain, during which, from early 1500s to the 1650s, HabsbeurgeSpain was the most powerful state in the world and the first empire to ever have possessions of five continents. (Anderson, 1970).

During this period, Spain was involved in all the major European wars. Including the Italian wars; the eight year war, the thirteen year war and the Franco-Spanish war. In the late 17th century, however, Spanish power began to decline, and after the death of the last Habsbeurge ruler, the war of the Spanish secession ended with the relegation of Spain, now under Bourndonrule, to

the status of a second-rate power with a reduced influence in European affairs. The so-called Bourbon reforms attempted to the renewal of state institutions, with success, but as the century ended, instability set with French revolution and Peninsular war, so that Spain never regained its former strength. (Peter, & Samuel 1986).

Fragmented by war, Spain at the beginning of the 19th century was destabilized as different political parties representing liberal, reactionary and moderate groups throughout the remainder of the century fought and won the short-lived control without any being sufficiently strong to bring about lasting stability. The former Spanish empire overseas quickly disintegrated with the Latin American wars of independence and eventually the loss of old colonies remained in the Spanish-American war of 1898. (Anderson, 1970). A tenuous balance between liberal and conservative forces was struck in the establishment of the constitutional monarchy during 1874-1931 but brought no lasting solutions, and Spain descended into civil war between the republican and the national factions. (Tridimas, 2015). The war ended in nationalist dictatorship, led by Francisco Franco, who controlled the Spanish government until 1975. The post war decades were relatively stable (with the notable exception of an armed independent movement in the Basque country) and the country experienced rapid economic growth in the 1960s and early 1970s. (Peter, & Samuel 1986).

Only with the death of Franco in 1975 Spain returned to Bourbon Constitutional European Economic Community in 1986 (transformed into the European Union with the Maastricht Treaty of 1992) and the Eurozone in 1999. The financial crisis of 2007-08 ended a decade of economic downturn and Spanish entered a recession, debt crisis, and remains plagued by very high unemployment and weak economy. Spain is ranked as a middle power able to exert regional influence but unlike other powers with similar status.

On the other hand, in Argentina as it is widely perceived by historians, the history of Argentina is divided into four (4) phases; the pre-Colombian-time; the Colombian time (1530-1810); the period of nation-building (1810-1880); and the history of modern Argentina (1880 to date).

The written history of Argentina began with the arrival of Spanish chroniclers in the expedition of *Juan Daiz de Solis* in 1516 to the *Rio de la Plata* which marks the beginning of Spanish domination in the region. In 1776, the Spanish Crown established the viceroyalty of *Rio de la Plata* under the umbrella of territories from which the revolution of May 1810 began a process of gradual transformation of several independent states; including one called *United Provinces of Rio de la Plata*. With the declaration of independence on July 9, 1816 and the military defeat of Spanish empire in 1824, a federal state was formed between 1853 and 1861 which led to what is known today as Republic of Argentina. (Makin, 1983).

The Spanish colonial era began with the arrival of Europeans into the region around 1512. Many settlements were established at different times by Europeans including Spanish and Portuguese. The colonization process had lasted for years before the war of independence began. The May revolution ousted the viceroy. Other forms of governments such as constitutional monarchy or Regency were briefly considered. The viceroyalty was also renamed, and it normally became *United Provinces of Rio de la Plata*. However, the status of the different territories that had belonged to the viceroyalty changed many times during the course of the war, as some regions would remain loyal to other previous governors and others were captured or recaptured. Later, these would split into several countries.

Series of military campaigns against the loyalists were waged at different time, prominent among these were wars by Manuel Belgrono, Juan Jose Castelli, Primera Junta and Jose de San Martin. (Makin, 1983).

Argentina experienced civil wars which could not be expunged in her annals of history. The defeat of the Spanish was followed by a long civil war between Unitarians and federalists, about the organization of the country and the role of Buenos Aires in it. The dominant figure of this period was a federalist, Juan Manuel de Rosa who was portrayed from different angles by diverse histo-graphic flows in Argentina. He ruled the province of Buenos Aires from 1829 to 1852, facing a military threats from secession attempts, neighboring countries and even from European nations. Several other important events were also taken into account in the history of Argentina such as; the Formation of Liberal Governments (1862-1880); The National Autonomist

Hegemony (1880-1916); Radical Governments (1916-1930); Existence of Some Infamous Decades (1930-1943); Argentina's Revolution (1943-1946); Peronist Years (1946-1955); *Revolucion Libertadora* (1955-1958); Fragile Radical Administration (1958-1966); *Revolucion Argentina* (1966-1973); Period of Growing Instability (1973-1976); National Organization Process (1976-1983); and The Present New Presidency (1983 to date) (Andason, 1994).

Legal Structures of Spain and Argentina

Article 1 of the 1978 Constitution states that Spain is a social and democratic state, subject to the rule of law, and advocates as higher values of the legal order, freedom, justice, equality and political pluralism. National sovereignty is vested in the Spanish people, from whom emanate the powers of the state. The political form of Spanish state is that of a parliamentary monarchy. The Spanish constitution, which was unanimously approved by parliament and voted by 87.8% of the citizens in a referendum, held on December 6, 1978. Article 1.3 reads; "the constitution provides for separation between legislature, executive and judiciary and gives institutional backing to the King as the Head of State and supreme Head of the Armed Forces. (United Nations, 2004).

The government of Argentina, on the other hand, is composed of 3 branches. The legislature is bicameral, with the Senate, as well with Chamber of Deputies. The executive branch includes The President, Vice-President and a Cabinet. In addition, the judicial branch covers the Supreme Court, Federal and Provincial Trial Courts. In Argentina, there are twenty-three provinces and one autonomous federal capital districts, working as administrative subdivisions. (United Nations, 2004). In essence, the Spanish Administrative Law is more or less Continental while the Argentina has Anglo-American system of Administrative Law.

Structure and Functions of the Legislatures of Spain and Argentina

The Spanish Parliament, known as the Cortes Generales, comprises of two houses; the Congress of Deputies and the Senate. It is therefore bicameral parliamentary system just like that of Argentina.

The house of Regional Representation consists of 256 members, of whom 208 are elected in the general elections (four representatives per province), while the remaining 48 are those directly nominated by the Autonomous Communities (one for each community and another one for every million inhabitants in the region concern). Like the Congress of Deputies, its lifetime is four years. The House of Regions includes representation from islands, the Autonomous Communities and the two Autonomous Cities. Members of the Parliament are elected for a four-year period. (United Nations, 2004).

The institutionalization of gender equality in Spain became notable and fully enforceable with the creation of the autonomous Women Institute (WI) under the government facing international pressures before entering the European Community in 1986 (Vallente, 2013; Bustelo and Ortbals, 2007). This had Women's political representation in Spain has achieved percentages around 36 per cent in national parliaments from the 2004 elections (IPU 2012). Progress towards a more gender equal representation in politics started in the late 1980s through voluntary quotas in leftwing parties (Verge 2013). The Law 3/2007 known as the 'Equality Law' adopted legislative gender quotas under the government (Valiente 2005). This law reforms the electoral law introducing the principle of balanced presence by mandating party lists for all elections to include a minimum of 40 per cent and a maximum of 60 per cent of either sex, a proportion to be respected in each stretch of five candidates. (Verge and Lombardo, 2015). The sanction for non-compliance is a strong one, since it involves the withdrawal of party lists. This legally binding measure has effectively promoted equality of outcome in political representation (Verge 2013).

Argentinian has a bicameral National Congress consists of the Senate (72 seats; members are elected by direct vote; presently one-third of the members being elected every two years for a six-year term) and the Chamber of Deputies (257 seats; members are elected by direct vote; one-half of the members elected every two years to a four-year term). The senators can be indefinitely re-elected. The deputies shall hold office for a term of four years and may be re-elected, but the House shall be renewed every two years. Therefore, for this purpose, those elected for the first

legislative session, after meeting, have to draw lots of deliberations to decide who will leave after the first period. (United Nations, 2004).

Structure and Functions of Executive Arm of Government in Spain and Argentina

The executive power of Spanish government is held by the Prime Minister, the Vice-Prime ministers if appointed, and the ministers. Together they form the council of ministers, the highest decision making body within the government; with political, administrative regulatory functions. The prime minister's pre-eminence among the ministers is emphasized by the fact that he retains power over their appointment and dismissal. (United Nations, 2004).

The government is headed by the prime minister who is appointed by the king, following his investiture by the congress of deputies. He directs the actions of the government and coordinates the functions of other members of the cabinet, without prejudice to powers and direct responsibility of the latter in the discharge of their duties. The government is collectively responsible for its political actions to the Congress of Deputies. The Prime Minister is empowered to propose for the dissolution of the Legislative Chambers, although he may not do so while a censure motion against the cabinet over which he presides is in progress. (United Nations, 2004).

On the hand in Argentina, the President of the Republic is the supreme head of the Nation, head of government and politically responsible for the general administration of the country. The President, in addition to this, is the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces. According to the Constitution of Argentina which was last amended on 22 August, 1994, the President and the Vice-President shall hold their offices for a term of four years, and they may be re-elected or may succeed each other for only one consecutive term. If they have been re-elected, or have succeeded each other, they cannot be elected for either of these two positions but with the interval of one term. (United Nations, 2004).

The Systems of Local Government of Spain and Argentina

The local government level is also described in the constitution it involves provinces and municipalities. Furthermore, the basic law on local government outlines the basic institutions at the municipal and the provincial levels establishes guidelines for the sharing of responsibilities. There are 50 provinces in Spain that are formed by group of municipalities each with their own council; and numerous smaller local entities (around 15,000) of different kinds. Government's Sub-delegates oversee the municipal functions carried out across the province and coordinate the administration of the state and the regional authorities in their area. The provincial council are indirectly elected by the Municipal councils. Municipal Councils are directly elected by the electors and carry out basic functions such as water supply, refuse collection and the building and maintenance of local roads. They have some revenue raising ability but they are heavily dependent on funding from the regional and central budgets.

Each province enacts its own constitution, ensuring municipal autonomy and ruling its scope and content regarding the institutional, political, administrative, economic and financial aspects. The provinces have as well the original domination over the natural resources existing in their territory. The provinces may enter into partial treaties for purposes of the administration of justice, of economic interest and of works of common benefit, with the knowledge of Federal Congress; and may promote their industry, and the construction of government with power of legislation and jurisdiction. Also the people of the City elect directly the head of its government. Since the City of Buenos Aires is the country's capital, a law is made to guarantee the interest of the state.

Evolution, Philosophy and Operational Patterns of Bureaucracies of Spain and Argentina

The Spanish bureaucracy operates a career system of administration rather than the position-based system as obtainable in most developed countries, especially the United States of America (Sonechez-Motos, 2007). The Spanish public servants are generally referred to as 'Public Administration Employees' and are broadly categorized into two groups; those under Administrative Relationship and those under Civil Labor Contract. The first group-administrative relationists constitute the main core of Spanish bureaucracy and they occupy the key

administrative and executive functions, while the second group-labour contracts are usually few in number and carry out secondary type of functions and jobs (Cohel, 1985).

The structure of Spanish bureaucracy is *classic* in nature as in the 19th Century it was patterned after that of France and Germany. In 1918, attempt was made to abolish the spoil system of recruitment into the bureaucracy with the promulgation of the 1918 Maura Statute for the Civil Service. The statute was primarily aimed at creating a more stable and professionalized civil service based on merit. (Sonechez-Motos, 2007).

The next step taken to professionalize the Spanish bureaucracy was the making of the civil Service Law of 1964 under the Franco dictatorial technocratic period, where the governments were made up mainly of technocrats, most of them educated abroad in other European countries and America. The Law introduced several changes, prominent among them were;

- (a) Classification of each employee in categories inside each corps disappeared
- (b) The structural administrative career disappeared
- (c) A new technique for job classification was introduced
- (d) Besides the corps remuneration components, some supplements appeared. One of them linked to job level (level supplement grade), which others were linked to the promulgation of working hours (special commitment) or to the corps, but within internal distribution made by the corps leadership, generally with a hierarchical approach.
- (e) The job positions were linked, in practice, to the employee professional qualifications.

The Current Civil Service Reform

The latest civil service reform of Spain is the 1984 Reform which determined the current operational pattern and structure of the Spanish bureaucracy. The current remuneration system was established by Law 30 of 2 August, 1984. This law introduced a deep change in the national civil service and its corps, permitting the unification and modification of the corps and giving instructions to make the necessary studies to classify the job upon which basis for administrative career will be articulated. The law modifies the remuneration system giving priority to those remunerations that are linked to the occupation of the job positions. (Spanish Civil Service Reform, 1984:42-51).

The Main Characteristics of the New System are;

- (a) The law is fully applicable to the National Civil Service and to the civil employees of the military administration.
- (b) An important part of this law called *Basic Regulation* applies to the civil service of the autonomous regions and local municipalities.
- (c) All civil services job positions are structured 30 levels or grades
- (d) The number and types of job positions of each administrative unit will be those that appear on its own job positions.
- (e) An identity between the corps and the functions of the civil service no longer exists. Nevertheless, the job positions list may determine the corps of civil servants that may perform those functions.
- (f) Civil servants are broadly classified into five groups (A, B, C, D and E), depending on the level of academic qualification and areas of study that are required to enter the Corps.

As noted earlier, the Spanish administrative system owes most of its present structure from the French administration exported by Napoleon. The transition from Franco's dictatorship to the democracy in 1978 has involved some fundamental macro changes that have shaped the structure of the civil service. On one hand, Spain has evolved from one unitary state towards seventeen unitary states (Comunidades Autonomas) through a process of regionalization. The new regions have followed in a mimetic fashion the pattern of the central ministries and the national civil service. The 'federalization' of the system has had some influences on the features of the civil service. On the other hand, the advent of political parties has shifted away the powers of grand corps inside bureaucracy and the degree of politicization has increased considerably since early eighties. (United Nations, 2004).

Legal Basis of the bureaucracy

The present civil service system was created by the 1984 Act of Parliament, which, among other things, grants more freedom to each individual regional authority to regulate its civil service and reduces the power of the corps. This procedure makes personnel systems more operational and more responsive to local needs.

Recruitment

Entry to public administration is achieved through a public competition examination, which normally consists of memorizing several dozen topics and of a practical exercise to show reasoning skills. Access to civil service is normally centralized through the Public Employment Office, for which ministries propose about their needs of new staff and corps members cannot be in majority in the examination board. Entry has been restricted as a consequence of a tight policy to cut down public sector expenditure and also after the devolution of several functions from central authorities. Between 1990 and 1997, only 8,000 new employees have entered Central Administration. The Central Civil Service unit is imposing a tight control on recruitment, so that only agencies at central level are understaffed are allowed to increase personnel. However, before recruitment outside staff, central units of civil service are trying to bargain with trade unions the compulsory mobility among central ministries from overstaffed agencies whose functions have already been devolved to regional authorities that still deliver services to the citizens (post office, employment office, social security, etc). Against this policy, agencies have reacted using intensively temporary contracts for jobs of structural nature. As a consequence of this policy, the capacity to recruit staff both for corps and agencies has been highly restricted.

Promotion

Once the exam has been passed, a civil servant receives an initial grade and each grade can be consolidated in the personal record after two years in the post of the same level or of a higher level. The 1984 reform tried to weaken the grand corps through the introduction of a 'post' system, grouping posts into levels or ranks (7 to 30) and setting down educational requirements for entry into those levels upto 29, posts are filled through merit concurs, whilst posts at level 30 are filled through a non-meritocratic process. The incumbent of a post in level 30 must leave office at the will of the recruiter or of an incoming superior post holder. The civil servant that holds an office at this level may be downgraded to an inferior post but still remains the status of grade 30 is deputy general director. This is the top of the career within the civil service. Theoretically, each civil servant should receive the initial grade of the group they belong to i.e civil servants from A group should start at level 20. In practice, the situation is quite different. Political appointees could come from the civil service or from outside. In this category, there are basically three tiers include:

- (a) Appointment in the top tier, ministerial level is made by prime minister through a decree endorsed by the king
- (b) Appointments to the second (junior ministers, under-secretary and general secretary)
- (c) Appointment to the general director rank are made by decree of the government (prime ministers), on the recommendations of the competent minister or junior minister.

Remuneration

The group in which the corps is included and the personal grade of civil servants are relevant for payment. The payment system is common to all civil servants while the department determines pay scales for contractual and blue-collar workers. There are four main components that can be treated in two different sets; that basic salary and *Trienios* represent from 30 to 50 per cent of total remuneration depending on the administrative level and post held. *Trienios* is a fixed amount granted every three years of service and guaranteed allowances make the second major bulk of the whole salary. There are three main allowances; rank allowance (depending on the particular features of the job) and individual allowance (similar to the concept of performance-related payment which relies upon the productivity of a person). For all hierarchical levels, salary and rank allowance are set down in the Annual Budget Law, whilst each ministry determines posting allowance and individual allowance. In reality, however, the individual allowance is

normally agreed upon with relevant trade union for each administrative level and only in extreme cases the superior will deny the performance-related payment competent to a public servant.

The basic redistributions of upper level posts are based mostly on post allowance, while the basic redistributions for lower level posts depends on salary. The use of post allowance counterbalances the non-distributary effects of the basic salary established in the annual budgetary law. Posting allowances differ considerably among posts for which a person with the same consolidated grade is required. In some ways, the search for posts with better salary constitutes an informal career of civil servants. In some cases, the only competitive dimension of public sector employment is job security. The salaries of high rank officials cannot compete with salaries in private enterprises.

The Public Management of Argentinean Department, linked to the Presidency, has the mission of being aware of the process of modernization of the state, as well to assist the Executive Branch in policies related to this issue. Furthermore, it deals with state guidelines for procurement issues, training, human resources, public modernization and e-government. (Easton, 2008).

The Argentinean bureaucracy has a legal basis by virtue of Law Number 25,164/1999 is the National Public Employment Regulation. This normalizes the duties and rights of the national Argentinean civil servants. It establishes also that its articles possess general characteristics, and for specific situations concerning public employment, there should happen collective negotiation. It is relevant to inform the Decree number 624/2003, which establishes the Public Administration Secretariat as the agency in charge of modernization of the state in Argentina. This agency has to deal with the Argentinean Administrative Structure, with issues as; human resources; quality in public sector; negotiation and conflict mediation; training; e-government; and procurement. As well, the organization deals with those topics in its intergovernmental relations, with provinces and municipalities.

Training

The National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) is the organization in charge of dealing with training and educational policies. It has three (3) areas;

- Managers' Training Program; prepares coaching activities and offers academic courses to employees in higher positions, by cooperation with accredited national/international institutions
- Permanent Development Program; instructs public servants who work in the support level
- Management Quality Program; develops quality criteria from training public policy actors in government, defines quality standards for those procedures and supports human resources'

Gender

Although the amount of women who are civil servants in Argentina is almost the same as men's, there is preponderance of those latter in directive positions (A & E): 14% of men are there in opposition to 10% of women. Also, on lowest levels (support levels E & F), there is a prevalence of 31% of men versus 25% of women. Only on the intermediate level, there happens to have more women-65% against 55%.

Findings, Conclusion and Discussion

Having discussed the histo-political evolution and development of both Spain and Argentina in terms of political development, the nature of the structure and organization of government institutions, the bureaucracy and administrative procedures in both countries under study, it is pertinent, at this juncture, to make some salient areas of similarities and dissimilarities of the countries.

To begin with, both Spain and Argentina had experienced political crisis and civil unrest (civil wars) in their political histories which led to the emergence of, out of war, some powerful ruling classes whom had ruled for decades in the two countries. Unlike Spain where the unrest was characterized by revolution by the masses to get rid of the perceived protracted monarchical dictatorship, the crises in Argentina were mainly for the emancipation of Spanish occupation and colonization and consciousness for self-rule and subsequently for independence. Moreover, the

political unrest in Argentina had led to the polarization of the masses into two major groups; the *Unitarians* and the *Federalists* and that had played significant role in the slowness of nationalist movement for independence. On the other hand, in Spain, no such polarization was experienced, except that of external influences which nearly divided the ruling elites. While Spain was actively involved in the major European Wars in 16th century, Argentina was busy unifying the internally polarized groups in fighting for independence and sovereignty.

In terms of system of government, both countries operate democratic system of government though on different frameworks. While Spain practices parliamentary monarchy with the real executive powers vested in the Prime Minister and ceremonial powers rest on the King, as the Head of State and Supreme Head of the Armed Forces, Argentina operates a presidential system of government with the President as the Head of State, Head of the government and Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces. In the light of this distinction, the principle of separation of powers and checks and balances is more explicit in Argentina than in Spain. In Argentina, there is a limit for holding executive powers in that, the President and the Vice-President are elected for a four-year term and may be reelected for another four-year term, while in Spain, the Prime Minister, who is the head of government, alongside his cabinet members, is elected from within the cabinet and has no definite period of tenure in as much as he/she has the supports and confidence of the Cabinet.

In terms of legislative powers, both countries operate bi-cameral legislature. The Spanish parliament known as *Cortes Generales*, comprises of two Houses; Senate (*Senado*) and the Congress of Deputies. The Senate consists of two hundred and fifty-nine (259) seats, out of which (208) hundred and eight members are directly elected by popular votes and the other fifty-one (51) appointed by the Regional Legislatures to serve for four-year term and the Congress of Deputies consists of three hundred and fifty (350) seats are elected by popular votes on block list by proportional representation to serve for four-year term. The Spanish constitution makes an explicit provision for women in politics policy (WIP) with 36% women in Lower House while 23.2% of women in the Senate. While in Argentina, there is no outright constitutional stipulation on the percentage or number of women in the Argentina Legislature.

Like Spain, the Argentinean legislature is bicameral in nature. The National Congress consists of the Senate (seventy-two (72) seats; members are elected by direct vote; presently one-third of the members being elected every two years to a four-year term). The senators can be indefinitely re-elected. The Deputies shall hold office for a term of four years and may be re-elected, but the House shall be renewed every two years. Therefore, for the purpose of those elected for the first legislative session, after meeting, have to draw a series of elaborate discussion and technical legislative decisions about who will leave after the first period. But unlike Spanish legislature, the Argentinean constitution does not make a clear-cut provision for women in politics policy. Unlike in Spain too, with a uniform electoral period of all house members, the Argentinean constitution provides that one-half of the members must be elected every two years to a four-year term.

In terms of administrative structures and processes in both countries, bureaucracy is the first major administrative organ for policy initiation and implementation. Both Spanish and Argentinean bureaucracies operate career system of administration. By virtue of the 1984 Act of Spanish Parliament, and Law 25,164/1999 Argentinean National Public Employment Regulation, the bureaucracies of both countries are professionalized in that every entry into the system is purely based on merit by sitting for and passing competitive examinations. But unlike in the Spanish Bureaucracy which exerts more influence and tightly regulates regional bureaucracies, the Argentinean Bureaucracy grants more autonomy and freedom to regional bureaucracies to operate with some little control in staff recruitment and promotions as well as retirement.

Also, by virtue of Law 30 of 2 August, 1984, spoils system in the Spanish bureaucracy was abolished and made *classic* in nature, patterned after that of France. Hence, more importance is therefore attached to educational qualification of the bureaucrats, strict adherence to rules and procedures and technical competency of the bureaucrats. On the other hand, the Argentinean bureaucracy is linked to the Presidency and has the mission of being aware of the procedures and processes of modernization of state as well as assists the executive branch in policy-related issues.

While in Argentina, the skills and personal ability to handle situations and solve problems are more considered in personnel recruitment into the bureaucracy, like the American bureaucracy, rather than strict adherence to levels of educational qualifications as to what is obtainable in Spain.

In terms of promotions, in Spain, a promotion examination must be taken and passed (pass mark depends on the rate of failure, positions applied and number of number of applicants and available vacancies) for officers to be promoted to into levels or ranks 07 to 30. However, up to level 29, posts were filled through merit concur; whilst posts at level 30 are filled through a non-meritocratic process and this must be internally made. On the other hand, promotions into Argentinean bureaucracy is done in two ways; both internally and externally. The first system is the system of closed selection, which allows people who are already in government be reallocated. The second is by open general selection which allows employees in the private sectors and others who have the minimum requirements needed for the position aspired. Therefore, it could be observed that Spanish bureaucracy operates a closed system of promotion, while Argentina operates an open-closed system of promotion. Finally, while Spain explicitly makes special provision for women's participation in politics, Argentina rather make such an explicit participation of women in administration.

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