

# Serving the Nation: Devolution and the Civil Service in Wales

Alistair Cole

*The article captures the evolution of the moving object of Welsh devolution over its first decade through a case study of the civil service in Wales. Three positions are proposed as heuristics for understanding politico-administrative relations in devolved Wales: these are administrative persistence, capacity-building and bureaucratic capture. Rather than set these dynamics against each other, the case study of the civil service in Wales demonstrates the value of reasoning in terms of a mix of administrative, political and managerial pressures, requiring the development of hybrid responses and skills. Although the institutional capacity-building dynamic clearly had the ascendancy during the first decade, as the post-devolution Welsh polity gradually becomes more settled, there is likely to be a revival of more generic administrative and/or managerial concerns.*

**Keywords:** Wales; devolution; civil service; bureaucracy

This article captures the evolution of the moving object of devolution over its first decade (more precisely from July 1999 to May 2010) through a case study of the civil service in Wales. Devolved government in Wales is investigated through the experience of the top civil service, both as a group and in terms of interactions with the new political class created by devolution. This area is largely under-explored (see also Parry 2001, 2004 and 2008; Prosser et al. 2006; Trench 2007). Why is this research endeavour interesting? There is a genuine puzzle revolving around how a previously constituted bureaucratic organisation and its actors adapt to a situation of rapid institutional change which might be interpreted as undermining a number of core 'civil service' values (Parry 2001). How civil servants react to a burgeoning and native political class in particular is a matter for empirical investigation of the type that can only be undertaken through sustained empirical research over the temporal long term (the first decade of devolution). Evidence is mainly presented in the form of semi-structured interviews carried out at three distinct periods throughout the decade: in 2001–02, midway through the first Assembly; in 2004, during the second Assembly; and in 2010, towards the end of the One Wales coalition of Labour and Plaid Cymru.<sup>1</sup> Individual interviews provide important evidence about the conduct of politico-administrative relationships, fuller accounts than would be possible in any written documents.<sup>2</sup> The method adopted is the most appropriate one for the task in hand; namely, to capture the experience over time of one particularly important yet neglected group at the heart of devolved government.

In an important work, Vernon Bogdanor (1999) evokes three dimensions of devolution: the transfer of power to an elected (but ultimately subordinate) assembly or parliament; the transfer of competencies on a geographical basis; and the transfer of competencies hitherto exercised by the Westminster parliament. In practice, devolution has produced three distinct 'sub-national' regimes, testament to historical

1 contingencies and variable political identities and social demands in Scotland,  
2 Northern Ireland and Wales. England alone has no meaningful devolved institu-  
3 tions and retains in an exaggerated form the key features of a unitary state.  
4 Devolution has proceeded on the basis of the recognition of specific historical claims  
5 and *ad hoc* political and social demands, rather than embracing formal territorial  
6 principles that grant a constitutional status to sub-national governments.

## 8 **A Framework of Analysis**

9 The title of this article—Serving the Nation—begs the question, ‘what sort of state  
10 is the contemporary United Kingdom?’, the understanding of which is germane for  
11 appreciating the role of territorially based civil servants. The UK is clearly not a  
12 federal state, either of the co-operative or competitive variety, though it contains  
13 some quasi-federal elements within it. There is no detailed description of compe-  
14 tencies in a written constitution, or a constitutionally guaranteed territorial order.  
15 Likewise, a description of the UK as a regional state of the Spanish variety would be  
16 highly misleading; there are, at present, no meaningful democratic regional insti-  
17 tutions in England. The failure of the referendum in the north-east in 2004 laid to  
18 rest hopes of democratic English regions before the Conservative-led Coalition  
19 government abolished the regional development agencies altogether in 2010. Given  
20 the asymmetry of the UK post-devolution, however, it is clearly not a unitary state  
21 along the lines of the French one. Not only does experience of the state vary  
22 spatially, but there is no strong republican ideology upon which to base a principle  
23 of territorial uniformity, or overarching revolutionary moment to recalibrate  
24 centre–periphery relationships. The historic compromise between Scotland and  
25 England took the form of an Act of Union, and the fusion of two existing parlia-  
26 ments, rather than a pure absorption. After 1707 Scotland retained many distinc-  
27 tive features, including a separate education system, established church and a legal  
28 system based on Roman law. No such latitude was granted to Wales, whose Act of  
29 Union with England in 1536, and its subsequent interpretation, left much less room  
30 for identifying a distinct territorial basis for legislative or administrative action.

31 The UK has singularly lacked a continental European state tradition. It has failed to  
32 theorise the nature of its own state form or even to acknowledge the existence of  
33 a state, preferring to navigate the doctrines of crown privilege and parliamentary  
34 sovereignty (Dyson 2010). But, in practice, a British state model evolved which was  
35 highly London-centric, based on the unwritten and informal norms of the com-  
36 bined Westminster and Whitehall models. Adopting a *longue durée* perspective, Jim  
37 Bulpitt (1983) characterised the British elite’s operation and way of thinking since  
38 the late 17th century in terms of a ‘dual polity’. At the top, the elite was socialised  
39 into parliament (‘Westminster’) and into the civil service (‘Whitehall’), and con-  
40 cerned itself with the core functions of the state (foreign policy, diplomacy, taxa-  
41 tion). In its Whitehall guise, the model stressed anonymity, a culture of secrecy, a  
42 principle of ‘behind closed doors’ interactions and the support of formal doctrines  
43 of (political) accountability such as individual ministerial responsibility. The linked  
44 Whitehall and Westminster models justified politico-administrative interactions in  
45 a centralised microcosm with few links to provincial society. With the exception of  
46 the Thatcher period (1979–90), central responses to territorial pressures involved

1 developing empirical solutions to deal with problems as they arose. In keeping with  
2 its ideology of the limited state, the formal apparatus of the centre was kept small.  
3 In the British 'dual polity' tradition, local government provided and administered  
4 services, a role shared with special purpose agencies and, in Wales, Scotland and  
5 Northern Ireland, with territorial departments in the form of the Scottish (1886–  
6 1999), Northern Ireland and Welsh (1964–99) Offices.

7  
8 This brief survey is extremely important, in so far as maintaining the unified (i.e.  
9 British) home civil service was presented during the devolution debates in Scotland  
10 and Wales as one of the key safeguards for the future cohesion of the United  
11 Kingdom. The phrase senior civil service usually describes leading officials (grade 1  
12 to 7) serving London-based functional ministries. But in Scotland and Wales, the  
13 development of increasingly powerful and decentralised territorial administrative  
14 offices from the late 19th century also created a cadre of civil servants located in  
15 Edinburgh and, later on, Cardiff. By 1997, the Welsh Office was responsible for 70  
16 per cent of total public expenditure in Wales (Jones 2000). Much of the argument <sup>2</sup>  
17 put forward by pro-devolution campaigners concerned the desire to move away  
18 from the secretive world of the Welsh Office administration and towards more open  
19 and accountable government (Morgan and Mungham 2000; Laffin and Thomas  
20 2001). As the leading civil servants of the day formed part of this 'secretive and  
21 unaccountable' system, it might be surmised that they would hold ambivalent  
22 views about devolution.

23  
24 My case study of the civil service in Wales is informed by three theses that I label  
25 as administrative persistence, capacity-building and bureaucratic capture. Admin-  
26 istrative persistence, my first thesis, draws theoretical sustenance from literatures in  
27 public management on the power of context and the weight of continuity (Argyis  
28 1964; Ferlie 2004; Prosser et al. 2006). Observing the civil service over the decade  
29 of devolution might lend support to the persistence of existing administrative  
30 traditions. The traditional understanding of the British civil service is in terms of the  
31 'Whitehall model', comprising the prominent traits of the political neutrality of civil  
32 servants, the tradition of the administrative 'generalist', lifelong career paths and  
33 the strong policy-advice role exercised by top officials (Pyper 1995; Page 2010). In  
34 the case of Wales, these traditional features of the Whitehall model were exercised  
35 in the Welsh Office (1964–99), a territorial rather than a functional department.  
36 The (politically driven) retention of the home civil service in the 1998 Devolution  
37 Acts in Wales and Scotland (considered below) might be interpreted as providing an  
38 overarching form of UK-level co-ordination based on retaining the core features of  
39 the British civil service.

40  
41 My second position I describe as that of capacity-building (Cole 2006). Reduced to  
42 its core, capacity-building comprises two closely related but distinct components:  
43 political institutions and policy outputs. Formal institutional capacity refers most  
44 obviously to developing the rule-making potential of political institutions and their  
45 ability to define norms; informally, it also extends to developing (horizontal and  
46 vertical) relationships to maximise the effectiveness of policy outputs. This line of  
47 inquiry builds upon Hugh Hecló and Aaron Wildavsky's description of politico-  
48 administrative interactions in terms of 'village life' (Hecló and Wildavsky 1974;  
49 Peters 2010). There is a common interest in making the *institution* legitimate; in

1 Wales, this is embodied in new slogans such as 'Made in Wales', or the reference to  
2 specific features of small-country governance that are assumed to produce a con-  
3 vergence between politicians and administrators based on a mix of common values,  
4 or at least a common understanding of institutional goals. The second dimension of  
5 the debate on capacity is that of policy capacity, defined by Martin Painter and Jon  
6 Pierre (2005, 2) in terms of 'mobilising the necessary resources to be able to  
7 undertake the right collective choices and to fix strategic orientations for distribut-  
8 ing scarce resources for public goods'. The emphasis on political leadership is one  
9 important dimension of this; another is the development of technical expertise  
10 within the Welsh Assembly Government (WAG).

11  
12 My third thesis I label as that of bureaucratic capture, inspired in particular by the  
13 administrative state model of Joel Aberbach et al. (1981). Can we uncover evidence <sup>3</sup>  
14 of territorial civil servants capturing the governmental machine, or at least resisting  
15 attempts at political direction? Do civil servants use professional standards or  
16 managerial arguments to frame issues in terms of administrative inevitability, or to  
17 justify non-decision-making? (Aberbach and Rockman 2006) Do civil servants have  
18 a monopoly of expertise that they guard jealously, notably against politically nomi-  
19 nated special advisers? Are existing administrative elites able to control any pro-  
20 cesses of management reform that they deem astute to implement? My focus to  
21 answer these questions is mainly on the executive branch known as the Welsh  
22 Assembly Government from around 2001 onwards, and identifiable with increasing  
23 clarity throughout the first decade of devolution.

24  
25 These hypotheses, which are addressed in the next three sections, each generate  
26 new insights. They are not intended as 'equivalent' positions, however, in the form  
27 of logically competing alternatives that can be measured and presented in terms of  
28 a hierarchy of explanations. If they elucidate different dimensions of multi-level  
29 politico-administrative relationships, this is because the civil service in Wales itself  
30 stands at the crossroads of potentially conflicting tendencies that require the bridg-  
31 ing of traditionally distinct objects of empirical analysis, namely politico-  
32 administrative interactions, intergovernmental relations and trends in public  
33 management. The approach adopted facilitates the fine-grained appreciation of the  
34 contextual, temporal and spatial contingencies of politico-administrative relations  
35 in a new institutional context. At one level, the article is a precise, empirically  
36 grounded case study of the civil service in the specific spatial and political context  
37 of UK devolution. At a broader level of generality, however, it engages with generic  
38 dynamics of time and trust, institution-building, professional norms and multi-level  
39 dynamics.

## 41 **Recasting the Whitehall Model**

42 My first perspective is framed in terms of a traditional Weberian model of account-  
43 ability, whereby in return for respect for their professional ethos, civil servants are  
44 expected to serve incumbent governments loyally. The core potential source of  
45 tension relates to *which* government. In the Scotland Act (1998) and the Govern-  
46 ment of Wales Act (1998), the civil servants working for the Welsh and Scottish  
47 devolved administrations remain as part of the home (British) civil service. In the

1 1970s, there had reputedly been some civil service resistance to devolution—and  
2 Welsh civil servants had the same concerns in the run-up to devolution in 1999.  
3 Civil servants were worried about political influence in appointments, the  
4 extended use of special (politically appointed) advisers, and impediments to con-  
5 tacts with Whitehall. By 1997, however, the Scottish and Welsh Offices were the  
6 lead departments charged with drafting the devolution legislation, provided with  
7 back-up from the Cabinet Office (Parry 2001). The retention of the existing Civil  
8 Service Code provided a basis of stability and some instruments of leverage for  
9 officials on their new ministers. The decision to retain the home civil service was  
10 a political one; ministers considered that to move to separate devolved public  
11 services was unnecessary given all the other issues to be resolved in a short period  
12 of time. It probably also reflected the view of some civil servants that informal  
13 norms—the Whitehall way—would continue to ensure smooth co-operation  
14 between civil servants at the elite level. The decision to retain a unified home civil  
15 service was not inevitable. Northern Ireland has its own civil service and the  
16 principle of separate corps—such as the diplomatic service or the armed forces—is  
17 accepted in British public administration.

18  
19 One decade later, there is little discussion or debate over the home civil service link.  
20 In the UK as a whole, the traditional model of neutrality, anonymity and secrecy  
21 had been weakened by outsourcing, flexibility and target-setting since the 1980s,  
22 long before devolution reached the statute books (Dowding 1995; Drewry 1995;  
23 Pyper 1995; Page 2010). All UK government departments have had the freedom  
24 since 1996 to set the pay, gradings and recruitment arrangements of their staff at the  
25 levels below the senior civil service. In terms of senior appointments, the Welsh and  
26 Scottish devolved administrations have both introduced principles of open compe-  
27 tition which necessarily limit the involvement of the UK government (and the civil  
28 service commissioners). In the Welsh case, the 2004 Management Code requires  
29 that all senior grades are open to public tender and external advertising. The  
30 permanent secretaries of Scotland (2003) and Wales (2008) were appointed by  
31 panels wherein the prime minister's authority was delegated to the respective first  
32 ministers.<sup>3</sup> In practice, the main gain from the unified home civil service is the ease  
33 of transfer into the devolved administrations; a number of grade 2 and 3 officials  
34 interviewed began their civil service career in other Whitehall departments.<sup>4</sup>

35  
36 What, if anything, does the Whitehall model or the home civil service represent  
37 today? In interviews carried out in 2010, the home civil service was valued among  
38 top officials in terms of values of political neutrality, public service and high ethical  
39 standards. Among generalists, the model of ethical propriety and independence was  
40 a core attraction of the home civil service which must not be jeopardised. Among  
41 the scientific and technical services (the economists, statisticians, scientists), the  
42 home civil service gave access to UK scientific networks that represented core  
43 benchmarks and repositories of professional expertise. These professional policy  
44 communities developed in importance over the decade as the WAG strengthened its  
45 own capacities. Hence, building devolved expertise depended on retaining access to  
46 the highest professional standards and the broader Whitehall policy community  
47 was important in this respect. Post-devolution officials had to work hard not to be  
48 excluded from these English-dominated networks.

1 The second relevant dimension of discussion of the Whitehall model relates to  
2 intergovernmental relations within the broader British context. As this has been  
3 extensively investigated by Alan Trench (2005 and 2007), Richard Parry (2004),  
4 Rosanne Palmer (2008) and others, I will limit my investigation to interactions at  
5 the level of officials. Specifically writing on devolution, Parry (2004, 50) identifies  
6 two contrasting models of intergovernmental relations: 'diplomacy' and 'interde-  
7 partmental'. The interdepartmental style is the prevalent one in British politics.  
8 There is close connection between civil servants of Whitehall departments, sharing  
9 information and briefings. There is the expectation that policy advice will be given  
10 to ministers, and that the role of external policy advisers will be limited. The  
11 diplomatic style is akin to the interaction of sovereign powers whose powers are set  
12 out by protocols and procedures. The underlying assumption of devolution was that  
13 the interdepartmental style would normally prevail, but that diplomatic mecha-  
14 nisms would be put into place in case this did not work—or if nationalist parties  
15 arrived in office. In this spirit, a Memorandum of Understanding of 1998 set out the  
16 ground rules for interactions between the devolved administrations and the UK  
17 government. Concordats, devolution guidance notes and working-level agreements  
18 filled out many of the practical details (Trench 2007). Consistent with the principle  
19 of 'behind closed doors', informal mechanisms of intergovernmental relations have  
20 been favoured, symbolised by regular contacts between high-level civil servants  
21 promoted by the Cabinet Office and the head of the civil service, and the weekly  
22 meetings of the permanent secretaries, including those of the Welsh and Scottish  
23 administrations.

24 From the perspective of civil servants in Wales an evolution might be observed,  
25 from early tensions with Whitehall departments, through to the distancing of  
26 relationships at elite and middle-ranking levels and a gradual weakening of insti-  
27 tutional memory and of Whitehall networks over time.

28 According to one well-placed interviewee: 'For the first two years of devolution,  
29 there were a lot of conflicts with Whitehall departments'.<sup>5</sup> Consistent with the  
30 strong departmental traditions within the British civil service, relationships were to  
31 some extent dependent on the specific attitudes of central government ministries  
32 (which sometimes, but not always, were rooted in legal competencies). The  
33 response of Whitehall departments to devolution varied according to policy issue-  
34 area, stage of devolution and personal relationships. In the 2001–02 round, inter-  
35 viewees were generally critical of the lack of consistent principles steering relations  
36 between London and Cardiff. Some departments 'have been better than others' at  
37 understanding what devolution is about. The then Department of the Environ-  
38 ment, Transport and the Regions (DETR)<sup>6</sup> had sought to retain traditional powers of  
39 regulation of local government and attempted to impose the 'best value' policy  
40 irrespective of Welsh wishes. The Department of Agriculture and Rural Affairs  
41 (DEFRA) was the next worst culprit. Other departments had integrated devolution  
42 into their thinking. The Department of Education and the Department for Health  
43 had from the outset been more flexible, anticipating developments in Wales, as well  
44 as incorporating Welsh-inspired ideas into primary legislation. These accounts  
45 concur with those of other observers such as Trench (2005) for whom, in the case  
46 of Wales, the chief complaint is one of inconsistent treatment across government  
47 departments.

1 The autonomy of Whitehall departments and the role of individual gatekeepers and  
2 veto players are central in these accounts. Although these very different relation-  
3 ships across Whitehall departments can in part be explained by personal relations  
4 ('and you can't legislate for personalities'), more important is how the devolved/  
5 non-devolved split runs through a Whitehall department. In the case of Health, for  
6 example, some policy areas remained with central government—such as the regu-  
7 lation of the medical profession, or abortion—but everything else (90 per cent of all  
8 health areas) has been devolved. In this case, the relationship is mainly about  
9 benchmarking. The relationship was initially different with Education. Issues such  
10 as teachers' pay or student grants were not devolved in 2002, but the Assembly had  
11 a strong interest in these issues. By 2004, the devolution of higher education  
12 (including student fees) gave the WAG a greater input regarding the university  
13 sector. By 2004 also, DEFRA had lost influence through the reform of the Common  
14 Agricultural Policy (CAP) and the adoption by the WAG of a specific methodology  
15 for administering the CAP. Furthermore, the WAG had adopted a distinctive stance  
16 towards local government regulation and public services provision with the  
17 'Making the Connections' agenda.<sup>7</sup> Even in devolution-hostile sectors such as  
18 transport, there was a gradual increase in powers for the devolved authorities  
19 (Bradbury and Stafford 2010).

20 The nature of Cardiff–Whitehall contacts changed over the decade, in part as a  
21 result of harsh conflicts in relation to specific England and Wales acts or Legislative  
22 Competence Orders (LCOs).<sup>8</sup> Greater expertise was accrued within the WAG to  
23 negotiate with Whitehall, notably through joining Bill Teams in Westminster or  
24 operating 'LCO units' within WAG departments.<sup>9</sup> Political pressures could pull in  
25 conflicting directions. When not engaged in turf wars, among interviewees in  
26 2001–04 the belief was widespread that the Whitehall machine did little actively to  
27 seek out the expertise of the civil servants based in the devolved territories, when,  
28 indeed, it did not simply ignore Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In the words  
29 of one official with experience of Cardiff and London, 'there is great ignorance in  
30 Whitehall about Wales and devolution'.<sup>10</sup> By the time of the 2010 round of inter-  
31 views, civil servants declared themselves robust in terms of defending their pre-  
32 rogatives and in advocating Welsh interests in England and Wales bills. Especially  
33 after the passage of the 2006 Government of Wales Act, they felt better equipped to  
34 stand up to the devolution-sceptic Whitehall officials through insisting on their  
35 legal prerogatives.<sup>11</sup>

36 It lies beyond the scope of this article to engage in a fuller discussion of intergov-  
37 ernmental relations. If, for most of the first decade of devolution, intergovernmen-  
38 tal relations involved a set of piecemeal arrangements, unwritten understandings  
39 and interpersonal contacts, by 2010 there had been an increasing resort to using  
40 'diplomatic' instruments such as the Joint Ministerial Council (JMC), especially  
41 since the arrival in power of the Scottish National party (SNP) in Scotland in 2007.  
42 This development is likely to be reinforced by the Conservative–Liberal Democrat  
43 coalition's 'respect' agenda. Formal mechanisms of intergovernmental relations are  
44 likely to be more important in a context of divided party control and political  
45 asymmetry. In the broader UK context, the diplomatic model was given a boost by  
46 the agreement of a new Memorandum of Understanding, published in March 2010,  
47 with a disputes resolution procedure and a commitment between the governments

1 to have a regular programme of meetings under the JMC umbrella (UK Parliament  
2 2010). By the end of the decade the pendulum was shifting towards intergovern-  
3 mental diplomacy.  
4

### 5 **Village Life?**

6 My second thesis brought forth the metaphor of village life, a sense of common  
7 purpose and a blurring of the distinction between politics and administration. There  
8 is a common interest in making the *institution* legitimate; in Wales, this is embodied  
9 in narratives of joined-up governance and the dynamics of scale. The village life  
10 metaphor also relates to issues of transparency and accountability, and hence breaks  
11 quite sharply with some of the older conventions of public service such as secrecy  
12 and anonymity. The early interviews uncovered an unsettled civil service where  
13 civil servants were far busier than during the old Welsh Office, where they enjoyed  
14 much closer relationships with ministers in the post-devolution period than previ-  
15 ously, when they were more involved in policy delivery and where they functioned  
16 in a 'goldfish bowl' of transparency and accountability (Cole et al. 2003). The civil  
17 service became much more focused on service delivery as a result of devolution, in  
18 part because the new ministers adopted a 'local government' rather than a 'central  
19 government' viewpoint, but especially because ministers were determined to make  
20 a difference. Almost one decade later, the novel features identified in the early  
21 round of interviews had become constants of politico-administrative interactions  
22 and were deeply ingrained in the policy-making style of Welsh devolution. The key  
23 shift over the period was from the National Assembly for Wales being a 'corporate  
24 body' to a clear separation of executive and legislative functions in the 2006  
25 Government of Wales Act, a development with which top officials felt very  
26 comfortable.

27 In response to the question 'how has life changed under devolution?', *all* inter-  
28 viewees in 2001–02 complained of their increased workload. One official working  
29 in the Training and Education department reported a more widely diffused senti-  
30 ment: 'We are *much* busier than before. We are dealing with one minister—Jane  
31 Davidson—whereas previously I dealt with Peter Hain, the secretary of state, who  
32 was involved with everything'.<sup>12</sup> Officials had to prepare for and occasionally  
33 appear in front of committees, something for which most of them had no previous  
34 experience. One consequence of this increased activity was that there was 'a lot less  
35 thinking time', while ministers were constantly demanding higher levels of exper-  
36 tise and imposing a set of procedures (equality of opportunity, environmental  
37 sustainability and promotion of the Welsh language) that built extensive  
38 co-operation into the organisational mores of the Assembly. The sense of being  
39 overburdened was pervasive in the early interviews, as was the belief that adequate  
40 resources had not matched increased responsibilities. To quote one official:

41       During the Welsh Office days, we were staffed as an offshoot of Whitehall,  
42       relying on the lead department of Whitehall to do the bulk of the legwork.  
43       We tuned government policy to the Welsh perspective. We are now being  
44       asked to act as a free-standing government.<sup>13</sup>

45 This increased activity could be explained by the determination of ministers to  
46 make a difference. Whereas the secretary of state had been hands-off, with a very



1 broad and general brief, the WAG was much more interventionist. In the past  
2 regime, ministers rarely engaged with civil servants. The briefs of ministers were  
3 inter-ministerial and communications tended to be by written documents, rather  
4 than face-to-face contact. As there were only three ministers—the secretary of state  
5 and two junior ministers—they were heavily reliant for their information on the  
6 Welsh Office civil servants.<sup>14</sup> This dependency allowed civil servants to develop their  
7 ideas at a leisurely pace. Since 1999, there has been much closer contact with  
8 ministers. Informally, heads of department are in contact with ministers on a daily  
9 basis. For mid-ranking officials, contact ranges from supporting the minister in  
10 committee to organising internal meetings and assisting the minister in outside  
11 meetings. The nature of contacts between ministers and civil servants has changed  
12 in various ways. Ministers are now much more accessible. Moreover, civil servants  
13 now have more opportunity to be in contact with politicians of a different political  
14 hue, particularly during periods of coalition such as the One Wales government.  
15 Above all, there are now far more ministers, each ambitious in their own policy  
16 field. By the end of the first decade there was a cadre of very experienced ministers,  
17 who had ‘developed a considerable expertise’ in their subject area, who knew how  
18 to be a minister and who were unlikely to accept civil service advice uncritically.<sup>15</sup>  
19 In terms of role reversal, one interlocutor contrasted the longevity in office of WAG  
20 ministers with cabinet experience with the high turnover of senior officials—the  
21 precise reverse of the stereotypical Whitehall model.<sup>16</sup>

22 Defining the devolutionary project in terms of joined-up public service delivery and  
23 against market solutions (believed to prevail in England) was a constitutive article  
24 of faith for many leading officials in Wales (Martin and Webb 2009). In the 2010  
25 round of interviews, references to Team Wales, to the Beecham agenda,<sup>17</sup> to  
26 co-operative modes of public service delivery, to policy innovation, to ‘genuinely  
27 joining up’ policy were diffused across the cadre of Welsh civil servants irrespective  
28 of their origins.<sup>18</sup> At an elite level, at least, actors believed in a ‘Wales effect’. In the  
29 opinion of one interlocutor: ‘We’ve got better structures in Wales than in England.  
30 We’ve got Team Wales, we’re small and we work closely together’. The reference to  
31 ‘Team Wales’, to signify the common sense of belonging to a territory with a strong  
32 identity, was believed to play in favour of developing closer relationships across  
33 organisations and encouraging personal contacts between the main organisational  
34 stakeholders. Much more than during the Welsh Office days, the civil servants  
35 interviewed believed they could perform a key role in orchestrating these horizon-  
36 tal contacts. The process of joining up was as important as the outcomes of being  
37 joined up. In the words of one interlocutor: ‘collaboration is the name of the game,  
38 partnership’s the name of the game, people understanding one another’s agendas  
39 and working on a spatial basis is the name of the game’.<sup>19</sup> These representations of  
40 reality are important in cognitive-normative terms, in so far as they are articulated  
41 by actors to make sense of their role and fuse personal, institutional and profes-  
42 sional experiences.

43 In the follow-up interviews with Welsh civil servants in 2009–10, these core findings  
44 were confirmed as constants in the life of senior officials. The follow-up round of  
45 interviews revealed one apparent paradox that elucidates well the organisational  
46 ambition of the WAG. Although the belief in a Welsh public service was widely held,  
47 at the top end the senior civil service had become rather *less* recognisably Welsh than

1 under the Welsh Office. Of the top officials interviewed in 2010, a number had been  
2 transferred from UK government departments—the Treasury, Education, Cabinet  
3 Office—from international associations such as Greenpeace or from bodies such as the  
4 NHS. As the WAG is fully in control of recruiting its top cadres, so it has sought to attract  
5 the best talent available through using head-hunting agencies and negotiating  
6 individual terms and conditions. This is less paradoxical than it seems at first sight. As  
7 the permanent secretary stressed, the WAG needs the best people for the job—  
8 wherever they come from.<sup>20</sup>

9  
10 Civil servants are more than ever required to be generalists. Even those specialists  
11 who, upon recruitment, are dedicated to ‘serving their science’ become generalists  
12 in order to ‘succeed and survive’.<sup>21</sup> As the WAG is a ‘mini-Whitehall’, so officials are  
13 required to demonstrate their multitasking abilities. The successful official needs, in  
14 the words of one civil servant, to be a ‘jack of all trades’, able to cover the ground  
15 of four–five colleagues in a standard Whitehall department. In spite of its growth,  
16 the WAG remains a modest-sized department to run all activities of a free-standing  
17 government. Moreover, officials need to master non-devolved areas as well, which  
18 spill over into their activity. On the other hand, professional specialists have gained  
19 in strength within the organisation. The first decade of devolution was marked by  
20 the development of the statistical and analytical services, of experts in political  
21 communications and marketing, along with the emergence of a far more sophisti-  
22 cated human resources policy. Strengthening the technical capacities of the WAG  
23 has produced ambitious specialists who are anxious to tie into tighter UK-wide  
24 professional networks of economists, statisticians, scientists and medical officials,  
25 and who look to the broader UK context for professional accreditation and repu-  
26 tation. In this respect, as in others, the 2010 round of interviews also revealed a  
27 senior civil service that was beginning to develop a harder managerial edge.

## 28 29 **Bureaucratic Capture?**

30 In the specific area of politico-administrative relations, three core developments  
31 would appear to run counter to any interpretation based on bureaucratic capture;  
32 these concern the strengthening of the first minister’s office, the role of special  
33 advisers, and attempts by the political executive to intervene in the broad debate  
34 about who is a public servant.

35  
36 The most significant development has been the emergence of a recognisable Welsh  
37 political and partisan leadership, symbolised for most of the period by the figure of  
38 Labour First Minister Rhodri Morgan and the rhetoric of ‘clear red water’. Over the  
39 decade, we observe a strengthening of bureaucratic and advisory resources at the  
40 disposal of the political leadership in general and the first minister in particular. As  
41 in Scotland, the first minister has developed his own powerful group of  
42 advisers—in part civil servants, in part political appointees—with particular exper-  
43 tise in the area of European Union policy (Lynch 2006; Palmer 2008). The lon-  
44 gevity of First Minister Morgan’s tenure (almost 10 years) had as a by-product the  
45 soaking up of new responsibilities within what has become the Department of First  
46 Minister in Cabinet. Under First Minister Carwyn Jones, the Department of First  
47 Minister in Cabinet was described by insiders as part of the ‘strategic centre’, with

1 responsibilities for the office of the first minister, the Cabinet Secretariat (which  
2 plans and co-ordinates the cabinet's work programme), the ministerial support  
3 division, constitutional affairs and public administration, Europe and external  
4 affairs, communications and knowledge and analytical services.<sup>22</sup>

5  
6 The second core development has been the introduction of special advisers (com-  
7 monly known as SPADs). Relations between officials and special advisers are 'very,  
8 very, very, very frequent'.<sup>23</sup> In the 2001–02 interviews there was some suspicion of  
9 these part-political, part-expert temporary appointees, consistent with a traditional  
10 conception of the Whitehall model. By 2010, all officials interviewed converged in  
11 their belief that there were good relations with the special advisers. Two categories  
12 of SPADs were identified in interviews; the 'party hacks' and the 'policy experts'.  
13 The former were valued by officials because they helped them anticipate the likely  
14 political reaction to any proposals they might make. The SPADs fully came into  
15 their own during periods of coalition government, where it was not uncommon for  
16 one official to be responsible to ministers from two different parties (Plaid Cymru  
17 and Labour). Some civil servants claimed not to have the political expertise to know  
18 what the minister wants: 'we can test ideas out with special advisers, before actually  
19 putting them formally to Ministers'.<sup>24</sup> Officials were more divided in relation to  
20 policy expertise: 'we have a few people dotted around the Ministers, but they're not  
21 that high calibre, to be honest'.<sup>25</sup> In addition to the SPADs, civil servants referred to  
22 the diversification of sources of policy advice to ministers, from a variety of think  
23 tanks, and from party.

24  
25 Third, the political executive has intervened in the debate about who is a public  
26 servant. As first minister, Rhodri Morgan supported the concept of 'the Welsh  
27 public service', as a pool of talent bridging the civil service, the NHS, local govern-  
28 ment and other forms of public service. Under the Public Sector Management Wales  
29 programme (2004) the WAG declared itself committed to encouraging secondments  
30 between public sector organisations across Wales, as well as supporting common  
31 training for officials across the public sector. In interviews, however, I found limited  
32 support among top officials for the concept of a broader Welsh public service distinct  
33 from, or as an alternative to, the existing civil service—and officials remained  
34 suspicious of local government in particular. Far more significant was the decision  
35 taken to bring 'in house' the main Assembly-sponsored public bodies: the Welsh  
36 Development Agency (WDA), the Wales Tourist Board (WTB) and Education and  
37 Learning Wales (ELWa), operational since 2006. Abolishing the 'quangos' had the  
38 advantage, from the perspective of officials, of bringing in house previously more  
39 autonomous functions and of strengthening the personnel deficit that had been  
40 identified in the early years of devolution.

41  
42 Civil service actors have contributed in key ways to developing the capacity of  
43 devolved government in Wales. The permanent secretary is key to the organisation  
44 chart. The permanent secretary, the only grade 1 official in Wales, is chief accounting  
45 officer,<sup>26</sup> with formal responsibility for the budgetary, legal and political propriety of  
46 all acts of the WAG. This position requires the undertaking of a number of formal  
47 roles that would be recognisable in any bureaucratic organisation. One is that of  
48 arbitration: the permanent secretary determines where any particular dossier should  
49 be treated within the administration. A second role involves protecting the civil

1 service staff from undue pressure, from the first minister or his cabinet colleagues,  
2 or an Assembly Committee.<sup>27</sup> The key dialogue occurs between the permanent  
3 secretary, who represents the permanent administration, and the first minister, at  
4 the head of cabinet. A third role is as guarantor of the neutrality of the machinery  
5 of state; in the event of disagreement with a minister, the permanent secretary can  
6 insist on receiving a written 'ministerial directive'.<sup>28</sup> The role of permanent secretary  
7 is also shaped by personal preferences and leadership style. The first permanent  
8 secretary, Rachel Lomax (1996–99), left at the very beginning of our period of  
9 investigation (see Prosser et al. 2006, for detailed analysis). For most of the period of  
10 embedding devolution (1999–2008), the second permanent secretary, Sir Jon Shor-  
11 tridge, saw his role as one of ensuring a smooth transition to the new devolution  
12 arrangements, of defining rules and codes of behaviour to ensure that the ethical  
13 standards of a traditional civil service model were upheld in the new regime.<sup>29</sup>  
14 Associates of the incumbent permanent secretary, Gillian Morgan, evoke a 'charis-  
15 matic form of leadership', an 'outward-facing' sense of entrepreneurship which  
16 contrasted with the more cautious style practised by her predecessor. Morgan has  
17 assumed a more prominent public role, not least by criticising the lack of under-  
18 standing of Welsh issues in Whitehall (Morgan 2009).

19 The styles adopted by the successive permanent secretaries have responded both to  
20 the nature of the challenges of the institution at a given time and to personal  
21 qualities and leadership preferences. The Shortridge period was associated with the  
22 embedding of devolution and development of powerful ministerial portfolios.  
23 While the permanent secretary had been the key actor during the Welsh Office, the  
24 main interlocutor of the secretary of state, the decade of devolution strengthened  
25 individual ministerial portfolios and, as a consequence, created powerful relations  
26 between ministers and 'their' directors, to some extent at the expense of the  
27 co-ordinating role of the permanent secretary. Such a shift in bureaucratic power  
28 was formalised in 2003, when Shortridge established the sub-accounting officers, a  
29 formal recognition that much bureaucratic power had moved to the individual  
30 heads of department and that there were now multiple points of political author-  
31 ity.<sup>30</sup> Without challenging the sub-accounting officer decision, Permanent Secretary  
32 Morgan attempted to use her control over the organisation chart to provide more  
33 'joined-up' forms of steering. She identified her main achievement thus far as the  
34 creation of a new category of director generals, seven super-managers whose role  
35 is to overcome the 'silo mentality' of individual departments and to promote  
36 'joined-up' solutions.<sup>31</sup> While the 30 or so director and deputy-director posts are  
37 focused on operational delivery, the director general position was imagined as an  
38 attempt to build strategic-level capacity.

39 Closely associated to this innovation was the creation of a streamlined Strategy and  
40 Performance Board<sup>32</sup> and a slightly larger Business Group,<sup>33</sup> replacing the former  
41 Management Board, described by one participant as 'like the United Nations with  
42 too many people'.<sup>34</sup> These efforts at bureaucratic co-ordination and oversight have  
43 run against the pressure from knowledgeable and politically ambitious ministers to  
44 have access to 'their' director, hence cutting out the theoretical overlords. In a quote  
45 reminiscent of William Niskanen's (1971) budget maximising, one official observed  
46 that 'there are very, very strong forces within government to appoint a Minister, a  
47 Department underneath them, and to judge both by the size of the empire'.<sup>35</sup>

1 Ministers are not only ambitious, but seek to cultivate one-to-one relationships  
2 with 'their' officials, in most cases the directors or deputy directors, who in practice  
3 organise their senior management teams to deal with the main areas of delivery.  
4 Such compartmentalisation is reinforced by budgetary rules, with a strict division  
5 along discrete budgetary lines and a very limited capacity for directors or director  
6 generals to vire across budgets.<sup>36</sup> Pooled budgets would allow for more joined-up  
7 thinking, but as it stands, in the words of one director general, 'the money is locked  
8 up in separate pots that are negotiated at a political level and I don't have flexibility  
9 between those pots'.<sup>37</sup> These sectoral pressures, producing a tight minister-  
10 departmental nexus, run against the early Assembly design that actively challenged  
11 the legitimacy of such relationships in the interests of 'joined-up' government.

12  
13 The above evidence casts doubt on any bureaucratic capture thesis in the case of  
14 devolution in Wales. Throughout the decade, the core drivers of devolution were  
15 (party) political. As one interlocutor argued:

16       If you look at the headline political strategy documents that this place has  
17       produced over the last 10 years, 'Wales, a Better Country' in 2003 empha-  
18       sised the top 10 manifesto commitments, rather than any other particular  
19       targets in any numerical sense, and, of course, the coalition formed in  
20       2007 stressed the One Wales coalition agreement commitments rather  
21       than any particular comprehensive set of KPIs.<sup>38</sup>

22  
23 For as long as Rhodri Morgan remained first minister, respecting party or coalition  
24 engagements was accompanied by a distrust towards defining key performance  
25 indicators as understood in the broader UK context and as symbolised by the refusal  
26 to collect data on school performances across Wales.<sup>39</sup>

27  
28 Towards the end of the first decade of devolution, insiders noticed a shift, particu-  
29 larly after the departure of Morgan. The onset of the financial crisis concentrated  
30 minds. A new harder edge made itself felt, typified by public expenditure cuts, new  
31 strategies of public management in education, mooted reforms of local government  
32 and deeply uncertain budgetary prospects in the future. One response to these new  
33 circumstances was a new emphasis on delivery and a more robust reference to  
34 performance management and key performance indicators, typified by the 'man-  
35 agement for delivery' dashboard system championed by Permanent Secretary Mor-  
36 gan.<sup>40</sup> There was a push after the change of first minister in 2009 to introduce  
37 harder inspection methods and to make more performance data available in health,  
38 education and social services. If the discourse of 'clear red water' had skewed  
39 discussions of performance for fear of comparisons with England, the onset of  
40 financial austerity brought the public service performance of the WAG into the  
41 public limelight and emboldened those politicians and civil servants for whom the  
42 next stage of devolution (the full law-making powers granted by referendum in  
43 March 2011) would require a more explicit focus on performance.

## 44 45 **Conclusion**

46 In my framework of analysis, three theses were proposed for understanding politico-  
47 administrative relations in devolved Wales: these were administrative persistence,

1 capacity-building and bureaucratic capture. Taking the period as a whole, the thesis  
2 of bureaucratic capture appears the least robust in the case of post-devolution Wales.  
3 The key organisational choices (such as the decisions to absorb agencies into the  
4 governmental machinery, and to resist the Private Finance Initiative) were political  
5 ones, originally taken without much regard for civil service views and dictated by the  
6 political imperative to demarcate Cardiff from London. By the end of the period,  
7 however, as the WAG became more of a 'normal' government, so the early heroic style  
8 began to give way to a tougher performance management regime, a trend that can only  
9 be strengthened in the context of fiscal penury.

10 Moving to the administrative persistence thesis, in some respects the Whitehall  
11 model has demonstrated remarkable persistence and has not been undermined by  
12 politicisation or by preferential treatment for Welsh speakers, both of which were  
13 pressing concerns of many civil servants and others prior to devolution. Civil  
14 servants have demonstrated their ability to work with politicians of different per-  
15 suasions and advise all parties prior to Assembly elections; the tradition of their  
16 (party) political neutrality is fully respected. Can we identify a generation effect,  
17 whereby older officials cherish their civil service identity, while younger officials are  
18 more explicitly mobilised by the prospect of serving their nation? Interviews  
19 revealed considerable support for retaining close links with Whitehall—and not  
20 only from representatives of the older Welsh Office generation. The need for  
21 continuing linkage with Whitehall could in part be related to the developing  
22 institutional capacity of the WAG itself. The specialist and technical services bench-  
23 mark themselves against the best professional practice in Whitehall. Moreover, the  
24 Whitehall link continues to allow the infusion of the best talent from across the UK  
25 (a remark that extends to the Scottish case). If anything, officials complained of  
26 being left out of the loop by Whitehall departments.

27 So, what is specific about Wales? Does it relate to career origins? Our survey  
28 revealed a rather diverse set of career origins among top civil servants in the WAG.  
29 On the basis of the 2010 sample there is no real evidence of 'clubness', in the sense  
30 of recruiting a self-referencing administrative elite.<sup>41</sup> The chief self-assessed distinc-  
31 tiveness, among my interview panel, concerned the type of civil servant who  
32 wanted to work in Wales; civil servants were expected to be sympathetic with the  
33 cause of devolved government, rather than avowedly neutral.

34 A second distinctive feature relates to the nature of politico-administrative rela-  
35 tionships themselves. Devolution in Wales—in particular and more so than in  
36 Scotland—is associated with an accountability and transparency agenda. Leading  
37 civil servants such as Permanent Secretary Morgan are public figures, not afraid to  
38 publicise their views on intergovernmental relationships in the media. The trans-  
39 parency of Welsh devolution is part of the core justification for devolution itself,  
40 embodied by a commitment to more open government, the publication of cabinet  
41 minutes, of the composition of cabinet committees and the wide range of formal  
42 documents placed on the Assembly Government's website. The metaphor of village  
43 life helps to capture both the intensity and the transparency of interactions; the  
44 'goldfish bowl' breaks with key aspects of secrecy, anonymity and confidentiality  
45 that long characterised the Whitehall model.

46 One response to the question, 'how far are WAG civil servants diverging from their  
47 UK counterparts?' is that they function within a very distinctive environment, a

1 'mini-Whitehall' serving a devolved government with an ambitious political project  
2 which is defined in part against the perceived neo-liberal model prevalent in  
3 England. Recent work on public services reform in England and Wales shows clear  
4 evidence of this constructed policy divergence, as England has introduced hard-  
5 edged, top-down performance regimes based on 'terror and targets' which policy-  
6 makers in Wales have eschewed in favour of 'partnership' between central and local  
7 government (Martin and Webb 2009). Were officials discouraged from drawing  
8 positive policy lessons from English experience under the broad steer to develop  
9 'Made in Wales' policies? The evidence from our interviews is inconclusive. More  
10 specifically focusing on the civil service, there are several signs of distancing with  
11 Whitehall such as the role of special advisers at every level of the WAG, or the  
12 falling into disuse of the convention of seconding new recruits into Whitehall  
13 departments. Most important, however, is the diminishing contact with Whitehall  
14 departments as the logic of devolved government produces more distinctive policy  
15 outputs and less perceived need to develop networks at the UK level.

16 Political capacity is my preferred conceptualisation for describing the development  
17 of devolution in Wales. Capacity-building most obviously refers to developing the  
18 rule-making potential of political institutions. One interpretation of devolution in  
19 Wales is as a decade-long constitutional convention, with the evidence base pro-  
20 vided in the form of reports produced from outside the formal bureaucracy—  
21 whether the National Assembly Advisory Group, the Richard Commission or the  
22 Parry Jones Convention. Such institutive politics (Stirbu 2009) is only one part of  
23 the edifice, but has provided the context within which the civil service functions.  
24 Civil servants are part of a broader enterprise of building capacity for the devolved  
25 institutions. They have a self-perception as a servant of the Welsh Assembly Gov-  
26 ernment rather than a more generic professional identity as a group or a corps in  
27 public administration. The second dimension of the debate on capacity is that of  
28 policy capacity. Our survey demonstrates quite clearly the weight of expectations  
29 upon civil servants to produce innovative and original policies, to serve a 'free-  
30 standing government'. They have been helped by the growth in numbers; by the  
31 integration of expertise from agencies; and by the development of new professional  
32 and scientific services. The key analytical point is that civil service resources have  
33 developed as part of a more general process of building institutional capacity over  
34 the first decade of devolution. As the WAG has developed its legal competencies, so  
35 it has needed to strengthen its policy expertise; special advisers, think tanks,  
36 professional groups and party notwithstanding, the civil service remains central in  
37 the provision of policy advice.

38 My case study raises more general issues of co-ordination that are common across  
39 democratic bureaucratic systems, all faced with potentially conflicting pressures of  
40 maintaining professional standards, demonstrating commitment to the political  
41 leadership and promoting best practice in management change (Peters 2010). The  
42 specific mix varies according to place. Attempts to ensure political steering often  
43 involve some measure of politicisation of top civil service appointments (the US  
44 spoils system), the development of parallel bureaucratic structures (French-style  
45 cabinets), the hiving off of policy delivery to specialised agencies or, on the contrary,  
46 the creation of mega-ministries (Pyper 1995). In the case of Wales, the transfor-  
47 mations of the first devolutionary decade were consistent with the broader context

1 of the British state tradition, namely an absence of a defining constitutional  
2 moment, an incremental process of adaptation and a set of partly informal under-  
3 standings. But this tradition is being gradually reshaped by moves towards a formal  
4 diplomatic mode of intergovernmental relations, and by the development of much  
5 clearer formal and informal institutions upon which to base devolved Welsh and  
6 Scottish governments. The civil service has played an unsung yet important role in  
7 accompanying this ongoing evolution of the British constitution.

### 8

### 9 **About the Author**

10 **Alistair Cole**, Professor of Politics, School of European Studies, 65–68 Park Place, Cardiff, Wales,  
11 CF10 4NP, UK, email: [ColeA@Cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:ColeA@Cardiff.ac.uk)

### 12

### 13 **Notes**

- 14 1. The 2001–04 interviews were carried out with a panel of politico-administrative actors that  
15 incorporated, *inter alia*, the Wales Office, the first and deputy first minister, the Policy Unit, the  
16 Cabinet and Constitution Unit, the education and deputy education ministers, officials in  
17 the Training and Education division (x 4), the European and External Affairs division (x 2), the  
18 WDA (x 3), ELWa (x 3), WTB (x 2), the Presiding Office (x 2) and the Committee Secretariat  
19 (1). Interviews were conducted at director, deputy director and special adviser levels, as well as  
20 with a broad range of politicians (ministers and Assembly members) and in the broader policy  
21 community. Anonymised transcripts for most interviews are contained in ‘Devolution and  
22 decentralisation in Wales and Brittany, 2001–2002’, UK Data Archive (<http://www.data->  
23 [archive.ac.uk](http://www.data-archive.ac.uk)), Study Number 4802. From January to June 2010, 12 interviews were carried out 4  
24 with senior civil servants of the WAG, at permanent secretary, director general, director and deputy  
25 director levels. These interviews were organised, conducted and transcribed as part of the activities of  
26 the ESRC- and HEFCW-funded Wales Institute for Research, Data and Methods (WISERD) and  
27 Cardiff University’s Wales Governance Centre.
- 28 2. A semi-structured interview schedule was used both in 2001–04 and 2010, combining a  
29 number of identical questions with more period-specific ones in each case. Questions con-  
30 cerned the role of the senior civil service in Wales; relations with ministers; the home civil  
31 service and the Whitehall model; the Welsh public service; the management of the civil service  
32 under devolution; recruitment pathways; generalists and specialists; the modernisation  
33 agenda; attitudes to think tanks; special advisers; political parties; relations between the Park  
34 and the Bay; and the interests of the devolved government in EU policy.
- 35 3. In the case of Scotland, rather paradoxically, the new Scottish Government permanent secre-  
36 tary appointed in 2010 was transferred from Whitehall without advertisement, thus demon-  
37 strating the practical utility of the home civil service link, as well as the right of the Scottish  
38 Government to determine how it selects its leading officials.
- 39 4. In the words of one interviewee (WAG, March 2010): ‘we get some good people, what we  
40 don’t do on the whole is get people going from here to London’.
- 41 5. Interview, National Assembly for Wales, 2002.
- 42 6. Departments are given the titles they possessed at the moment interviews were carried out.
- 43 7. ‘We’re all broadly signed up to that, and even the political parties, I suspect, are really signed  
44 up to, to all of that’. Interview, WAG, April 2010.
- 45 8. The Legislative Competence Order refers to the complex procedure introduced in the 2006  
46 Government of Wales Act, whereby the National Assembly for Wales can draw down legislative  
47 powers with agreement of the UK parliament. The move to full legislative powers in the March  
48 2011 referendum renders such a procedure superfluous.



- 1 9. Interview, WAG, February 2010.
- 2 10. Interview, WAG, February 2010.
- 3 11. This theme emerged in several interviews in February–June 2010.
- 4 12. Interview, NafW, 2002.
- 5 13. Interview, NafW, 2002.
- 6 14. Interviews, NafW, 2002 and WAG, 2010.
- 7 15. Interviews, WAG, 2010.
- 8 16. Interview, WAG, 2010.
- 9 17. The Beecham report called for partnership modes of public service delivery, including collabo-  
10 ration with the non-devolved agencies such as the Police and Job Centre Wales.
- 11 18. The 2010 interview sample included an even distribution between former officials of the Welsh  
12 Office, those who had risen to the top under devolution and those who had come in from the  
13 outside.
- 14 19. Interview, WAG, April 2010.
- 15 20. Interview, June 2010.
- 16 21. Interview, WAG, March 2010.
- 17 22. Interview, WAG, March 2010.
- 18 23. Interview, WAG, March 2010.
- 19 24. Interview, WAG, April 2010.
- 20 25. Interview, WAG, March 2010.
- 21 26. ‘The point of being an accounting officer or sub-accounting officer is that you’re personally  
22 responsible for the propriety, and the regularity of the way in which public money is being  
23 spent. And so, you are in the dock personally, if things break the rules’. Interview, WAG,  
24 February 2010.
- 25 27. Interview, WAG, June 2010.
- 26 28. A possibility regarded in an interview with the permanent secretary as the ‘nuclear option’ and  
27 very unlikely to materialise. It is worth pointing out that this mechanism is a direct carry-over  
28 from the pre-devolution period and a more general instrument of bureaucratic influence.
- 29 29. This account is based on the converging testimony of several civil servants who worked closely  
30 with Jon Shortridge.
- 31 30. When asked about the sub-accounting officer role, one civil servant explained: ‘if there is an  
32 issue, then I’ll go and discuss it with the minister, and, to date, they’ve always taken, taken my  
33 advice’. Interview, WAG, March 2010.
- 34 31. Interview with Gillian Morgan, June 2010.
- 35 32. The Strategy and Performance Board meets weekly. It brings together the permanent secretary  
36 and the director generals, or DG equivalents.
- 37 33. The Business Group is a larger meeting than the Strategy and Performance Board. It meets once  
38 a month on average.
- 39 34. Interview, WAG, February 2010.
- 40 35. Interview, WAG, February 2010.
- 41 36. ‘... so I can’t make a decision, for example, that we should vire money from •• to ••, though  
42 both are under my theoretical control’.

- 1 37. Interview, WAG, March 2010.  
2 38. Interview, WAG, February 2010.  
3 39. Interview, WAG, February 2010.  
4 40. This is an IT-based system covering all departments, with a top-level set of strategic outcomes  
5 and with indicators identified at all levels of the organisation.  
6 41. Our sample concerned only the very senior civil service.

## Bibliography

- 9 Aberbach, J. D., Putnam, R. and Rockman, B. D. (1981) *Bureaucrats and Politicians in Western Democracies*  
10 (Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press).  
11 Aberbach, J. D. and Rockman, B. A. (2006) 'The past and the future of political-administrative relations:  
12 Research from bureaucrats and politicians into the web of politics and beyond', *International Journal of*  
13 *Public Administration*, 29:12. [6]  
14 Argyis, C. (1964) *Integrating the Individual and the Organisation* (New Haven CT: Yale University Press).  
15 Bogdanor, V. (1999) *Devolution in the United Kingdom* (Oxford: Oxford University Press).  
16 Bradbury, J. and Stafford, I. (2010) 'The effectiveness of legislative mechanisms for the devolution of  
17 powers in the UK: The case of transport devolution to Wales', *Public Money and Management*, 30:2,  
18 97–102.  
19 Bulpitt, J. (1983) *Territory and Power in the United Kingdom* (Manchester: Manchester University Press).  
20 Cole, A. (2006) *Beyond Devolution and Decentralisation: Building Regional Capacity in Wales and Brittany*  
21 (Manchester: Manchester University Press).  
22 Cole, A., Jones, J. B. and Storer, A. (2003) 'Inside the National Assembly for Wales', *Political Quarterly*,  
23 74:2, 223–232.  
24 Deacon, R. (2002) *The Governance of Wales: The Welsh Office and the Policy Process, 1964–99* (Cardiff: Welsh [7]  
25 Academic Press).  
26 Dowding, K. (1995) *The Civil Service* (London: Routledge).  
27 Drewry, G. (1995) 'The civil service: From the 1940s to "next steps" and beyond', *Parliamentary Affairs*,  
28 48:4, 583–595.  
29 Dyson, K. (2010) *The State Tradition in Western Europe* (London: ECPR Press).  
30 Ferlie, E. (2004) 'On building the new managerialist state', *British Journal of Management*, 14, 585–596. [8]  
31 Heclo, H. and Wildavsky, A. (1974) *The Private Government of Public Money: Community and Policy inside*  
32 *British Politics* (London: Macmillan).  
33 Jeffery, C. (2000) 'Sub-national mobilisation and European integration: Does it make a difference?', [9]  
34 *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 38:1, 1–23.  
35 Jones, J. B. (1990) 'The Welsh Office: A political expedient or an administrative innovation?', *The* [10]  
36 *Transactions of the Royal Society of Cymmrodorion*, Cardiff, pp. 281–292.  
37 Keating, M. and Cairney, P. (2006) 'A new elite? Politicians and civil servants in Scotland after devolu- [11]  
38 tion', *Parliamentary Affairs*, 59:1, 43–59.  
39 Laffin, M. and Thomas, A. (2001) 'New ways of working: Political–official relations in the National  
40 Assembly for Wales', *Public Money and Management*, 21:2, 45–51.  
41 Lynch, P. (2006) 'Governing devolution: Understanding the office of first ministers in Scotland and Wales',  
42 *Parliamentary Affairs*, 59:3, 420–436.  
43 Martin, S. J. and Webb, A. G. (2009) 'Citizen-centred public services: Contestability without consumer-  
44 ism', *Public Money and Management*, 29:2, 123–130.  
45 Morgan, G. (2009) 'Gear change for our civil service', *Agenda*, Autumn, 6–9.  
46 Morgan, K. and Mungham, G. (2000) *Redesigning Democracy: The Making of the National Assembly for Wales*  
47 (Bridgend: Poetry Wales Press).  
48 Niskanen, W. (1971) *Bureaucracy and Representative Government* (Chicago IL: Aldine-Atherton).

- 1 Page, E. C. (2010) 'Has the Whitehall model survived?', *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 76:3,  
2 407–423.
- 3 Painter, M. and Pierre, J. (2005) 'Unpacking policy capacity: Issues and themes', in M. Painter and J.  
4 Pierre (eds), *Challenges to State Policy Capacity: Global Trends and Comparative Perspectives* (Basingstoke: 12  
5 Palgrave Macmillan), 2.
- 6 Palmer, R. (2008) *Devolution, Asymmetry and Europe: Multi-level Governance in the United Kingdom* (Brussels:  
7 Peter Lang).
- 8 Parry, R. (2001) 'Devolution, integration and modernisation in the United Kingdom civil service', *Public*  
9 *Policy and Administration*, 16:3, 53–67.
- 10 Parry, R. (2004) 'The civil service and intergovernmental relations', *Public Policy and Administration*, 19:2,  
11 50–65.
- 12 Parry, R. (2008) 'Changing UK governance under devolution', *Public Policy and Administration*, 23:4,  
13 114–120.
- 14 Peters, B. G. (2010) *The Politics of Bureaucracy* (London: Routledge).
- 15 Prosser, S., Connolly, M., Hough, R. and Potter, K. (2006) *Making it Happen in Public Service: Devolution in*  
16 *Wales as a Case Study* (Exeter: Imprint Academic).
- 17 Pyper, R. (1995) *The British Civil Service* (Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf).
- 18 Rawlings, R. (2003) *Delineating Wales* (Cardiff: University of Wales Press). 13
- 19 Stirbu, D. S. (2009) 'Instituting constitutions: Welsh constitutional dynamics and the development of the  
20 National Assembly for Wales 2005–2007', *Contemporary Wales*, 22:1, 95–112.
- 21 Trench, A. (2005) *The Dynamics of Devolution: The State of the Nations 2005* (Exeter: Imprint Academic).
- 22 Trench, A. (2007) 'Washing dirty linen in private: The processes of intergovernmental relations and the  
23 resolution of disputes', in A. Trench (ed.), *Devolution and Power in the United Kingdom* (Manchester:  
24 Manchester University Press), 160–197.
- 25 UK Parliament. (2010) 'Memorandum of Understanding and Supplementary Agreements between the  
26 United Kingdom Government, the Scottish Ministers, the Welsh Ministers and the Northern Ireland  
27 Executive Committee', 14 57.

Toppan Best-set Premedia Limited	
Journal Code: BJPI	Proofreader: Elsie
Article No: 470	Delivery date: 12 August 2011
Page Extent: 19	

## AUTHOR QUERY FORM

Dear Author,

During the preparation of your manuscript for publication, the questions listed below have arisen. Please attend to these matters and return this form with your proof.

Many thanks for your assistance.

Query References	Query	Remark
q1	AUTHOR: Prosser 2006 has been changed to Prosser et al. 2006 so that this citation matches the Reference List, please confirm that this is correct.	
q2	AUTHOR: Jones 2000 has not been included in the Bibliography. Please provide a full reference.	
q3	AUTHOR: Aberbach (1981) has been changed to Aberbach et al. (1981) so that this citation matches the Reference List, please confirm that this is correct.	
q4	AUTHOR: Please check this website address and confirm that it is correct. (Please note that it is the responsibility of the author(s) to ensure that all URLs given in this article are correct and useable.)	
q5	AUTHOR: Please provide interview details for Note 36.	
q6	AUTHOR: Please provide the page range for Aberbach & Rockman 2006.	
q7	AUTHOR: Deacon, 2002 has not been cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the Reference List.	
q8	AUTHOR: Please provide the issue no. for Ferlie 2004.	
q9	AUTHOR: Jeffery, 2000 has not been cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the Reference List.	

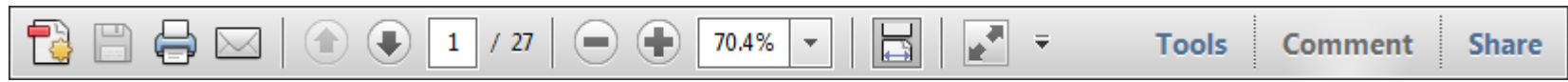
q10	AUTHOR: Jones 1990 has not been cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited or advise if it can be deleted.	
q11	AUTHOR: Keating, Cairney, 2006 has not been cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the Reference List.	
q12	AUTHOR: Please check the page range for Painter & Pierre 2005.	
q13	AUTHOR: Rawlings, 2003 has not been cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the Reference List.	
q14	AUTHOR: Please provide name and location of publisher for UK Parliament 2010.	

USING e-ANNOTATION TOOLS FOR ELECTRONIC PROOF CORRECTION

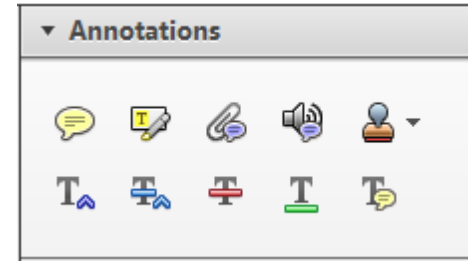
Required software to e-annotate PDFs: Adobe Acrobat Professional or Adobe Reader (version 8.0 or above). (Note that this document uses screenshots from Adobe Reader X)

The latest version of Acrobat Reader can be downloaded for free at: <http://get.adobe.com/reader/>

Once you have Acrobat Reader open on your computer, click on the [Comment](#) tab at the right of the toolbar:



This will open up a panel down the right side of the document. The majority of tools you will use for annotating your proof will be in the [Annotations](#) section, pictured opposite. We've picked out some of these tools below:



**1. Replace (Ins) Tool – for replacing text.**

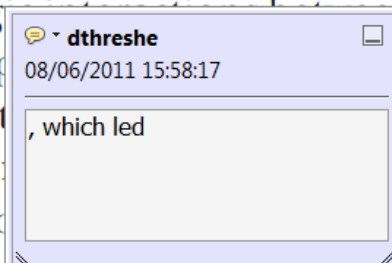


Strikes a line through text and opens up a text box where replacement text can be entered.

**How to use it**

- Highlight a word or sentence.
- Click on the [Replace \(Ins\)](#) icon in the Annotations section.
- Type the replacement text into the blue box that appears.

standard framework for the analysis of microeconomics. Nevertheless, it also led to the emergence of a new paradigm of strategic behavior. The number of competitors in the industry is that the structure of the industry is a key component of the main components of the industry. At the micro level, are exogenous variables important works on entry by Shirasaka (1987) and henceforth) we open the 'black b



**2. Strikethrough (Del) Tool – for deleting text.**



Strikes a red line through text that is to be deleted.

**How to use it**

- Highlight a word or sentence.
- Click on the [Strikethrough \(Del\)](#) icon in the Annotations section.

there is no room for extra profits and the number of firms that enter the industry is zero and the number of firms (net) values are not determined by the number of firms. Blanchard and Kiyotaki (1987), in their paper on perfect competition in general equilibrium, show that the effects of aggregate demand and supply in the classical framework assuming monopoly are not determined by an exogenous number of firms

**3. Add note to text Tool – for highlighting a section to be changed to bold or italic.**



Highlights text in yellow and opens up a text box where comments can be entered.

**How to use it**

- Highlight the relevant section of text.
- Click on the [Add note to text](#) icon in the Annotations section.
- Type instruction on what should be changed regarding the text into the yellow box that appears.

dynamic responses of mark-ups consistent with the VAR evidence

sation of the industry with well-labeled demand curves. The number of competitors and the impact of a change in the number of competitors on the industry is that the structure of the sector is also consistent with the demand-



**4. Add sticky note Tool – for making notes at specific points in the text.**

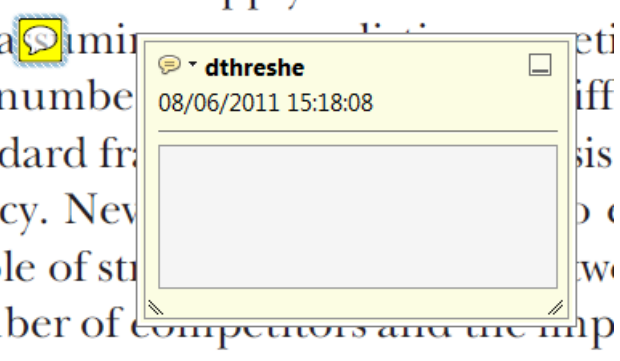


Marks a point in the proof where a comment needs to be highlighted.

**How to use it**

- Click on the [Add sticky note](#) icon in the Annotations section.
- Click at the point in the proof where the comment should be inserted.
- Type the comment into the yellow box that appears.

and supply shocks. Most of the industry is that the structure of the sector is also consistent with the demand-



USING e-ANNOTATION TOOLS FOR ELECTRONIC PROOF CORRECTION

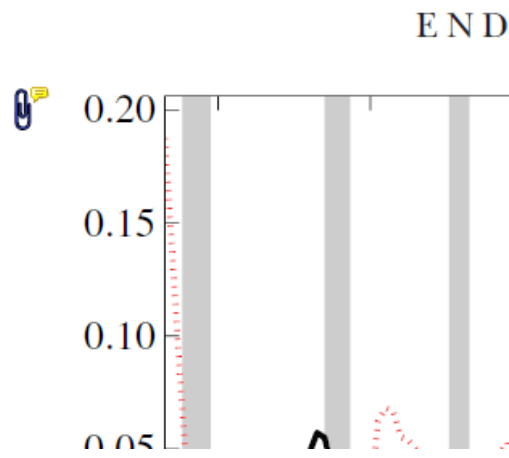
**5. Attach File Tool – for inserting large amounts of text or replacement figures.**



Inserts an icon linking to the attached file in the appropriate place in the text.

**How to use it**

- Click on the [Attach File](#) icon in the Annotations section.
- Click on the proof to where you'd like the attached file to be linked.
- Select the file to be attached from your computer or network.
- Select the colour and type of icon that will appear in the proof. Click OK.



**6. Add stamp Tool – for approving a proof if no corrections are required.**



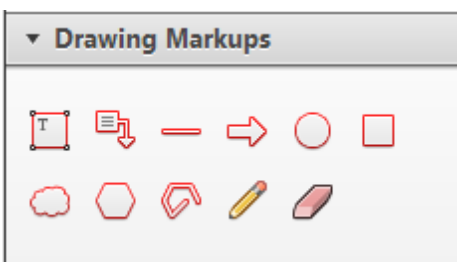
Inserts a selected stamp onto an appropriate place in the proof.

**How to use it**

- Click on the [Add stamp](#) icon in the Annotations section.
- Select the stamp you want to use. (The [Approved](#) stamp is usually available directly in the menu that appears).
- Click on the proof where you'd like the stamp to appear. (Where a proof is to be approved as it is, this would normally be on the first page).

of the business cycle, starting with the  
 on perfect competition, constant ret  
 production. In this environment goods  
 extra profits and the market for marke  
 he market for goods is determined by the model. The New-Key  
 otaki (1987), has introduced produc  
 general equilibrium models with nomin  
 and market-clearing. Most of this literat

**APPROVED**

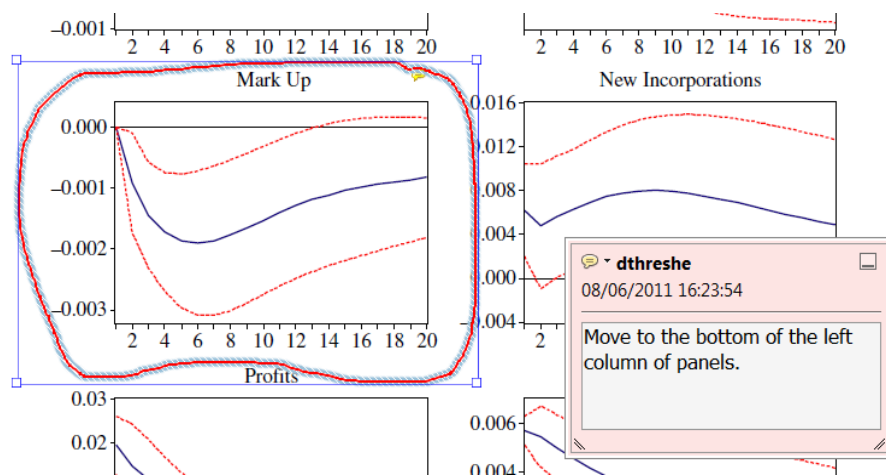


**7. Drawing Markups Tools – for drawing shapes, lines and freeform annotations on proofs and commenting on these marks.**

Allows shapes, lines and freeform annotations to be drawn on proofs and for comment to be made on these marks..

**How to use it**

- Click on one of the shapes in the [Drawing Markups](#) section.
- Click on the proof at the relevant point and draw the selected shape with the cursor.
- To add a comment to the drawn shape, move the cursor over the shape until an arrowhead appears.
- Double click on the shape and type any text in the red box that appears.



For further information on how to annotate proofs, click on the [Help](#) menu to reveal a list of further options:

