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THE RATIONALISATION OF HUNGARIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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I.

Since the war public administration has been experiencing thorough-going changes all over the world. It had to witness the growth of adverse criticism and had to meet a number of new requirements. The causes of these phenomena are manifold. During the war the tasks of public administration increased greatly in number: many of them being met by provisional solutions. Some of these tasks ceased to exist after the war; for those remaining a new solution of a permanent and technical character had to be found instead of the provisional one. Another important motive for the critical examination of public administration is, that the Peace Treaties wrought great changes in the map of Europe; several new States, such as Czechoslovakia, Poland, Lithuania, Lettland, Esthonia, Finland, were brought into being. Some States, again, such as Yugoslavia and Rumania, acquired territories considerably in excess the former area of these countries; other countries, such as Austria and that State which forms the subject of the present study, namely Hungary, lost the bulk of their pre-war territories; Hungary lost 67% of her territory and 60% of her population. This change involved our public administration in an entirely new situation rendering a radical reorganization of the same absolutely necessary; in this work, however, the scientific principles of an efficient and correct organization

of public administration had no active share. The economic world crisis compelled every State to practise economy ; in the field of public administration too, it raised the problem of retrenchment. Investigations have demonstrated everywhere the unsystematic and costly nature of the present state of public administration, a defect which is the result of the historical growth of that organization and of the methods of public administration. This anomaly can be removed to a great extent by adopting in public administration too, the principles of scientific management. This and other reasons combined in making new demands on public administration of a nature necessitating an examination of the entire organization, operation and expenditure of the public administration, on the basis of uniform and comprehensive principles. This, however, amounts to saying that the public administration has reached a turning-point in its history of the utmost significance : the point, namely, when public administration as a whole rises from dilettantism to the level of science. This means, if we take into consideration the present important part public administration plays in the life of the community, that while the chief problem of the 19th century was the adoption of the democratic and parliamentary system, that of the 20th century is the elevation of public administration to the level of science.

II.

This radical reorganization of public administration is not clearly seen as yet in the different States. Consequently the way of approach to the problem is also very diverse in character.

Some of the States desire to solve the problem in a practical manner. Since it is a question of public administration, they expect proposals from the public administration. They are adopting concrete detail measures. These measures

usually aim at economy, — *e. g.* the Poincaré Public Administration Reform Act in France, in 1926, or the movement to reduce the figures of national expenditure in most States in the course of the last years. Some of these measures aim not only at economy, but also at improving the system; they fail, however, to embrace the whole field and deal only with problems of detail, with partial reforms such as have always been effected in public administration. The scientists, on the other hand, have discovered the immense scientific importance of the question and the need of investigating various problems of detail; for this purpose, research institutes have been founded in many countries, such as the *Institute of Public Administration*, in London, the *Institute for Government Research*, in Washington, the *National Institute for Public Administration*, in New York, etc.

Hungary, having discovered the vital significance of the reorganization of public administration, desires to ensure success in the execution of the reform by bringing about a cooperation between science and the practice of public administration.

For this purpose, she has established a combined organization which endeavours to combine the advantages of all foreign solutions. For the task of preparing the rationalization of public administration, a Government Commissioner was appointed in January, 1931. The Commissioner is subordinated directly to the Prime Minister. Furthermore the *Hungarian Institute of Public Administration* has been established in the oldest university of the country, that of Budapest (the address is: Budapest, IV. Egyetem-tér 1), in order to promote scientific research work. The Professor of Administrative Law was appointed Government Commissioner; he is at the same time Director of the Research Institute. The connection of the Government Commissioner with the Government and the University, his knowledge of the present state of science and practical administration — these facts are adequate guarantee that in the work of

reorganization the whole of public administration will be kept in view, that general principles will be considered, and that an increasing role will be given to scientific management; at the same time, scientific life will in this way receive information about the problems of practical life and administrative policy and thus an effectual investigation and maturing of such problems will be ensured.

III.

No rationalization of public administration can be carried out without a systematic and thorough-going preparation. The following pages are an attempt to give a comprehensive survey of the road on which the preparations towards reorganizing Hungarian public administration are progressing. They also show that this systematic preparation is calculated to supply the idea of rationalization with definite qualifications.

1) The Government Commissioner has illustrated the present existing organization of administration by the diagram in the Annex. This system of illustration brings home clearly certain starting points of the activity of the Government Commissioner, which starting points may be summed up as follows:

a) In Hungarian public administration there exists such a close connection and such an interwoven division of labour between the organs of the State and those of the local authorities that a separate examination and treatment of the administration of either the State or the local authorities cannot lead to a correct viewpoint or to a correct judgment. All criticism, therefore, must always consider *the whole* field of public administration.

b) No uniform principle of organization has manifested itself in the development of our public administration since 1867.

c) The results attained cannot be described as satisfactory from the viewpoint of economy and are not able sufficiently to further the aims of administration.

2) The territorial division of our administrative organs, too, has developed in such a variety of directions in the course of time as a result of the lack of a uniform organizing idea, that at present there are no two administrative divisions made on the basis of an identical principle. All the different organs of special administration have each divided differently the territory of the country for their special aims. It would be superfluous to demonstrate in detail the disadvantages of this fact from the viewpoint of economy and efficiency of administrative work. In cooperation with the former Prime Minister Count Paul Teleki, at present Professor of Geography, and Count Teleki's pupil, Dr. Julius Hantos, the Government Commissioner has elaborated a work which shows on a cartographic basis the present distributions of the various state organs of special administration; it also contains a chart founded on a geographical basis which illustrates the principles of rationalization. (Cp. *Administrative Boundaries and the Rationalisation of the Public Administration*, by Julius Hantos. Budapest, 1932.)

3) Our statistical knowledge concerning Hungarian administration is so far insufficient. The official statistical year-book and the report submitted every year by the Prime Minister to Parliament concerning the development of the various branches of administration, contain data referring to population, economic life, social conditions, etc.; the subject of administration, however, is dealt with only in a few lines. The reason for this state of things lies, no doubt, in the administration itself, which fails to take into consideration that administration has developed in the last decades into a concern on a large scale, a comprehensive survey and methodical management of which is impossible without statistics of its working. While the statistics relating to the administration of justice are elaborated in an exem-

plary manner, we derive data about the organization, activity, personnel, costs of public administration almost exclusively from the State Budget. But these data are on the one hand collected on the basis of a totally different principle, on the other, they are not sufficient. In the case of country-districts and municipalities even these data are not collected and published systematically enough. There are absolutely no statistical data relating to the activity of the different branches of administration, or to public works.

In agreement with the Royal Hungarian Central Statistical Office, the Government Commissioner has elaborated a plan which will extend the statistical survey to cover the administration; it will embrace both state and local administrations and will furnish data concerning the activity and costs of the administrative personnel. The first census, representing the state of things in force on December 31, 1931, has been taken already and is included in the working program of the Statistical Office for 1932, together with the plan of extending it to the public works as well; from this time these statistics will be available for every year.

4) The simplification of the administrative organization and procedure must begin with the problem of competence. During and after the war administration has included within its circle of competence many questions which previously lay entirely outside it. A number of such problems have been centralized as might be decentralized without any trouble and even with advantage. Many affairs are settled within the competence of the Government, the final settlement of which in a constitutional State should belong to administrative jurisdiction.

The Government Commissioner, in cooperation with all the Ministries, has drafted a detailed account of the manifold activities of the administration and of the various authorities which proceed in administrative matters; a survey of the rules referring to them is published in a thick volume

of 800 pages.¹ This work contains such a systematic and clear elaboration of all affairs connected with the entire administrative apparatus of the country as to our knowledge has not been published elsewhere. This work is intended to be a reliable source of information in different directions to those factors who are destined to be the leaders of Hungarian public administration and to elaborate the leading principles of the same. This systematic work has established also the following special postulates :

a) In the first place, this tabulated survey will enumerate in full detail what kinds of affairs have to be attended by the various branches of administration, such as the parish council, the district chief presiding judge, the under-sheriff, the inland revenue director, the school inspector, the orphans' court, the solicitor to the Treasury, etc. Such a survey will clear up in the eyes of specialists and public opinion alike many things of which they had formerly but a hazy notion. When the statistics of the administration has completed this enumeration of the agenda of the various branches of administration by proving how many of these affairs are of a similar nature and showing how the burden of the work is divided among the similar organs of administration (as *e. g.* among all the chief constables), an exact and true picture of the administration will result. Without such a picture a specialist conscious of his responsibility will hardly dare to approach the problem of the reorganization of public administration.

b) The way in which administrative jurisdiction appears in Hungary is as follows. Already in 1883 a Financial Administrative Court was established, this Court being in 1896 merged in the newly established Supreme Court of Administration. The competency of this latter Court extends not only to the financial branch of administration, but to

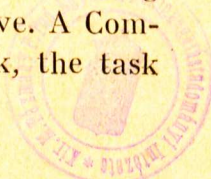
¹ Synopsis of the Public Administration of Hungary. Work and executive organs of our public administration. Compiled and submitted to the Prime Minister of Hungary by Zoltán de Magyary. Budapest, 1932.

all its branches. The solution of 1896, however, cannot be regarded as satisfactory, for two reasons. The first reason is that only one Court was established, namely in the capital of the country, in Budapest, corresponding in rank to the highest court of common pleas, the Supreme Court of Appeal. The Act of 1896 provided for the establishing of courts of lower instance; this plan was not however carried out at the time. The second difficulty is that the Act of 1896 had chosen the method of enumeration for determining the competence of the court. This means that it is not stated as a point of principle that all legally disputable affairs of administration may be brought before the court, but only those affairs which are enumerated in a long catalogue included in the Act. Since that time about 60 new legal enactments have been added to the catalogue; it is, however, rigid, while on the other hand this system of specification must be regarded as antiquated. All the same, a certain reserve has so far been in evidence on the part of the government and the legislature, — a reluctance to adjust the question on the basis of principle. The reason of this must be sought in the supposition that the adoption of the basis of principle would greatly increase the material contained in the present specification, and it was desired to avoid the shock which the sudden transition would involve. It becomes manifest, however, from the present survey that more than 75 per cent. of the legally disputable affairs of public administration are already included in the present specification, — we had therefore no idea how near we had approached to determining the competence of the court on the basis of principle. The reform of public administration cannot meet the demands of our present time without developing administrative jurisdiction. For this reason a Bill is being prepared to provide for the organization of administrative courts of a lower instance and the adoption of the basis of principle in respect of the competence of administrative courts.

c) This survey furnishes an exact basis also for discriminating the tasks of public administration, for simplifying the organisation of the administration, for elaborating uniform administrative procedure and preparing the code of administrative procedure.

5) The demand for the rationalisation of public administration has been voiced by public opinion primarily in the complaint that the enormous mass of administrative provisions are no longer surveyable and that it has become almost impossible to find one's way in this wilderness. It must be admitted in any case, that the expansion of the national code of laws, the collection of official decrees and the different official organs of the various ministries have gradually grown to such a bulk that a knowledge of them seems hardly possible. The mass of rules at present in force, is however smaller than is generally supposed. It may be perhaps of interest to know that in the national code of laws altogether 2,559 laws were promulgated between 1867 and 1930. More than 2,000 of these laws are of an administrative character. The number of such laws valid at present, however, is scarcely more than 400 and of these only 200 date from the period prior to 1918.

It follows from this that of the legal regulations even the laws become antiquated in a comparatively short time; one must also bear in mind (and this has been hitherto almost entirely disregarded) that as a consequence of the dismemberment of the country a considerable part of our legal enactments have become antiquated. Consequently it is a gratifying part of the work of rationalization to prepare a new edition of the rules of administrative law at present in force, by including the legal decrees referring to one and the same question in a single collection. Such uniform constructions were made, for instance, under Act IV, 1924 and Act V, 1927, relating to an official collection of decrees referring to direct taxes. This has proved to be very effective. A Committee is to be appointed to carry out this work, the task



of which committee will be to collect the valid provisions in a single text (the Italians call it «testo unico») and to prepare to have this text incorporated in law.

From the viewpoint of strengthening the self-consciousness of administration we must not underestimate the psychological factor that may be expected to result from the fact that the mass of valid legal regulations is not so terribly large. But this question may be considered from another viewpoint too : — *i. e.* that of the so-called legislation mania. Parliament is often reproached if it is not continually passing new laws. This leads easily to exaggerations and to hasty codifications which necessitate frequent changes of law and may thus lead to a state of perpetual flux and legal uncertainty.

6) The basis of our whole administrative organization is, as is generally known, the county, the beginnings of which go back as far as the 13th century. The county which possesses a rather extensive autonomy, is still the most important organ of administration. After 1867 a process of specialization began in public administration necessitating the creation of a number of new state organs to deal with this special business. These organs were partly intended to attend to the new duties of administration, partly, however, resulted from the absorption by the state of such duties which had hitherto been attended to by the counties and towns within the sphere of their autonomy. This process of absorption by the state, lasting more than half a century, lacked a leading principle and this is partly the cause of the present chaotic state of our administration.

The territorial reorganization of the administration is, therefore, absolutely necessary, but the starting point of this reorganization must be the county. The county, however, as a consequence of its historical merits and the role it so often played in the past of defending the constitution against the central power of Vienna, enjoys the jealous protection of national public opinion and therefore the contraction

of the territories of counties or the amalgamation of smaller counties cannot take place except on the basis of a thorough-going preparation and a detailed demonstration of all the logical reasons that may be cited in favour of the scheme. This work is already in progress; the new situation which has been created by the dismemberment of the country, is being also taken into consideration.

7) The territorial configuration and the form of organization of parishes in many respects does not comply with the requirements of economy and prompt administration. The Government Commissioner intends to revise, on the basis of the last census results (1930), the parish settlements and will make proposals concerning the necessary re-groupings.

8) The homesteads scattered throughout the Great Hungarian Lowland constitute another of the important but exceedingly difficult problems confronting our administration. The characteristic feature of these homesteads is that the farmers do not live in village communities; each of them builds his small house and the farm-buildings belonging to it on his own small holdings. More than 20 per cent. of the total population live in this manner on the outskirts of the country parishes, sometimes, especially in the neighbourhood of the large Lowland towns, at a distance of 30—40 kilometers from their own administrative authorities. This scattered type of settlement has its economic and historical reasons, yet this situation involves a number of difficulties from the viewpoint of the organization of the general administration, of public health and schooling, and of economic intercourse.¹ Since the thirties of the 19th century, these homesteads have slowly adopted their present forms, as the result of the lack of any conscious direction on the part of the governments; and the task of rationalizing public administration must not be considered as completed until a

¹ The Administration of Hungarian Homesteads. By Stephen Kiss. 1932. Publications of the Hungarian Institute of Public Administration. No. 7.

uniform administrative program concerning the further treatment of the above mentioned problems has been formulated to serve as the basis of a permanent activity. The Government Commissioner has made a proposal for preparing the necessary studies concerning the organization of homestead administration and has already submitted a preparatory memorandum on the subject to the Government and to the general public.

9) Administration and economic life. *a)* The burden of public taxes. The costs of administration are divided between the state and the local authorities, but they are paid by the same tax-payers. If, therefore, the costs of administration are examined, it is not sufficient to take into account only the items of the state budget: all the fiscal burdens of the municipal and parish budgets must be reckoned as well. Therefore it is necessary that the Home Office should give an exact statement of the expenditure and income as well as the personnel of *a)* the counties, *b)* the municipal towns, *c)* the county towns, *d)* the large and small villages. Furthermore, it is necessary that these data should be published systematically in the official statistical year-book, together with the above mentioned data of administration.

The total expenses of administration thus summarized must be divided into personal and material expenses. On the basis of an analysis of these data a rational plan is to be elaborated concerning the reduction of administrative expenditure.

The solution of problems coming under this head has been entrusted to the above mentioned Research Institute of Public Administration.

The state undertaking and the public credit institutes are the new forms of organization for meeting the economic tasks of administration; these, however, have not been hitherto legally regulated in a uniform manner, or fitted organically into the texture of administration. These tasks demand also a scientific study, a comparative analysis of

foreign cases, as well as organizers who are well versed both in public administration and in economic life. The Research Institute of Public Administration devotes attention also to preparing the necessary preliminary work ; and the National Congress of Hungarian Cities has also done valuable work in this respect.

10) The efficiency of administration depends to a large extent upon the administrative staff. The rationalization of public administration aims not only at perfecting the organization, but also at increasing the efficiency of officials. With regard to the employees of Hungarian public administration, particularly those belonging to the higher administrative service, all impartial experts will agree that they possess features both of intellect and character which qualify them for the highest kind of service. The systematic adjustment of the question of officials, however, if considered from the distant perspective of the period since 1867, cannot be described as uniform or consistent, still less as conforming to modern requirements.

There are many problems of the public service which have a general importance for the whole field administration. Nevertheless we see that the public service has often been regulated by the various ministries according to their own special points of view and therefore there are at present even important problems equally affecting all ministries which are regulated in the most diverse ways. It also happens that a certain question is regulated with reference to the sphere of activity of one ministry, while for another ministry no such regulation is made. This is the case in questions of appointment, of the requirements concerning special qualifications, of further training, promotion, and other points of service regulations. A first important result of rationalization in this line is seen in the circumstance that since January 1, 1932, a uniform administrative examination has been made obligatory for all candidates for the higher civil service with legal training. To this special examination those are

admitted who, after having attended the university for 8, or at least 7 semesters, have spent 3 years in practical administrative service. This examination corresponds to the second law examination usual in Germany, with the difference that while in Germany this examination qualifies at once for the post of a judge and higher administrative service, in Hungary there is also a uniform practical examination for candidates for the profession of lawyers and judges. There have been in Hungary, besides, various administrative examinations for which only a 2 years' practice was necessary, especially in the field of financial administration and the police service. In most branches, however, there have been no such examinations. The new uniform special administrative examination, equivalent to the above mentioned lawyers' and judges' examination, has now been systematically introduced into all departments of administration, both of the state and the local authorities. With regard to the circumstance that in public administration legal education (qualification) predominates, we may as a consequence of this examination expect a considerable advance in the special knowledge of civil service officials.

In the higher administrative service, however, there are, besides those possessing a law degree, also engineers, physicians, teachers, economists and other persons with special qualifications. It is necessary to facilitate for these officials also the acquiring of such legal knowledge as would enable them to do work of equal value with the legally trained officials employed in higher administrative service. In this connection another special examination has been planned and the Government Commissioner has been asked to prepare this question, as well as the reform of the instruction of law and political science in the universities.

11) Besides the fundamental and general tasks of rationalization, within the sphere of activity of each ministry numerous concrete measures of simplification and improvement as well as organizatory changes require to be made,

these measures to be carried out by the different ministries in their own sphere of activity ; these reforms, however, will be initiated or even prepared by the Government Commissioner, especially if they concern several ministries. But this is not the proper place to deal in detail with the work done in this line.

IV.

It follows from the above that with rationalization the center of gravity lies not in the activity of the different special ministries, but in securing a uniformity of solution in such questions as concern the whole administration or more than one department ; otherwise, the work in the different departments cannot be carried out economically. A few words are perhaps necessary to explain why this series of fundamental questions, which have by no means been exhausted in this enumeration, have remained unsolved since 1867. The answer is simple : because these questions go beyond the sphere of activity of the various departments. Until now, for instance, the question of civil service officials was dealt with by the Home Secretary, on account of the connection of this problem with that of the officials of the local authorities ; on account of the financial consequences of the question, however, the Minister of Finance has also dealt with it, but without the desired result. None of the Ministers felt the entire responsibility for these questions, because competence could be claimed to a greater or less extent also by other ministries. Besides, every minister could judge the question only from his own particular point of view, so that the broad viewpoints of public administration could not be enforced. The jealousy between departments, too, known all over the world, played its historical part during the last 60 years.

These omissions originate in an important defect of organization, namely, in the lack of a spiritual center in

Hungarian public administration, which could keep an eye on administration with its limits and could exercise the necessary influence on the efficiency of the uniform organization of public administration. There is the obvious objection to this, that it lies with the Cabinet Council to assert in practice this principle of integration. Experience, however shows us that the Cabinet Council does not always observe this viewpoint, or else it is not able to assert it; otherwise, it could not have happened, for instance, that the territorial division of administrative organs should take its present shape, in which not even two of the existing forty forms coincide.

The dimensions of public administration have developed extraordinarily in the course of the last century, both in Hungary and in other countries. The dimensions of the administration of dismembered Hungary exceed by far those of Greater Hungary both according to the state of things of 1848, and to that in force at the time of the re-establishment of the constitution in 1867. This means, in other words, that during this period administration became, from the technical point of view, a big concern, bringing with it the same problems of organization and direction as have to be solved in the big industrial undertakings, which developed everywhere during the same period. With regard to state functions, we may point to the example of the staff in army administration, where the unity of direction and free agency and of command is absolutely essential. This unity, however, is lacking entirely in administrative matters, in which, on the basis of the fundamental law of 1848 (Act III, 1848) the practice has developed that for the administrative affairs either the departmental Minister, or the whole Government (*i. e.* a body of ten members), bears the responsibility. The Prime Minister, indeed, is responsible only for the general direction of governmental policy; otherwise, he is chairman of the Cabinet Council only as *primus inter pares*, not as a hierarchic head of the Ministers. This is why in such

matters also as concern the whole of administration, only the departmental Minister or the entire Cabinet Council is responsible. In the dimensions of big concern, however, it is necessary that every organization should have a physically visible head who is personally responsible for all affairs that concern the whole. The rationalization of public administration can lead to the desired result only if the personal responsibility of the Prime Minister is enacted for the economy and efficiency of the organization and functioning of public administration.

Against this proposal it is sometimes objected that it is not necessary to expand the Prime Minister's sphere of competence, since the Prime Minister is at liberty to dismiss any member of his cabinet, whenever he likes, if that member does not conform to his intentions in all respects. This view, however, is hardly acceptable, because practical experience shows that the spirit and development of the civil service may be influenced by decrees or omissions which, taken in themselves, would not justify a change of Minister, a change often involving political complications. We often meet with cases in which there is perhaps sufficient material reason for a change of Minister, and yet the change cannot take place on account of the situation of party politics. Such cases are bound to increase in number, because in consequence of the introduction of universal suffrage (with secret ballot) so-called coalition governments, consisting of the representatives of several parties, will be formed, in which a change of a Minister's person may often break up the entire political combination. There are differences of efficiency and level between the different ministries; the level of the same ministry may also change from time to time. Yet the harmony in level and in the quality of the activity has a decisive importance in governing. For the Prime Minister who is responsible for the policy of the entire Government, it is of importance not only that he should have confidence in the political direction of his ministers, but also that they should

from the technical viewpoint, too, stand on a high level of efficiency : should one of them fail in this respect, it might greatly influence the whole work of the Government. The proposed extension of the Prime Minister's competence, therefore, is necessary also, because it would enable him to level the differences of standard between the different ministries, without having to recur to the politically delicate and often unavailable expedient of changing his Minister. In the autumn of 1931 the author of these lines submitted a memorandum to the Prime Minister, showing this connection of things ; this memorandum was sent also to the Members of Parliament and was made accessible to the general public, too.¹ In this memorandum it has been stated that the rationalization of public administration will show the desired permanent result only if the responsibility of the Prime Minister for the efficiency of the organization and functioning of public administration is enforced and, if in order to secure this aim, his influence on the work of all special departments is secured. The Government Commissioner has proved by the exegesis of different passages of law that this extension of the Prime Minister's competence can be solved satisfactorily by issuing a decree. If, however, the enactment of a law should be found necessary for this purpose, such a modification cannot be compared in importance with the historical reform of the constitution in 1848, when Hungary adopted the system of parliamentarism and responsible government ; nor can it be compared with those radical financial decrees which were necessitated by the Peace Treaty of Trianon or by the grave economic crisis already lasting two years. The importance of this reform, therefore, should not be exaggerated, since it is by no means a question of changing the constitution, although the Hungarian constitution knows of no fundamental laws which can be changed only by a qualified parliamentary majority.

¹ A magyar közigazgatás gazdaságosságának és eredményességének biztosítása. Athenaeum. Budapest, 1931.

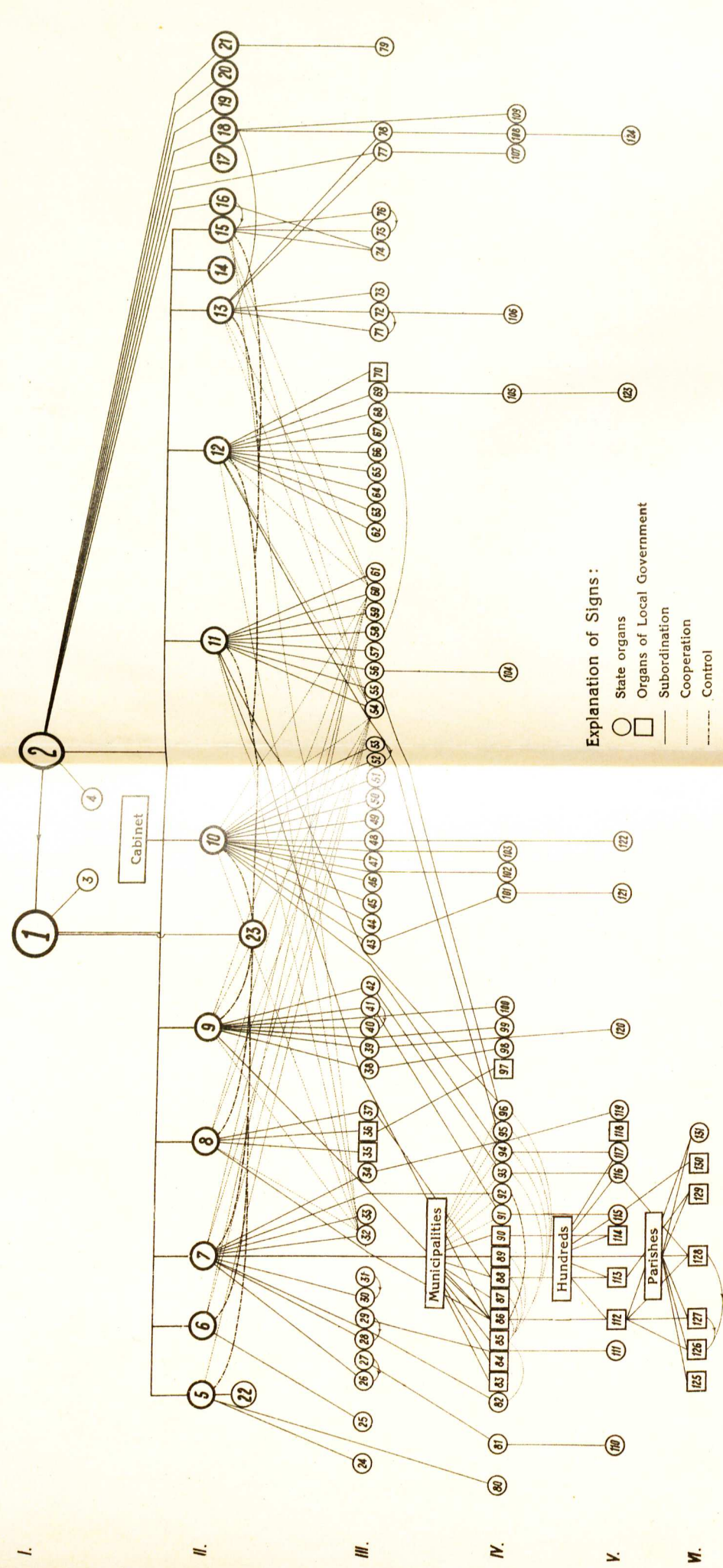
The memorandum of the Government Commissioner contains also the demonstration that as to the solution of the problems of organization due to the present large scale enterprise system of public administration, all countries agree that it can be attained only by extending the Prime Minister's competence. The Prime Minister of Great Britain has had this wider competence already for a considerable time, since he is at the same time First Lord of the Treasury, whose duty it is, owing to his special position as defined in English constitutional law, to make arrangements in all questions which concern the whole of the public service, together with its supervision and control. In Italy, according to the law of Dec. 24, 1925, the Prime Minister, instead of being *Presidente del Consiglio* became *Capo del Governo*; at the same time it was decreed that the Ministers are responsible not only to the King, but also to the Head of the Government. In this way the chief executive power is vested not in a body of men, consisting of a Prime Minister and coordinated departmental Ministers, but in a single physical person.

In the United States a *Bureau of the Budget* was organized in 1921, working in cooperation with the President; it is really a *Bureau of General Administration* and its object is to assist the President concerning the agenda of the highest administrative direction. This Bureau performs roughly the task of the *Head of the Civil Service* or the Chief of the General Staff of the armies.

A similar aim may be detected in a French decree of March 1, 1932, in which the President of the Republic authorizes the permanent Deputy Prime Minister to direct the *Contrôle des Administrations Publiques*. This argument could not be used yet in the memorandum, but the French solution also furnishes a proof that the criticism of administrative organization abroad, too, runs parallel to the author's conception.

OUTLINE OF THE ORGANISATION OF HUNGARIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN 1931

DRAFTED BY Prof. ZOLTÁN MAGYARY



Explanation of Signs:
 ○ State organs
 □ Organs of Local Government
 — Subordination
 - - - Cooperation
 ····· Control

- I. Parliament
2. Regent
3. Speaker's Office
4. Office of Private Secretary to Regent
- II.
 5. Prime Minister
 6. Foreign Minister
 7. Minister of Interior (Home Secretary)
 8. Minister of Public Welfare
 9. Minister of Agriculture
 10. Minister of Finance
 11. Minister of Commerce
 12. Minister of Education
 13. Minister of Justice
 14. Small Holdings Minister
 15. Minister of National Defence (War)
 16. Commander-in-chief of National Army
 17. Supreme Court of Administration
 18. Supreme Court of Justice (of Appeal)
 19. Land Distribution Commission
 20. Court of Competence
 21. Supreme Military Tribunal
 22. Government Commissioner for Rationalisation of Administration
 23. Public Audit Department
- III.
 24. Central Statistical Bureau
 25. Diplomatic (Consular) Representatives (44)
 26. Gendarmerie Inspector
 27. Gendarmerie Districts (7)
 28. Inspector of River Police
 29. Chief Harbour Master's Office
 30. National Labour Defence Inspector
 31. National Labour Defence Districts (19)
 32. Board of Petty Offences
 33. Disciplinary Court
 34. District Superintendents of Police (5)
 35. Private Employees Insurance Institute
 36. National Health Insurance Institute
 37. Public Health Inspectors (4)
 38. National Agricultural Labourers Insurance Fund
 39. Forestry Commissioners (6)
 40. Chief Inspector of Cattle Hygiene
 41. Inspectors of Cattle Hygiene (5)
 42. Economic Inspectorate
 43. Central Administration of Customs
 44. Central Emoluments Office
- IV.
 80. Board of Public Works in Budapest
 81. Gendarmerie Divisional Commands (23)
 82. Lord Lieutenants (in Budapest, Lord Mayor) (30)
 83. Municipal Councils (36)
 84. County Assemblies (in Budapest, Municipal Assembly) (36)
 85. Local Government Councils (36)
 86. Under-Sheriff (in municipal boroughs, Mayor) (36)
 87. Solicitors (36)
 88. Health Officers (36)
 89. Orphans Courts (81)
- V.
 45. Central Office for the Appointment of Charges and Dues
 46. Public Surveyor of Insurance Institutes
 47. Post Office Savings Bank
 48. Tobacco Régie: Central Management
 49. Ordnance Survey Department
 50. Geodetical Inspectors (10)
 51. Land Survey Inspectors (4)
 52. Customs Inspector
 53. Customs Districts (7)
 54. Central Directorate of Public Buildings
 55. District Inspectors of Public Highways (5)
 56. Central Standards Department
 57. District Inspectors of Industry (13)
 58. Chief Inspector of Industrial (Commercial) Education
 59. Chief Inspectorate of Railways and Shipping
 60. Interdepartmental Public Contracts Commission (Board)
 61. Public Labour Exchanges (8)
 62. Public Endowments Directorate (Trustees)
 63. Budapest University: Supplies Department
 64. District Inspectors of Secondary Schools (6)
 65. Chief Inspector of Commercial High Schools
 66. Chief Inspector of Teachers' Training Institutes
 67. Chief Inspectorates of «City» (Middle) Schools (4)
 68. Chief Inspector of Industrial Education
 69. Physical Training and People's Welfare Districts (7)
 70. Board of Museums and Libraries
 71. Attorney General
 72. Public Prosecutors' Offices (5)
 73. Legal Department of Treasury
 74. Mixed Brigade Commands (7)
 75. Attorney General of National Army
 76. Military Attorneys' Offices (7)
 77. High Commission for Control of Labourers Insurance
 78. Royal Courts of King's Bench (5)
 79. Brigade Tribunals (7)
- VI.
 90. Inspector of Fire Brigades
 91. Municipal Veterinary Surgeons (25)
 92. County Audit Offices (25)
 93. County Inspectors of Agriculture (26)
 94. Revenue Offices (24)
 95. Elementary School Inspectors (27)
 96. Public Buildings Offices (26)
 97. District Receiving Offices of National Health Insurance Institute (22)
 98. County Agricultural Labour Exchanges (25)
 99. River Surveyors' Offices (9)
 100. Civil Engineers' Offices (8)
 101. Customs Offices (43)
 102. Treasury Pay Office
 103. Offices of Commissioners of Mines (4)
 104. Assay Offices (16)
 105. Physical Training and People's Welfare Inspectors (29)
 106. Public Prosecutors' Offices (23)
 107. Labour Insurance Commissioners
 108. Courts of Law (24)
 109. Patent Office
- V.
 110. Gendarmerie Branch Commands (70)
 111. Harbour Masters' Offices (11)
 112. Chief Constables (in county town, Mayor) (199)
 113. District (Hundred) Health Officers (142)
 114. District (Hundred) Inspectors of Fire Brigades
 115. District (Hundred) Veterinary Surgeons (170)
 116. District (Hundred) Inspectors of Agriculture (78)
 117. Royal Hungarian Inland Revenue Offices (in Budapest, District Inspectors of Taxes) (156)
 118. Commissions for Investigating Claims against Assessment of Taxes (168)
 119. Offices of Superintendents of Police (67)
 120. Forestry Inspectors (79)
 121. District Customs Offices (36)
 122. Tobacco Purchase Offices (24)
 123. Physical Training and People's Welfare Sub-Inspectors (190)
 124. County Courts (144)
- VI.
 125. Parish Councils (3346)
 126. Local Magistrates (3346)
 127. Parish Clerk's Offices (1790)
 128. Rating Clerks (in towns, Inland Revenue Offices) (828)
 129. Parish Health (Medical) Officers (906)
 130. Parish Veterinary Surgeons (345)
 131. Registrar