WINTER 2006 VOLUME 12, NO. 1

JPAE
JOURNAL OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS EDUCATION

FLAGSHIP JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLS OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND ADMINISTRATION

JPAE
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National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration

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Journal of Public Affairs Education is published quarterly by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration. Claims for missing numbers should be made within the month following the regular month of publication. The publishers expect to supply missing numbers free only when losses have been sustained in transit and when the reserve stock will permit. *Subscription Rates:* Institution, $100; Individual, $45; Student, $35; Non-U.S., add $20 to applicable rate. *Change of Address:* Please notify us and your local postmaster immediately of both old and new addresses. Please allow four weeks for the change. *Postmaster:* Send address changes to *JPAE*, National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, 1120 G Street NW, Suite 730, Washington, DC 20005-3801.

The paper used in this publication meets the minimum requirements of American National Standard for Information Sciences—Permanence of Paper for Printed Library Materials, ANSI Z39.48-1984. *JPAE* is abstracted or indexed in Book Review Index, ERIC's CIJE Clearinghouse, Public Affairs Information Service, Sage Public Administration Abstracts, Education Index, and Education Abstracts. ISSN 1523-6803 (formerly 1087-7789).

Journal of Public Affairs Education
Winter 2006 Volume 12, No. 1

Cover design by Mario A. Rivera

From the Editors

With this, the Winter 2006 issue of the *Journal of Public Affairs Education,* the University of New Mexico's School of Public Administration (UNM/SPA) becomes the home for the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration's flagship journal. Thus, and in many other ways, this is a transitional issue. It marks the conclusion of five years of distinguished leadership by Editor-in-Chief Edward T. Jennings, Jr., of the University of Kentucky. The current issue should be considered a part of Professor Jenning's legacy: The articles in it were received, peer-reviewed, and approved for publication under his guidance and that of his editorial team, April Harmon of the University of Kentucky, Vera Vogelsang Coombs of Cleveland State University, and Linda de-Leon of Colorado State University. Their dedication and skill have been a gift to NASPAA and its membership, and to the study of public affairs, public administration, and public policy. Dr. Jennings will continue to guide *JPAE* as a member of its Editorial Board, and the new editorial team we lead will continue to prevail on him for his sage counsel for years to come.

We also wish to acknowledge the invaluable guidance we have received from Professor Patricia Shields of Texas State University at San Marcos, who has helped immeasurably in the transition as the designated lead on *JPAE* for NASPAA's Executive Council. We have gleaned the benefit of Pat's editorial and publishing expertise; she will be joining the Editorial Board and will be counted on for her continued leadership.

Professor Jennings' role change is not the only transition for *JPAE* that is marked by the publication of this issue. Though she will remain closely involved with the direction of the journal, Laurel McFarland, now NASPAA's executive director, has turned her former editorship of the Gazette over to Scott Talan, NASPAA's marketing and communications director. Scott brings significant journalism experience and much vision to his task, and he has begun to move the Gazette toward a more comprehensive functionality within *JPAE*, as demonstrated in this issue by the interview with NASPAA President Dan Mazmanian and the innovative Mark Rincón essay that he commissioned.

In addition, with this issue the journal moves to a quarterly publication designated by season. Moreover, the journal itself has a new format marked by a different size and a novel cover design. This latter change comes with some regret. For years, Charles T. Goodsell of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University contributed the extraordinary cover photographs that came to define *JPAE*'s look. That irreplaceable contribution to *JPAE* was slated to end with the October 2005 issue of the journal, irrespective of the current editorial transition, and we are certain that the journal's readership will miss Dr. Goodsell's intriguing photos.

Fortunately, however, some things will remain the same. We will still avail ourselves of the invaluable and gifted work of our production editor, Jennifer

Ward, who will continue to provide us with her unmatched contributions in this area. She is due many thanks for her skill, patience, and perseverance, and in particular for making the current issue possible. Also, thanks are due—though thanks alone are insufficient—to the journal's Editorial Board for their personal and professional investment in the journal, not least as reviewers of submitted articles.

The members of the new editorial team, Editor-in-Chief Bruce J. Perlman and Managing Editor Mario A. Rivera, both of UNM/SPA, and Associate Editor for International Education Patria de Lancer Julnes of Utah State University are acutely aware of the enormous responsibility and challenges posed by the journal's peerless history. That history, dating to the work of Founding Editor H. George Frederickson, was made possible by the aforementioned individuals and by others whom by oversight we have failed to acknowledge.

We can only assure NASPAA, its member programs, and the journal's readership that we will strive to sustain the quality and integrity of the journal they have left to us. This entails not only remaining always aware of the responsibility that such stewardship requires, but, concomitantly, of the need to proceed consultatively, relying on the advice and support of all those who share our commitment to the success of the journal, in particular Professor Jennings, Laurel McFarland, the NASPAA Executive Council, and our Editorial Board.

As the revised "Information for Contributors" section in this issue indicates, the new editorial team will strive for continuity of emphasis while also highlighting certain thematic areas given prominence by a series of simultaneous revolutions in public affairs education. Among these are (1) government reform, democratization, and modernization under the pressure of a global economy and the internationalization of public affairs; (2) a transformation of information and other high technologies resulting in a change in the tools, processes, and delivery mechanisms for government and government-related education, including an emphasis on distance education and cooperative learning; and (3) a global values climate that emphasizes or should emphasize ethics, purpose, accountability, and transparency in the conduct of the public's business, making the moral, historical, and human elements of public affairs education more important than at any time since the 1970s. These trends and kindred others demand not only significant innovations in public affairs and public administration education but their timely dissemination as well.

Against this background, *JPAE* should be positioned to be the leading venue for recording and sharing premium information about how public affairs education programs are addressing these various challenges. This information must come not only from the national scene but also from international experience. Thus, the prospective mission and vision of *JPAE* would reflect these new emphases while grounding them in the journal's historic mission, here restated:

> The *Journal of Public Affairs Education* is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs broadly defined, which includes the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy. *JPAE* pursues its mission by publishing high-quality theory, empirical research, and commentary. The core values of *JPAE* are rigor, relevance, clarity, accessibility, and methodological diversity.

While stressing strict continuity with the journal's historic mission and vision, the new editorial team will expand the scope of these defining orientations to include two broad but crucial themes. The first is that of public management practice across sectors, centrally including nonprofit and nongovernmental organizations. The second theme is diversity broadly defined, including diversity of cultural and national perspective, in ways that are germane to the missions of NASPAA and of the journal itself.

For instance, the integral development of *JPAE*'s mission and vision should take the form of greater incorporation of contributions from public administration researchers, academics, and practitioners abroad and a consistent focus on the development and accreditation of public affairs education internationally; this entails a particular, though in no way exclusive, concern with Latin America and Eastern Europe, where NASPAA's efforts have concentrated. Another area of emphasis in this context is that of comparative and international administration, as well as the examination of global disciplinary trends in public management that reflect the broadest conception of the impact of graduate and professional public affairs education.

Other developments in *JPAE* will come, although we assure readers that these never will occur precipitously. An electronic presence for *JPAE* is planned in the form of a new and expanded electronic version that will accompany the print version in the future. An expanded Gazette is expected to be a feature of that electronic journal. It is also anticipated that we will look to the NASPAA and ASPA conferences as a source of papers and symposia.

In any event, we are mindful of the fact that this is a shared enterprise: what innovation can be accomplished, in ways that are integral with the journal's history, will turn on the contribution of all of those who have shared in the development of the journal and who share a commitment to its continued success.

—Bruce J. Perlman, Ph.D., Editor-in-Chief
—Mario A. Rivera, Ph.D., Editor

Information for Contributors

The *Journal of Public Affairs Education* (*JPAE*) is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs broadly defined, which includes the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy. *JPAE* pursues its mission by publishing high-quality theory, empirical research, and commentary. The core values of *JPAE* are rigor, relevance, clarity, accessibility, and methodological diversity.

Articles: JPAE welcomes contributions from all public affairs educators who seek to reflect on their professional practice and to engage *JPAE* readers in an exploration of what or how to teach. *JPAE* articles are intended to influence experienced educator-specialists but also to be comprehensible and interesting to a broad audience of public affairs teachers. Articles appropriate for publication in *JPAE* include comprehensive literature reviews and meta-analyses, carefully constructed position papers, critical assessments of what we teach and how we teach it, thoughtful essays about commonly shared teaching challenges, experimental and quasi-experimental assessments of students' learning, evaluations of new curricula or curriculum trends, national and international/comparative disciplinary and pedagogical developments, and field studies of particular teaching methods.

In addition to articles, the editors welcome proposals for symposia. Proposals that are accepted will be announced in the journal and will be accompanied by a call for papers. Submissions for symposia will be considered through the normal review process.

Decisions about the publication of all articles are based on the recommendation of members of the editorial board using a blind review process. Substantive content, writing style, and length are all relevant to a decision to publish a manuscript. Depending on the type of manuscript, the review process takes into account the following criteria:

- Research-based: adequacy of theoretical grounding; reliability and validity of findings; significance of the topic; significance of the findings.
- Interpretive, reflective, critical, theoretical: significance of the topic; quality of the argument; quality of the supporting evidence.
- Creative pedagogy: creativity of the approach; soundness of the explanation; evidence of effectiveness; utility for faculty.
- Case studies: pedagogical value; scope of potential use; clear teaching purposes.
- In all cases, writing quality is an important consideration.

Manuscripts that are obviously inappropriate or insufficiently developed will be returned without formal review. Interested authors can better understand the journal's audience and its expectations for content, quality, and focus by examining what *JPAE* has published in recent years or by contacting members of the editorial board or staff.

Manuscripts submitted should not have been published and should not be under consideration elsewhere. Papers presented at a professional conference qualify for consideration; in fact, the submission of manuscripts that have been thoroughly revised following presentation at a professional meeting is encouraged.

In general, authors are strongly encouraged to have their work reviewed and evaluated by colleagues prior to submission for formal review in order to facilitate the editorial process.

Manuscripts should be sent to jpae@unm.edu. Only electronic submissions sent to this email address as Microsoft Word attachments will be considered. Any accompanying message should be addressed simply to "Editors," not to a particular editor.

In order for manuscripts to be reviewed as quickly as possible, authors are asked to observe the following requirements:

- Ensure that the manuscript is anonymous by leaving off your name and putting self-identifying references in a separate Microsoft Word file and as a separate attachment.
- Use margins of one and one-half (1-1/2) inches at the left, right, top, and bottom of the page.
- *JPAE* uses the in-text parenthetical reference system with all references at the end of the text in alphabetical order. Notes are to be kept to a minimum. See the Chicago Manual of Style for guidance.

It is important that you identify the type of manuscript you are submitting: (1) research based; (2) interpretive, reflective, critical, or theoretical essay or position paper; (3) creative pedagogy; or (4) teaching case study.

Creative Pedagogy: The purpose of Creative Pedagogy is to feature innovative approaches to teaching specific public affairs subjects or concepts. The goal of this feature is to present experimental exercises, simulations, role plays, or other creative teaching technologies in a format that colleagues can readily use. Submissions are peer reviewed.

Contributions to Creative Pedagogy must include substantive details (e.g., text for the case, role descriptions for a role play exercise) and a narrative discussion about how the pedagogy is used, student response to it, suggestions for instructors who may wish to use it, and results associated with its use. The presentation of the pedagogy should be thorough and lively so that teachers reading the article will be stimulated and able to use the information.

Submissions for Creative Pedagogy should be sent to Editors, *JPAE*, at jpae@unm.edu, as indicated above.

Review Essays: Reviews will commonly use a cluster format in which several books, videos, software programs, cases, CD-ROMs, Internet sites, or other instructional materials will be compared and contrasted in an essay. Review essays should offer a point of view but should seek to treat each item in the cluster fairly. Essays could be structured around a comparison of related resources, resources related to the public affairs education enterprise, or resources that directly or indirectly have something to say about public affairs education. Review essays should strive for clarity, brevity, and timeliness. Inquires about review essays should be sent to Mario A. Rivera, Editor, at jpae@unm.edu.

ARTICLES

Assessing Performance in NASPAA Graduate Programs

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Abstract

Performance in graduate programs seeking accreditation through the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration may be assessed through a variety of indicators. This paper focuses on the second NASPAA standard, program mission, which requires demonstrated performance, and it addresses multiple program outcomes rather than a single performance measurement tool. The performance measurement efforts at the University of Delaware are discussed as an example of one program's approach to meeting the program mission standard.

This paper addresses the issue of assessing performance in graduate programs seeking accreditation through the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Rather than describing a single tool, as did Roberts (2001) in the use of stakeholder surveys and Durant (2002) in the use of the capstone course, this article addresses multiple program outcomes through a variety of performance indicators to meet the NASPAA requirements and lead to educational improvements as recommended by Jennings (1989).

According to NASPAA, "the purpose of these standards for professional master's degree programs in public affairs/policy/administration is to promote and maintain educational quality" (NASPAA, 2005). The association has established nine standards with the following headings: Eligibility for Peer Review and Accreditation, Program Mission, Program Jurisdiction, Curriculum, The Faculty, Admission of Students, Student Services, Support Services and Facilities, and Off-Campus and Distance Education. Programs are required to address each standard in a self-study. The self-study is followed by an onsite evaluation from a site visit team appointed by the Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (COPRA).

This paper focuses on the second standard, program mission, which requires the demonstration of performance. As NASPAA states, "the program shall use information about its performance in directing and revising program objectives, strategies, and operations." This standard also requires that the self-study include ways to measure program outcomes and the results of such efforts. This paper will specifically discuss one program's approach to meeting this requirement.

NASPAA joins others in the trend toward advocating accountability by demonstrating mission-driven results. For example, for Drucker, the mission statement is the instrument of accountability for public organizations. Successful organizations have learned to "define clearly what changes outside the organization constitute results and to focus on them" (Drucker, 1989, 89). In 1990, Congress passed the Chief Financial Officers Act, requiring the timely reporting of performance information. In 1991, the National Academy of Public Administration adopted a resolution endorsing and encouraging the development and use of performance monitoring at all levels of government. Congress passed the Government Performance and Results Act in 1993, requiring all agencies to develop strategic plans, set goals and objectives, and measure progress toward these goals (for more description on trends, see Bavon, 1995; Aristigueta, 1999). The adoption of the outcome approach to assessment in higher education is discussed below and is followed by assessment in public affairs/policy/administration.

To clarify, a mission statement is the program's fundamental purpose, while goals are the directives that will help us achieve the mission. The goals in this case study also provide the framework for the performance indicators. In addition, it is important to differentiate between outputs and outcomes. Outputs are the products or services delivered; outcomes are "the events, occurrences, or changes in conditions, behavior, or attitudes that indicate progress toward achievement of the mission and objective of the program"[1] (Hatry, 1999, 15). It is not unusual for final outcomes to take a long time to materialize, so intermediate outcomes, although not an end in themselves, are also used to measure progress. These terms are included in the outcome chart found later in this paper.

Ideally, the self-study will be more than just a vehicle for reaccreditation purposes; the format for the self-study serves as a framework to study program performance. Ewell (1994, 29) states

> [B]adly needed…is a set of agreements on what self-regulation in higher education ought to be fundamentally about…. One is the

> community's own assurance of academic quality. This means first and foremost a predominant focus on the assessment of outcomes and results…. Focusing on outcomes as the centerpiece of recognition also forces us to address (and eventually develop a satisfactory answer to) legitimate questions about the common meaning of academic awards given in common."

This leads to the topic for this paper and the research questions: How do public affairs, public policy, or public administration program administrators know if they are accomplishing their mission? How is performance measured? And most importantly, how do we know if students are learning?

Assessment in Public Affairs/Policy/Administration

Concerns about assessment in public affairs, public policy, and public administration are not new. The beginning of assessment of public service programs was the 1941 study in Graham's *Education for Public Administration*, according to Cleary (1990). Jennings (1989, 439) writes of a report issued by NASPAA in 1987 that "the Task Force on the Future of NASPAA recommended that NASPAA include in its strategic plans a study to review present master's degree standards and the curricula of NASPAA institutions in order to determine whether the present and future needs of the public service are being well served." Jennings promotes the use of outcome assessments focusing on the knowledge, values, and skills acquired by public affairs, public policy, and public administration graduates and the effectiveness of those graduates in the workplace, and he warns against an assessment process that serves only as a mechanism for accountability. In order to have an impact on program operations, Jennings says, one "must involve faculty, students, alumni, and public service employers in a process of renewal to lead to educational improvements" (443). Helpful information is found in previous studies referenced in this manuscript. Table 1 on the following page summarizes recent articles useful to assessing performance in NASPAA-accredited programs and referenced in this manuscript.

The literature of higher education also addresses assessment. Huba and Freed (2000, 8) define assessment as "the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning." Another definition comes from Black and Wiliam (1998), who believe that assessment broadly includes all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning.

Higher education regional accreditation agencies surfaced partly to curtail the direct involvement of state legislators, an effort that led specialized accrediting

Table 1. Studies for Assessing Program Performance in NASPAA Graduate Programs

	Methodology	*History of Assessments*	*Common Curriculum Components*	*Outcomes*	*Assessment Techniques*	*Findings*
Jennings (1989)	Literature review.	Thorough history of assessments.	Outlined in paper.	Advocates outcomes assessments of knowledge, skills, and values expected of MPA graduates.	Information on use of surveys, testing, and assessment centers.	Assessments as a learning process for educational improvements.
Cleary (1990)	Survey.		Did not find much difference in accredited vs. nonaccredited programs.			Thorough study of what MPA programs look like with questions for further study.
Roberts (2001)	Survey and case study application.				Stakeholder surveys.	Surveys of stakeholders to provide feedback to program.
Boyle and Whitaker (2001)	Case study.		Core MPA curriculum focusing on knowledge, values, and skills. Courses taught and sample of texts used.			Focused on the changing public sector and whether curriculum was meeting needs as was the focus of our curriculum review.
Durant (2002)	Case study.		Mission-driven capstone course for learning-based program development			Capstone course as useful outcome measure.
Williams (2002)	Case study.	Requiremens for assessments in other fields.		Development of mission statement, objectives, and strategies.	Tracking indicators and measures using surveys and portfolios.	Study emphasizes the tradeoffs necessary for measures.
Breaux, Clynch, and Morris (2003)	Content analysis.		Core curriculum of 135 NASPAA programs.			Study found that, in spite of flexibility provided by mission-based accreditation, content of core curricula does not differ substantially.
Aristigueta and Gomes	Case study	Summary review of history.	Comprehensive curriculum.	Outcomes assessment chart as framework for assessment.	Surveys, demographic and academic data, performance appraisals.	Aligning of goals to outcomes and assessment tools is imperative. Allow time to learn and make program changes from the process.

bodies to adopt an outcomes approach to program evaluation (Huba and Freed, 2000). Competition also helped to trigger the need for assessment as three other factors were occurring: higher education institutions were competing with each other for students; foreign countries were producing well-prepared students as the job market was becoming more competitive and specialized; and employers were requiring students to have skills and experience when entering the job market. In order to demonstrate outcomes and compete in the various markets, there was and continues to be a need for systematic evaluation that can produce clear and interpretable results.

Although it has been established that assessment in higher education is necessary, resistance continues. Angelo (1999, 5) believes that a major reason assessment has been unpersuasive has to do with the "concept of assessment itself." More often than not, assessment is viewed as a necessary evil, something that must be done and is usually added to already heavy workloads. An attitude of resistance develops when assessment is seen as a mechanical and technical burden. Yet assessment is often a routine check-up mandated by external sources such as accrediting bodies, funding sources, or higher levels of an institution within which a program is housed. As Angelo (1999, 5) notes, "in general, already existing assessment techniques and methods are more than sufficient to meet the challenges we face. It's the ends toward which, and the ways in which, we use those tools that are the problem."

Methods Used to Guide and Assess Performance at Delaware and in Other NASPAA Programs

An attempt to take these issues into consideration is made by the University of Delaware, whose program will be used as a case study and as one way of approaching the accreditation requirements, albeit not the only way. Let us begin by examining the description of the Delaware Model found in Denhardt et al. (1997), updated and paraphrased below:

> The University of Delaware School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy has developed a model of public administration education that seeks to build upon the student's total experience in such a way that theory and practice are fully integrated. This effort is based not only in the curriculum, which seeks to integrate theory and practice in many of the same ways that other progressive public administration programs do, but also in the design and operation of the college itself.
>
> The School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy is organized around three academic programs and five centers. The programs include a Master of Urban Affairs, a Master of Public Administration, and a Ph.D. in Urban Affairs and Public Policy. The centers include the

> Center for Applied Demography and Survey Research, the Center for Community Research and Service, the Center for Energy and Environmental Policy, the Center for Historic Architecture and Engineering, and the Institute for Public Administration. The experience of working with faculty and staff on current public issues is an essential and invaluable part of graduate education in public administration at the University of Delaware. Pre-service MPA students are involved in research assistantships in the college's centers and directly with faculty, off-campus research assistantships or on-campus agency placements, and state legislative fellowships. In each case, an effort is made to involve students—with faculty and staff—in developing and executing projects of substantial benefit to state and local government in Delaware.

Although this is not the mission of the program (the mission may be found in Figure 1), it is directly reflected in the mission and hence drives the outcomes and methods for evaluation.

As in other public affairs, public policy, and public administration programs, multiple methods to guide and assess the program are used to assist in offsetting the deficiencies of a single performance indicator (see Roberts, 2001, and Williams, 2002, for example). Williams states that "truly sophisticated measures are very difficult to design for graduate programs" (46). Nonetheless, he sees utility in general indicators that provide data to suggest and inform decisions, even if they do not provide statistically defensive conclusions. (For further discussion on the tradeoff involved in the use of performance measures, see Williams, 2002).

In the last decade, the Delaware MPA faculty has participated in two strategic planning efforts and a comprehensive curriculum review beyond the NASPAA accreditation review, self-study, and site visit. The strategic planning resulted in a mission statement and the identification of goals. A year-long, comprehensive curriculum review in 1999, undertaken by a committee appointed by the program director, analyzed data from several sources including exit surveys, course enrollments, and results from a focus group of alumni. The committee also examined the curriculum of well-respected MPA programs throughout the nation. Guests such as Maureen Brown of the University of North Carolina, Paul Light of the Brookings Institution, and Michael Brintnall, then director of NASPAA, were invited to discuss with the faculty changes in the field and needed changes in the MPA curriculum. The question driving the curriculum review was, What should a new curriculum include in order to prepare students for the new public service? The goal was to identify conceptual knowledge as well as necessary skills. MPA faculty at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, held a similar discussion (see Boyle and Whitaker, 2001). The result of the necessary core knowledge, values, and skills were very similar for both programs. For a detailed listing, please refer to Boyle and Whitaker (2001, 271). It is also interesting to note that, despite the flexibility that accompanies a mission-based accreditation, Breaux, Clynch, and Morris (2003) did not find much variation in the core curricula of the 135 MPA programs that they studied.

In addition to the strategic plans and curriculum reviews, the faculty discusses multiple reports containing informal and formal performance indicators annually:

- Faculty reviews progress of all students in the program.
- Faculty participation in student's analytical papers—the capstone experience in the University of Delaware's MPA program—provides MPA faculty with information beyond their classroom experience about the products of the program.

Figure 1. Program Mission and Goals—University of Delaware MPA

The mission of the University of Delaware's Master of Public Administration program is to provide diverse, talented graduate students with specific competencies for leadership and management, including the knowledge, skills, and values essential to accountable and effective practice. The MPA program contributes directly to solutions to public challenges of our times through research and public service projects that involve students in experiential learning. The program also seeks to develop relationships with practitioners, fostering a professional focus and approach to public administration and nonprofit management and furthering the values of the field.

The following eight goals accompany the mission:

1. Emphasize the values of the profession in coursework, publications, and professional activities.
2. Continue to enhance the excellence and diversity of our student body through recruiting efforts at colleges and universities in the region.
3. Maintain and continue to enhance a set of core courses that require students to master essential knowledge, skills, and values.
4. Maintain and continue to enhance a set of areas of specialization that include courses requiring students to master the essential knowledge, skills, and values of the field. Academic areas of specialization will be based upon active research, public services, and professional achievements of the faculty.
5. Provide students with experiential learning through the research and service centers of the college, especially as research assistants in the Institute for Public Administration, Center for Community Research and Service, Health Policy Research Group, and Center for Applied Demography and Survey Research.
6. Develop and maintain a nationally recognized internship program, integrated in and supported by the Institute for Public Administration.
7. Maintain and establish relationships with government and nonprofit organizations that contribute to the mission of the program
8. Encourage faculty and students to conduct applied research and public service, and to communicate the results of this research to both the practitioner and academic communities.

- Course evaluation summaries.
- The internship coordinator's annual reports and summaries of student placements. He also has regularly reported on student outcomes with the Presidential Management Internship (now Fellows) program.
- Admissions data are reported each spring including the number of applicants accepted, qualifications of those accepted, and which students did not accept our offers and, when known, why.
- Annual program entry and exit surveys.
- Annual curriculum reviews.
- Alumni survey of career placements
- Continuous feedback from the Urban Affairs Alumni Association.

Once we were comfortable with our mission and goals, which were updated as result of our strategic planning effort and curriculum review, we sought ways in which to assess our performance. More specifically, we contacted the Center for Teaching Effectiveness at the university for assistance with two questions: How do we know that students are learning, and how can we effectively assess learning?

The center was established in 1975 as a part of the university's teaching infrastructure, with the purpose of promoting the enhancement of learning and teaching at the university. Its primary goals are to

- Support the instructional improvement efforts of all members of university's teaching community.
- Facilitate the implementation of programs and activities that enrich and improve teaching and learning.
- Promote active engagement and innovation in teaching and learning.
- Cultivate an institutional climate that values, rewards, sustains, and renews excellence in teaching and learning.
- Act as a source of information and research on teaching and learning in higher education. (Source: Center for Teaching Effectiveness)

The Center provided reading materials and advice for this project and a listing of characteristics for effective assessment. These characteristics, which included the following, were used to guide our assessment (adapted from Angelo and Cross, 1993, and found at www.udel.edu/cte):

- Focuses on the processes as well as on the products of instruction.
- Assesses what we teach—and what we expect students to learn.
- Actively involves both teachers and students.
- Uses multiple and varied measures.
- Provides information for improving learning.
- Is carried out at various key points.
- Provides useful, timely feedback to those being assessed and those most affected.

- Is an intrinsically educational activity—one that reinforces and furthers the teaching and learning goals on which it focuses.

Using and Aligning Goals, Activities, and Outcomes for Assessment

In addition to formal program reviews, the MPA program director, school director, and faculty receive regular input from alumni, employers, and public service clients as a result of the public service orientation of the school, faculty, and affiliated centers. The Delaware model of education calls for and supports students working in internships, as Legislative Fellows, and in off-campus assistantships and on-campus research assistantships with frequent client interaction. Thus, feedback on students and graduates tends to be immediate and direct, albeit qualitative and anecdotal.

We needed systematic data to attest to what we were hearing. The program used the following guiding questions to determine the types of assessments needed:

- What is the purpose of the assessment?
- What do you hope to learn from this assessment?
- What will be assessed?
- Who will be assessed?
- How will it be assessed? Time frame for assessment?
- In what setting will the assessment be conducted?
- How will the results be analyzed?
- How will the results be used? How will the results be helpful to you and your students?
- To whom will the results be communicated?
- How will the results be communicated?

(Source: Center for Teaching Effectiveness)

Alignment is another paramount concept in mission-driven performance management. Paul LaMarca (2001, 1) provides an example of how alignment

Figure 2. Process for Development of Outcome Chart

1. Develop draft outcome chart (develop additional surveys to address outcomes).
2. Share draft outcome chart with faculty and ask for faculty comments.
3. Review draft outcome chart and make appropriate changes.
4. Pre-test survey instrument (review by select group of stakeholders and make appropriate changes).
5. Administer surveys.
6. Analyze data and prepare summary.

Table 2. Outcome Assessment Chart

Goals	*Activities*	*Assessment Type*	*Intermediate Outcome*	*Assessment Type*	*End Outcomes*
1. Emphasize values of profession	Courses, internship; research assistantships	Student exit survey	Internship	Alumni/employer survey	Graduates demonstrate values of the profession
2. Recruit diverse, talented students	Comprehensive recruitment program	Demographic and academic data from Graduate Student Office	An enriched program with diverse and talented students	Demographic and academic data from Graduate Student Office. Faculty and intern supervisor comments about students.	A racially and culturally diverse program
3. Maintain core courses	Offering of, and annual review of, core courses	Student exit survey, course description update, course evaluations	General knowledge base for general public administration skills	Alumni/employer survey	Knowledge to be effective in work environment
4. Enhance areas of specialization	Offering of and annual review of specialization courses	Student exit survey, course description update, course evaluations	Specific knowledge base for skills in area of specialization	Alumni/employer survey	Knowledge to be effective in work environment
5. Involve students in faculty research	Research assistantships	Student exit survey	Gain practical knowledge, foster ownership of projects	Alumni/employer survey	Better grasp of career interests/qualifications for positions
6. Maintain nationally recognized internship program	Internship seminar, internships	Student exit survey	Professional-level work experience in the field, student recruitment	Alumni/employer survey	Placement in chosen field
7. Maintain and establish relationships with government and nonprofits	Site visits, projects, research assistantships	Faculty workload, internship placements	Government agency visits to campus, off-campus instructors	Alumni/employer survey	Regional recognition, placement for students
8. Conduct applied research	Faculty publications, analytical papers	Student exit survey, faculty reviews	Publications, technical reports, presentations at conferences	Performance appraisals	National recognition

is conceived in the academic environment: "alignment refers to the degree of match between test content and the subject area content identified through state academic standards." For purposes of this paper, it can be said that alignment refers to the degree of match between the program goals and assessment tools in measuring outcomes and ultimately the mission of the MPA program as required by NASPAA.

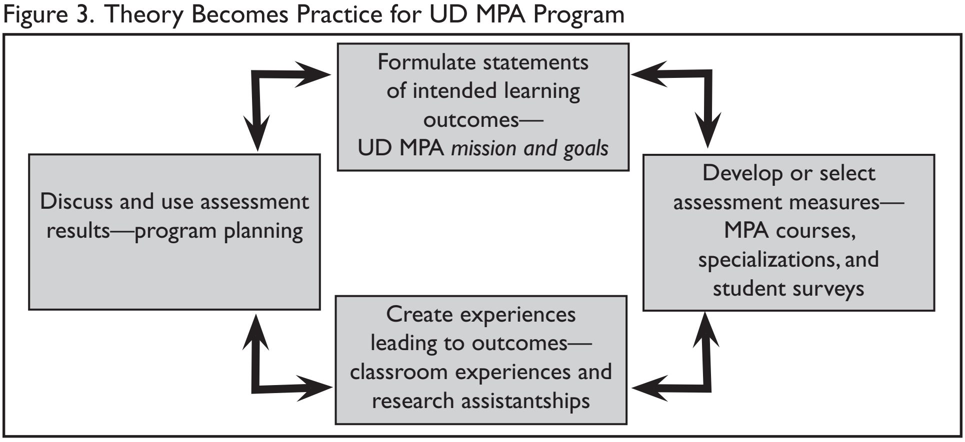
LaMarca (2001, 4) believes that "alignment is not only a methodological requirement but also an ethical requirement. It would be a disservice to students and schools to judge achievement of academic expectation based on a poorly aligned system of assessment." In other words, it would be a disservice to students for the MPA program to not provide proper assessment techniques aligned with the mission and goals. Therefore, throughout the course of a program's self-study, the theme of alignment should remain prevalent and should be defined as the degree of match between the program goals and assessment tools that lead toward measuring outcomes in accomplishing goals.

One of the first accomplishments in the self-study was an outcome assessment chart. The chart was developed as a way to visually display the alignment of the mission to the eight goals, to program activities, assessment type to measure the activities, intermediate outcomes expected from the activities, assessment type to measure the intermediate outcome, and expected end outcomes. The mission is not found in this chart because of its length, but may be found in Figure 1. Figure 2 describes the process that was undertaken to develop the chart. Table 2 displays the outcome assessment chart.[2]

Outcome Assessment

Huba and Freed's assessment process (www.udel.edu/cte) is of an iterative nature. The process is circular to show balance in activity without giving impor-

Figure 3. Theory Becomes Practice for UD MPA Program



Source: Adapted from Huba and Freed (2000) as found in Bauer and Bauer (2002). A General Education Institute Session, July, University of Delaware, PowerPoint presentation. Retrieved 10-6-2003 from http://www.udel.edu/cte.

Figure 4. Benefits and Characteristics of Intended Learning Outcomes

- Intended learning outcomes for the basis of assessment at the course, program, and institutional levels.
- Intended learning outcomes provide direction for all instructional activity.
- Intended learning outcomes inform students about the intentions of the faculty.
- Intended learning outcomes focus on the learning resulting form an activity rather than on the activity itself.
- Intended learning outcomes reflect the institution's vision and the values it represents.
- Intended learning outcomes are in alignment at the course, academic program, and institutional levels.
- Intended learning outcomes focus on important, nontrivial aspects of learning that are credible to the public.
- Intended learning outcomes focus on skills and abilities central to the discipline and based on professional standards of excellence.
- Intended learning outcomes are general enough to capture important learning but clear and specific enough to be measurable.
- Intended leaning outcomes focus on aspects of learning that will develop and endure but that can be assessed in some form now.

Source: Huba and Freed, 2000, 95-117.

Figure 5. Example of Alignment of Goals to Questions in Student Exit Survey

Goal 4: Maintain and continue to enhance a set of areas of specialization that include courses requiring students to master the essential knowledge, skills and values of the field. Academic areas of specialization will be based upon active research, public services, and professional achievements of the faculty.

Students are asked to rate "your satisfaction with the role of the specialization courses in helping you master essential knowledge, skills, and values in your specialization area using a 5-point scale from 5=very satisfied to 1=very dissatisfied (z=cannot rate)."

22. Availability of area of specialization you wanted to pursue.
23. Specialization courses in the area of specialization you chose.
24. Knowledge gained from specialization courses.
25. Applicability of specialization courses' subject matter to your projected career.
26. Mini-courses (1-credit courses) appropriate for area of specialization.

Note: Questions 22, 23, 24, 25, and 26 were all related to this goal and may be aggregated to measure performance.

Source: University of Delaware, School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy, MPA Program.

tance to one step over another. Figure 3 shows the Huba and Freed assessment process as applied by the University of Delaware's MPA program.

Alignment requires the following fundamental ingredients: First is mission and goals, or according to the Huba and Freed model, statements of intended learning outcomes (see Figure 4). Second, there has to be a way to assess the goals, or according to Huba and Freed, a process of developing or selecting assessment measures. Recognizing that final results will take time to achieve, the MPA faculty have identified and agreed upon intermediate as well as end outcomes to measure the goals. The third ingredient would be a way to test the assessment tools, or to measure outcomes. For the purpose of the self-study, surveys were used (and expanded below) in addition to the curriculum review, and a focus group of alumni was created to discuss the perceived impact of the MPA curriculum on their careers.

Surveys and Alignment to Mission and Goals

We used two primary instruments and will begin by discussing the student exit survey, which is given to students upon completion of the program. The data reveal overall student satisfaction with the program. Alignment began with the program's eight goals as the starting point and all survey questions were aligned with a program goal. For an example, refer to Figure 5, which demonstrates the alignment of goal 4 with survey questions.

Inservice, external stakeholder surveys are distributed to alumni, employers, and internship supervisors who are working in the field of public administration. The surveys are used to examine the level of importance of skills and coursework from the perspective of the practitioner. Second, the data are used to determine the effectiveness of the program goals based on the level of importance. As may be expected, we experienced a lower response rate from the in-service respondents than from the students. The data were aggregated among the three groups to allow for a more realistic picture of how the external stakeholders view the MPA program.

The final step in beginning alignment is linking all survey questions to the eight goals, or, in Huba and Freed's terms, using assessment results to improve learning. The same method of relating questions to mission and goal alignment that is used for the student exit surveys is also used for the external, in-service stakeholder surveys. The student exit survey had been reconstructed to correlate with the eight mission goals. The external stakeholder survey instrument was borrowed from Dr. Chris Grant of Georgia College and State University. Because of time constraints, it was not adapted to correlate with the MPA's eight goals; plans are underway to modify the survey.

Program Changes Resulting from Assessments

The most significant changes in the MPA program with a basis in program mission, goals, assessment, and the processes for guiding performance have been the following:

1. Changes in the required courses:
   - The statistics requirement changed from course to a course requirement to encouraging students to meet the requirement prior to matriculation, demonstrating competency by testing out of the requirement, or by taking advanced courses. This change came from student feedback provided through surveys and focus groups.
   - Nonprofit content was added to courses and the word nonprofit was added to several course titles to reflect students' desire for increased emphasis on nonprofits and to reflect our mission.
   - An information technology requirement of 3 credits was added with the scheduling of several mini-courses (1-credit courses) for students to select from to meet the requirement. These included Introduction to Information Technology, Virtual Government, Basics of Information Management, GIS and Public Policy, and Data Mining. This addition resulted from the curriculum review. Conversations with faculty, review of curricula at other schools, and discussions with Michael Brintnall and Maureen Brown particularly led to identifying the need to increase students' knowledge for managing information technology.
   - Organizational Theory and Administration changed to Organizations and Management to reflect the addition of organizational behavior and applications to this course. This change came from student feedback through student course evaluations.
2. Changes in areas of specializations:
   - Dropping the areas of international administration and environmental administration because of a dearth of research assistantships and, to some extent, a lack of MPA faculty in these areas.
   - Dropping personnel and labor relations and adding organizational leadership to better build upon current faculty and to center strengths such as in conflict resolution and leadership to better reflect changes in the field of personnel administration.
3. Identifying the need for additional assessment:
   - Tools to evaluate comprehensive learning (as opposed to perception, measured through surveys or course learning, measured through required exams and papers) were needed by the program faculty. A committee was assigned the responsibility of designing a tool to assess learning using the final requirement in the MPA program—the analytical paper—as the activity. The analytical paper assessment asked that, in addition to providing a grade for the academic paper, the committee

provide ratings to support the students' demonstrated skills. The skills included communication; planning, problem solving, and analytical ability; initiative and leadership; and quality of content. The form was pretested last year, and it is being used on a voluntarily by faculty to measure student learning.

The mission and goals of the program played a significant role in these deliberations. For example, the areas of specialization that were eliminated did not have the resources required by the Delaware model—for example, research assistantships—and therefore the MPA faculty agreed that the program should no longer offer them. The focus group and exit surveys provided support for keeping much of the required core of the program but did identify issues that had to be addressed in statistics and a need for courses on managing information technology. This led to changes in requirements in these areas as previously discussed.

Lessons Learned

The following statements are intended to facilitate the process of assessing program performance in NASPAA graduate programs.

- Start the accreditation or assessment process early to allow for more time-consuming activities such as curriculum reviews and strategic planning.
- Make sure surveys are compatible with stated goals so that results provide performance information.
- Collect entry and exit surveys over long periods of time to track trends and allow for program improvements.
- Create and maintain an alumni tracking program in the department or school.
- Create and maintain a faculty tracking system for publications
- Use a variety of methods for assessment—i.e., surveys, focus groups, observations, and discussions.
- Use methods with greater probability of increased response rates to surveys. Options include telephone calls, surveys posted on the Web, mail surveys, and the option to fax survey responses.
- Encourage colleagues to make provisions for measurable outcomes.
- Use direct measures for student performance, such as research assistant ratings, course papers/exams, a final analytical paper requirement, presentations in the field, case studies, and internship supervisor evaluations.
- Use indirect measures for student performance, such as student, alumni, and employer surveys, a database containing statistics on admitted students, information from graduates, and information from internship supervisors and employers.

Findings and Conclusions

This study finds themes echoing existing literature and it supports practices advocated earlier. For example, it concurs with Jennings' 1989 findings of assessments as a learning tool for educational improvements. Cleary in 1990 did not find much difference between accredited and nonaccredited programs. Although this study did not look at nonaccredited programs, it experienced consistency in core curriculum much as described by Breaux, Clynch, and Morris in 2003. Methods used for program assessment were similar to those used by Roberts (2001), Williams (2002), and Durant (2002), with the exception that the University of Delaware's MPA uses a final analytical paper rather than a capstone course. How this study differs is that it tries to demonstrate to the reader in a comprehensive manner the steps that one program took to meet the NASPAA reaccreditation requirements and to improve program performance by focusing on student learning.

More specifically, the research question is how to assess graduate program performance by demonstrating mission-driven results. One way in which the University of Delaware MPA program did this was through the creation of an outcome assessment chart that was meant to align mission and goals to assessment tools and outcomes. While it was shown to be effective in terms of determining mission and goal accomplishments, recommendations are made through the lessons we learned to encourage our colleagues to make provisions for measurable outcomes.

Student learning focuses on what students will learn. Learner-centered assessment thrives on the concept of student learning and has been developed to assess accordingly. The concept of student learning asks not, "What will I teach?" but rather, "What will my students learn?" Assessment that parallels this concept is meant to promote and diagnose learning and provide tools for program improvement. Student learning is assessed through coursework, research assistantships, internships, and the analytical paper (capstone assignment). In addition, the faculty meets once a year to discuss student progress.

In closing, encouragement is provided for examining MPA programs prior to reaccreditation. Much work can be done ahead of time. By allowing more time, the self-study may be used as an assessment tool for program improvements in addition to a tool for attaining reaccreditation.

Notes

1 The terms objective and goal are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature. Some readers may prefer to use goals supported by measurable objectives.

2. The UD faculty chose the goals as the point of departure for the measures. Others may prefer to develop objectives and adhere to the SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Results-oriented, and Time-related) format, stating outcomes and additional indicators in measurable terms. The assessment types in this chart are methods or instruments used to determine performance.

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Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Jeff Raffel, Ed Jennings, and blind reviewers for their feedback on this paper.

Thanks also to Gabriele Bauer for providing materials from the Center for Teaching Effectiveness.

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Teaching MPA Internships Built on Reflection in Practice

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Abstract

Reflection in practice is a technique long recognized as effective in education. This article discusses the concept of reflection in practice, describes how a master of public administration internship class was designed based on integrating the technique, and presents the specific exercises used to facilitate students' using and learning from the technique. The technique appears to be effective during the internship course. Informal response suggests that students are utilizing this technique more extensively than initially anticipated.

Reflection in practice is a useful method of enhancing the internship experience for pre-service and in-service students. Obviously, internships are designed to offer students in professional degree programs experience prior to entering their careers. However, the classroom component that accompanies internships can have value for in-service students as well. The course can require a systematic and structured consideration of a career position and daily professional practice that does not usually take place on a regular basis once individuals become involved in their careers. Reflection in practice is recognized as a useful problem-solving tool, which it is. However, its usefulness can go far beyond that and assist in enhancing performance when used appropriately. The internship experience offers the perfect learning environment in which current and future public administration professionals can learn a performance enhancement technique that can serve them well throughout their careers.

The Concept and Application of Reflection in Practice

Schön initially introduced the concept of reflection in practice in his book *Technology and Change* (1967). This initial presentation was subsequently refined to explain that professional practice of all types fundamentally deals with issues of design or of imposing design on ambiguous situations by considering new actions and undertaking problem-solving by reflecting upon one's professional actions. This requires a background in theory, which students in public administration learn in their coursework; the ability to analyze a situation, which is generally acquired through the use of case studies; and the understanding of how to perform and act upon reflection. Education theorists argue that learning cannot take place without reflection and that experience provides the basis for learning (Giles and Eyler, 1994; Dunlap, 1998; Hatcher and Bringle, 1997). Students are afforded this opportunity for reflection in standard courses in which discussion requires reflection over readings and papers require reflection over theory and research. Reflection in internship or service activities, where students are actively working in the community in a professional capacity, can also be the catalyst where true and effective learning occurs.

At the most direct level, this application of design is understood as applying theory to practice. Master of public administration students learn public administration theories and, given the ongoing debate or discussion of the theory-practice dichotomy and attention to the various approaches to bridging that gap, generally understand the importance of application of theory. Reflection in practice at the most fundamental stage facilitates the analysis and understanding of a situation and, more importantly, of one's own actions and reactions in the workplace. It encourages and provides a mechanism for adjusting theories and trying different approaches. Further investigation of the theory of reflection in practice, however, demonstrates that reflection in practice goes beyond the direct application of known theories and the testing of theories in practice.

Argyris and Schön (1974) argue that it is through reflection that practitioners revise current theories-in-action—fundamental truths upon which their planned actions are based—and create "knowledge-in-action," which incorporates their learning from experience. Cross (1999) points out that in these discussions the word theories is not being used in its customary definition of an abstract presentation of a generalized idea. Instead, these are personal action theories that influence daily action and behavior, and they exist in two forms, espoused theories and theories in action.

Cross explains: "Espoused theories have two characteristics: First, they exist at the conscious level...secondly, they can change in response to new information with relative ease. But while we believe that espoused theories guide our behavior, intentions, and beliefs, often our behavior is inconsistent with what we say" (20). In contrast, theories in action tend to be more deeply ingrained in one's consciousness, yet are not easy to articulate and are not easily changed. Theories in action refers to understandings upon which daily activities are based, they are the "why's, wherefore's, and how-to guides upon which we base our behavior" (Cross 1999, 20-21).

Thus, students and professionals need to discover their theories in action in order to identify what works, what doesn't, and how to change. This is the focus of reflection in practice. It is possible that these theories in action relate to existing organization or management theories. It is also possible that they do not. That is a consideration for the next steps in the process. What is initially important is an understanding of what personal action theories one uses and, if possible, to understand what theories in action one's colleagues, supervisors, and subordinates are using. While it is not generally possible to change another's theories in action, it is possible to adjust one's own on the basis of reflection in practice.

As Osterman and Kottkamp state, "reflective practice is viewed as a means by which practitioners can develop a greater level of self-awareness about the nature and impact of their performance, an awareness that creates opportunities for professional growth and development" (1993, 19). Kruse (1997) identifies reflective practice as the catalyst that allows teachers to incorporate experiences into new teaching practices. Likewise, Schön states, "Reflection gives rise to on-the spot experiment. We think up and try out new actions intended to explore the newly observed phenomena, test our tentative understandings of them or affirm the moves we have invented to change things for the better" (1987, 28). Schön also characterizes reflection as a "dialogue of thinking and doing through which (professionals) become more skillful" (1987, 31).

The holistic model of the reflective practitioner is concerned not only with outcome practice, but also with the cognitive process that develops the outcomes and that includes experience as well as professional competence and knowledge base. Yelloly and Henkel (1995) and Schön (1987) describe the reflective practice model as a cycle in which practice is carried out, reflection occurs, and reflection and practice occur simultaneously when the thoughts/reflection are put into action in the real world. The reflection occurs on the basis of experience and leads to more abstract conceptualizations that result in new decisions and changes in actions. Without reflection, professional development is less likely to occur.

Use of Reflection in MPA Education

Although the application of reflection in practice was originally developed in education research, Gould and Taylor (1996) discuss the importance of reflective approaches to problem solving in management development. A shortcoming of this method is that management often simply reflects on the obvious. Research emphasizing the dialogue process that engages the practitioner in second-order thought can mitigate this weakness (Dimmock, 1996, in Gould and Taylor, 1996). In a more generalized manner, Osterman (1991) identifies the model as a system in which the practitioners act "as researchers who gather and analyze information within the context of their own practice as a means of constructing knowledge and improving practice" (216).

This is similar to the case study on service learning reported by Martha Dede (2002) that was designed to show how the American public personnel system operates and to explore how service-learning can be adapted for MPA programs. The article demonstrates that client-based projects must be combined with reflective exercises to best link theory and practice. Denhardt's discussions of using reflection to link theory and practice is more similar to those of Argyris and Schön (1974) and Kruse (1997) in that he describes the process of learning by using reflection on experience to generalize and develop new theories (1983). Denhardt calls these theories of action (1983) and they mirror the concept of reflection in practice, with emphasis on the concept of personal theory-building. King (1998) perceived the gap in theory and practice in MPA programs as required courses that impart knowledge and skills and internship classes that send students out to practice what they have learned. This develops a paradox between theory and practice (King, 1998) that Herzog points out is a "contradiction that appears ripe for building practical theory" (Herzog, 2004). Cunningham and Weschler (2002) are in agreement with the need to encourage or require MPA students to expand and become cognizant of their personal theories in use through reflection.

Because the faculty recognized the importance of this call for integrating theory and practice and the potential of reflection in practice to build personal theories in action, the MPA internship program in a large Midwestern urban university was redesigned. Students are now taught, via course lectures, exercises, and in-depth, one-on-one interviews with the instructor, how to use reflection in practice to better understand and respond to workplace situations. Students begin to reflect upon their actions and reactions as well as to analyze situations in which they find themselves, whether they are unique or recurring. More importantly, the program puts attention on recognizing the process of this analysis and reflection, enabling students to carry it forward into other areas of their lives and careers. The following discusses the various components of the reflection in practice-based internship course.

The Development of the Course

The reflection-based internship course was instituted in an program in which approximately 65 percent of the students are in-service and 35 percent are full-time, pre-service students. Dede (2002) points out that a year-long service learning course incorporating reflection is too long, especially for in-service students. Therefore, the ten-week summer internship course seemed an appropriate course in which to help students develop the ability to use reflection in practice. The students began meeting with the course instructor in the spring in order to identify types of positions and organizations in which they were interested in working. The students were interviewed by at least three different organizations, and each organization interviewed at least three students prior to finalizing internship assignments.

This reflection-based internship class was initially designed for a group of in-service and pre-service students. After the first year, however, curriculum requirements were changed so that only pre-service students had to take the course. A few in-service students, generally those looking at changing careers, would still enroll even though it was no longer required. After four continuous years of teaching the course in this structure, the instructor had to relinquish the direction of the internship program because of the demands of other activities. The enrollment in the course ranged from 40 in the first year, with 17 internship placements, to 18 in the fourth year.

The administrative journal introduced by Denhardt (1993) is a vehicle for individuals to integrate theory and practice based on individual experiences and was initially considered as an ongoing assignment for the internship course. However, students who had experience with journaling in other courses were resistant to the process. Prior experience in the internship course as well as comments from students during discussion in meetings before the course began (during which time placements were discussed) led to the realization that the journal experiences in the past did not address the four sections Denhardt (1993) proposed. The journal should lead the student/writer to focus on the outer and inner experiences followed by reflection and generalization, which should then lead to connections and insights as well as the new integration of theory and practice. Instead, the journals tended to be narratives of "what I did today" with little reflection, theory application, or future use. Wemiller (2002) points out that traditional journal-writing exercises frequently bore students and minimize the effectiveness of reflection. The MPA students were already bored with journaling and were unsure of reflection. The discussions and new discoveries about journaling led to two decisions in the course revision: first, there was an obvious need to teach the students how to use reflection in action, and, second, because of negative experiences of the students involved in the first class, journals would not be used.

Presentation of Reflection in Action

Appropriate to its name, reflection in action is best taught through experiential learning. Therefore, most of the internship class developed is a series of directed learning activities introduced by brief lectures. The theory and application as well as usefulness of reflection in action are briefly presented, along with information on how research has shown that its use enhances career development. The remainder of the course is built around four primary learning activities that require the student to use some aspect of reflection in action. These are 1) reflection used in job analysis, 2) reflection on and action in response to the best and worst experiences in the internship, 3) career path development, and 4) personal interview and alternative scenario analysis requiring reflection to identify and guide selected practice. Each of these techniques is described in greater detail.

Presentation of the Concept of Reflection in Action. The first class lecture presents the basic principles of reflection in action and offers examples of how this works on an ongoing and immediate basis. All examples and illustrations are based on activities that relate to career planning and pursuit or job searching. The importance of thinking about questions and attitudes and relating what they see and hear to their coursework as well as to experiences is presented as the basic action needed on an ongoing basis. Students are asked to reflect and think about the why behind questions asked during a job interview. When possible, the examples are presented in interaction with the students. One example given is the instructor taking the role of interviewer and asking, "Are you familiar with word processing? Do you always use Microsoft Word?" If the student says "yes," the instructor replies, "Oh no, everyone who comes in here uses that and we use WordPerfect." If the student says "No, I usually use WordPerfect," the instructor replies, "We did, too, but now we are changing over and really need new people who already know the system." The illustration then explains that if you think about why the question is being asked—determine whether you have necessary word processing skills that will be used on the job—you can give an honest answer: "I am familiar with word processing and have used other programs such as WordPerfect as well as Microsoft Word, which is currently the standard at The University of Akron." Reflection on the reason for the question results in an answer that better presents a candidate's abilities while giving an honest answer to the immediate question as well as the reason behind the question.

A second example relating to reflection in action later in a career uses the question of whether to apply for or accept a new job. Reflecting on what you like and dislike about a current job and comparing that with the components of the new job provide an added dimension to the decision. This is a more comprehensive assessment of the situation rather than simply asking if the new job advances your career. This illustration introduces the concept of alternative career paths and points out that enjoying what you do and understanding what aspect of a job is enjoyable for you influences performance and success as well as motivation.

The pattern for the lecture is to introduce a relevant point about reflection in practice and then to give two to five examples of its use. This pattern of lecture point, example, example, example, lecture, example, example, etc., is partially an attempt to duplicate and adapt the theory in practice process that leads to new personal theory in action. As students learn the principles, they are also hearing about the use of the principle in practice. At the end of a series of examples, the point is then made that a person in a job hunting or career development phase of life would begin to develop his/her own theories in action and begin to modify his/her behavior accordingly in order to attain realized goals.

Students are given short handouts on the principles of reflection in practice along with references for further reading. The emphasis on the new way of thinking that Denhardt proposed (1992) and the new understandings that influence daily activities that Cross (1999) discussed are central to this lecture. The instructor is trying to convey the need for learning a new way of processing and applying information from theory and experience that should be incorporated into lifelong decision-making and action. This initial lecture takes place before the students begin their internship, but once they have their placement. The students are encouraged to reflect on what happens on a daily basis and to look for generalizations in activities rather than to simply focus on one or two things.

Reflection Used in Job Analysis. Reflection in action is presented as part of the job analysis process in which students are asked to deconstruct their jobs, both current and past, to identify the various major and minor components. The initial lecture that outlines how to analyze a job position, with frequent examples, is presented in a large group setting. Students are then asked to identify what aspects of each job they like most and dislike most, with the instructor guiding them in identifying and defining the root aspect of what appealed to them. This interactive discussion generally leads to an awareness of specific aspects of either procedure or, often, personal interaction that results in favorable or unfavorable reaction.

Students are then assigned the task of deconstructing past work experiences in a manner that enables them to identify trends in what they like and dislike about different positions held. The focus on past positions, even if they are not in the field, help the student understand how to deconstruct a job or profession in order to understand its different components.

Reflection on and Action in Response to the Best and Worst Experiences in the Internship. The second learning exercise, approximately one-third of the way through the course, begins when students are asked to write down and then share their thoughts about the best and worst aspects of their internship. These examples are broken down into specifics in order to identify whether it is the task, the personal interaction, the skill application, a characteristic of the work environment, etc. The student is then asked to identify and write down what actions might enhance the experience, both in terms of supporting and building upon the positive and in mitigating the negative aspects. At this point, students are broken into groups of three in which they share the actions they have identified so that others can not only comment on them but also learn from them. Students are then asked to practice these identified actions during the following two weeks.

This is the first application of reflection in action. During the assignment, it is not identified as a theory or a process or technique. Instead, students are simply guided through the process in order to practice the application. It must be noted that sometimes the dislikes are the product of being in the wrong type of job for an individual. Students often discover that the aspect of a job that attracted them is, in fact, only a minor part of what is expected and that the majority of the position consists of things they do not like doing. In these instances, the student is guided not only in making the best of the situation, but also in identifying alternative career paths.

During this exercise, students are also asked to consider the structure and function of the organization they are working in and to analyze it in the context of organizational theory. In the past, the instructor found that this assignment resulted in a fairly superficial analysis of the work environment, sometimes nothing more than an organization chart with accompanying narrative description: no analysis. As a result, the emphasis is placed more on the personal analysis of the position the student is holding and its interrelationships rather than formal and more abstract organization analysis. During small group discussion, when the instructor passes from group to group, she makes a point of relating the conversation to organization theory but continues to place the focus on learning and applying the process of reflection in action.

With this exercise, students begin the process of analyzing the situations they encounter in the work environment. After a couple of weeks, students are asked to share their experiences in small groups again. As they address the impact of their new actions, they also are asked to share conclusions they have about their work environment. These conclusions are examined as personal theories, and students address whether their actions have and will continue to adapt according to their new view of the situation. Then, in the large group, they are asked to volunteer experiences they had with applying the suggested behaviors to improve their situation. Not all of the reports are positive. However, students are again led, through a series of questions, to identify what happened and why. The focus is on analyzing the situation, not judging the conduct or accuracy of the behavior applied. Generally, a few students ask to go through the process again to try something new. They then share the experience with the class at the next session.

This is the first real experience students have with reflection in action and, more importantly, with developing theories in action or personal theories. It is only at the conclusion of this exercise, often during the final full class of the semester, that the instructor points out how the assignment is grounded in theory—the very theory the students are using. The emphasis is on the fact that they have successfully used reflection in action and that it does work.

This experience is, in fact, an example of action research that focuses on the process as well as the outcome. Greenwood, Whyte, and Harkavy (1993) present the concept that participatory action research enhances the student development. Reflection in practice is a type of informal research that requires analysis, application of theory, and action taken on the basis of informed synthesis. Students are learning the process rather than simply finishing an assignment.

Career Path Development. In order to better prepare them for the third learning activity, students are assigned readings on reflection in practice but are not tested on the material. The theory of reflection in practice is then presented in more detail; with special emphasis on the impact that self-awareness can have on career enhancement. Recognizing what you are doing, how it impacts job performance and workplace operation, and adapting behavior in order to maximize both not only makes doing a job better but often leads to career-building opportunities. As opportunities are offered, students are also told to apply reflection in practice to ensure that the opportunity is one that will take them toward their career goal rather than on a detour away from it. The importance of thinking things through and seriously deconstructing careers as well as job positions is emphasized as a key component of career development.

In order to cement this information, students are required to construct a career map with three different alternative goals and a minimum of five alternative career paths to reach those goals in 10 to 15 years. They first identify the three alternative goal positions and analyze what is required in them. This analysis incorporates researching job descriptions and competencies and information interviews of individuals in these positions. (This second activity is generally an optional assignment. However, it has proven to be extremely helpful for students who are doing serious career planning.) This job analysis assists them in identifying the degree to which their job likes and dislikes correspond to their career goals. Students are then required to reflect on the degree of compatibility to ascertain whether they really believe their behaviors will be conducive to career enhancement and development if they aspire to the position identified. Students often narrow their preferred career path or redirect their plans on the basis of reflection on career responsibilities. Thus, they are offered yet another example of how reflection in practice can be applied to career development. Looking critically at career options and reflecting on their preferred practice and activities leads to changes in practice, either in adapting behavior toward that which is appropriate for their goals or in changing their goals.

In creating the alternative career maps, students reflect on alternative jobs and career paths that can provide career enhancement opportunities as well as ones that might make the path more difficult. On the basis of the analysis of the goal position, the students identify jobs that amplify the primary characteristics required so that they can better select intermediary positions that enable them to refine and perfect performance behaviors and skills required in their goal position. In doing this exercise, students also have to identify what aspects of their current position will lead to the development of the required capabilities identified in the analysis of their career goal position. This provides an example of the ongoing reflection in practice that they need to use as they build their careers. Although they attempt the same analysis in their career mapping, much of this is hypothetical and is based on job descriptions and career descriptions. The need for ongoing analysis and reflection is stressed in order to continue positive career development.

Personal Interview and Alternative Scenario Analysis. The fourth and final internship class requirement is a one-on-one session with the instructor in which the students analyzes career paths as well as the job market. In addition, the student is asked to discuss why she wants the career identified and what she believes she has to offer as her strongest of the characteristics required for that position. The student must provide examples of skills and behavior preference that support her contention. During the discussion, the instructor offers two or three scenarios for the student to reflect upon and to decide how she would respond. The emphasis is on the process of working situations out, of modifying or adapting behavior in order to improve the work being performed and the workplace atmosphere. These examples of reflection in practice are presented in order to reinforce the usefulness as well as the application of the theory to practice throughout one's career.

Student Feedback

The true test of success will be demonstrated in enhanced self-awareness and the associated enhanced career development of students who participate in the reflection in practice enhanced internship experience.

The traditional course evaluation format does not fit with the structure and expectations of the course. However, the instructor has received informal feedback; several students have returned to visit and to discuss what is happening and how they have applied the techniques, especially the reflection in practice, in their careers. In fact, a number of in-service students who took the course have made career adjustments based on the job analyses and reflection in practice. A greater proportion of these in-service students from the first year have made a point of contacting the instructor to talk about changes they have made as result of the course. The higher unsolicited response is likely due to the more immediate and active use of the techniques on an ongoing basis.

One student emailed the news that he had taken a new job since the exercises in the class "made me realize that what I was doing in my job wasn't what I entered the public service to do." Another student designed a career path, completed the recommended gap analysis, and came back four years later to show how he had followed. One young lady accepted a job at the organization where she had interned, and where she had sworn she would never work. After lamenting that it was the only place she could get a job, she met the instructor off campus one day four months later and talked about how it was a completely different organization. During the conversation she admitted that the reason it was so different was that she had changed her attitude and behavior once her work became part of her career. She realized in retrospect that she had treated the internship like a class assignment rather than a career experience, and that realization led her to reflect on her activities and interaction with people in the agency and to make changes. The most recent feedback came in an email from a student who completed the course four years ago. He wrote that he had made a lateral move instead of taking a promotion because, after doing a job analysis of his past work experience and of the two options, he realized that he would be happier moving to the new position rather than accepting a promotion to do more of the aspects of the job that he disliked. The email was prompted by the fact that he had just been informed that he was up for promotion in his new career path—meaning he would be doing even more of what he enjoyed. "I hadn't thought about it the way you made us in class," he wrote. "I would be working in a job I don't like instead of in one I do." While the student did not use the term reflection in practice, he was applying the theory.

Given that the purpose of basing the class component of the internship on reflection in practice is to instill this theory in action in students, for them to use on an ongoing basis, the informal feedback demonstrates that students who have completed the course tend to use it. Grzelkowski (1986) and Harkavy, Puckett, and Romer (2000) discuss the special challenges of bridging research with in-field experiences such as internships or service learning. Public sector internships are service learning experiences, and action research is not only applicable but also integral to an internship course built on reflection in practice.

At the end of the semester, students are asked what they think of the reflection in practice and how they think they will use it in the future. The most frequent response is that it was an eye-opening experience because they had not considered work experience in the same way. Nor had they approached analyzing a situation systematically in order to identify how their actions could make a difference. Students who had more than five years of professional experience tended to solidify career plans, often changing direction. Younger, inexperienced students realize the value of reflection in practice but are not as understanding of the actual impact it can have. However, several of them plan to use it as a career tool.

Reflection in practice provides a useful, appropriate, and applicable foundation for teaching internships in public administration. It provides general theoretical guidance for how to approach work situations, and it can be applied in a technique format that allows students the structure they need as they begin to apply new knowledge. The internship course is more focused on career development and has received higher student evaluations. Students are generally enthusiastic about the course and believe that the assignments are valuable and personally relevant. Reflection in practice provides the foundation to tie the elements of the internship course together.

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Cheating, Public Administration Education, and Online Courses: An Essay and Call to Arms

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ABSTRACT
In various surveys, a minimum of 15 percent to more than 70 percent of students admit cheating. Cheating is especially problematic for public affairs programs because we seek to train competent, ethical public administrators and policy analysts. Evidence also indicates that cheating generates more cheating. We cannot ignore its prevalence. Cheating is even easier during entirely online courses. Therefore, public affairs faculty and programs must take cheating seriously, try to prevent it, and generally ban courses that are taught completely online.

Colleges and universities increasingly offer online courses. Many argue that distance-learning technologies put us in competition with all other programs in the nation, and we must participate or be driven out of business (see Scheer, 2001). Vogelsang-Coombs (1999, 307) reports that a former member of the National Science Foundation "predicts that 'within my lifetime refusal by an educator to use well-designed telecommunications-based instruction will be considered malpractice!'"

Yet, at the same time that telecommunications technologies are making it easier for us to interact at a distance, troubling trends have developed. First, there is evidence that cheating has become widespread and that both it and its social acceptance are on the rise (Putnam, 2000). Second, it appears that online technologies make it easier to cheat (BBC, 2003; Knight Ridder, 2005). Third, students in online courses may not be learning other types of skills that we also use the classroom to impart (Leavitt and Richman, 1997), including "core values related to democratic citizenship and public service" (Brower and Klay, 2000, 215). Evidence shows that distance technologies in fact create a psychological distance that makes people believe it is more acceptable to behave badly toward each other through that medium (Harmon, 2004). In a related point, the concern that online courses may destroy the campus as a community—and one of our important remaining social bonds—has also been raised in the public affairs literature (Freenberg, 2002; Slouka and Madsen, as paraphrased in Louv, 2002).

The conjunction of these trends has serious implications for how public affairs programs and teachers should be teaching our students, especially given other issues raised in the public affairs teaching literature. In his article on the big questions in public administration education, Denhardt (2001, 528) argues that one of the big questions of public affairs is "What are the appropriate delivery mechanisms for MPA courses and curricula?" He says that, currently, such discussion focuses on technology, but really this question has been of concern in public affairs education for some time: more generally, the question is how best to conduct classes in order to get desired learning outcomes. One desired learning outcome is the development of what Denhardt calls "intrapersonal skills"—"capabilities that provide psychological and moral grounding for our actions" (530). Denhardt suspects that distance learning is not well suited to teaching intrapersonal skills. Similarly, Brower and Klay (2000, 217) argue that "Web-based technologies" can help teach "facts and methods, including…statistical analysis and writing skills," but not what they call "socio-emotional" skills.[1] Broadly, these authors are concerned with professional socialization.

Taken altogether, these trends and concerns indicate that public administration and public policy programs should approach online education with caution. Indeed, I argue in this essay that pure online courses should only rarely be taught in public affairs programs; purely online education simply cannot provide the socialization elements that are necessary for public affairs students. Further, I argue more broadly that thinking about the issues with cheating, online education, and new technologies forces us to face the fact that public affairs programs and faculty must take evidence of widespread cheating seriously as we seek to create ethical, competent professionals.

Cheating is Widespread

I believe it is difficult for most professors to begin to understand the extent of cheating today. For one thing, many of us do not want to believe that it happens (Lang, 2002; PBS, 2003). As reported by Tsao (2003), one Cornell professor says, "We all hate this issue. We want to trust our students and ourselves." Indeed, one of the anonymous reviewers of this paper wrote, "The discussion of the pervasiveness of cheating seems overblown. I remain unconvinced that widespread cheating is present in MPA programs—in fact, I believe that cheating is the exception to the rule." I also do not want to believe that students are cheating, and I especially do not want to believe that MPA students, whom I think of as disproportionately dedicated to the common good, would cheat. However, in my online statistics course, primarily composed of pre-MPA and pre-master of science in nursing (MSN) students (whom I also think of as disproportionately dedicated to social good), 22 percent of those who took it—and 44 percent of those who responded—admitted cheating on the second exam.[2] This was shocking to me, and resulted in my reviewing information about cheating, some of which is overviewed here.

Significant anecdotal evidence indicates that student cheating is pervasive. For one thing, students themselves report believing that cheating is widespread (Adenekan, 2003; Zelizer, 2002; Hermann, 2003), with one survey reporting that nearly a quarter of students believe that "everyone at their high school cheats" (*San Diego Union-Tribune*, 2001) and another reporting that "90 percent of students believe that cheaters are either never caught or have not been appropriately disciplined" (Tsao, 2003; *U.S. News and World Report*, 1999).

Many believe that the Internet and other technological resources make it easier to cheat (Kennedy et al., 2000; BBC, 2003; Eason, 1999; *San Diego Union-Tribune,* 2001; Hermann, 2003; Zelizer, 2002; *U.S. News and World Report,* 1999), with specific anecdotal evidence indicating that students may use cell phone features including instant messaging and camera features to cheat (Tribbensee, 2003; Sauer and Garin, 2002; Knight Ridder, 2005).

In addition, at various universities, both in the United States and abroad, large numbers of students have been caught cheating, often using online technology. For example, at a Scottish university, nearly 50 students were accused of cheating even under a new program in which they were warned that their work would be checked electronically and they signed a pledge to turn in "only their own work;" a month before, at another Scottish university, 117 students were investigated for using email to cheat (BBC, 1999). At a Canadian university, 31 students in their fourth year of engineering were investigated because it was believed that they used the Internet to cheat on an ethics essay (BBC, 2002). Despite the University of Virginia's "cherished, 160-year-old honor code" (Boorstein, 2002), 48 students had to be dismissed from the university for plagiarism, and three had their degrees revoked. The U.S. Naval Academy in Annapolis is proud of its honor code, too, but it is believed that "more than 400 of the 663 midshipmen who took [a particular important test] had seen a copy of it" (CBS, 2002). In May 2004, the U.S. Air Force Academy, which has its own strict honor code, found that 70 students had cheated on an online test (Weller, 2004); at least six resigned. The latter three cases are particularly troubling in light of some evidence that honor codes do reduce cheating (UTA, n.d.; Kennedy et al., 2002).

More convincing than anecdote or scandal is the significant survey research indicating that students cheat at high rates. Rumbough (1999) reports on a survey of 611 students at a single university but administered in a variety of courses intended to be representative of the university overall. About 15 percent reported that they used the Internet to cheat (Eason, 1999; Rumbough, 1999).

Rumbough reported that students "'could come up with a paper in five minutes'" (Eason, 1999, n.p.). Further, his research finds that "deception is common when subjects use email and chat rooms" (Rumbough, 1999, 29), with less than half telling the truth "very often" in these media (Eason, 2004; Rumbough, 1999).

Scanlon and Neumann surveyed about 800 students in several universities and found that "25 percent of the sample sometimes or very frequently copied online text without citation" (Tsao, 2003, n.p.). Grimes (2003) performed a comparative analysis of 374 U.S. students and 723 students from formerly Soviet countries. In both groups, a large majority said they had personally cheated (nearly 70 percent of U.S. students), with numbers being even greater for those from the formerly Soviet countries.

The Josephson Institute has performed surveys on the ethics of American youth spanning 10 years. They note a significant increase in cheating behaviors over that time, finding that, by 2002, 74 percent of the 12,000 high school students surveyed admitted cheating on an exam "at least once in the past year" (Josephson Institute, 2002). Forty-five percent said they had cheated on a test two or more times, and 52 percent admitted that they had plagiarized "at least a few sentences" from a Web site (PBS, 2003, 8). A *U.S. News and World Report* poll (1999) of 1,000 adults, including 200 students, found that only 18 percent of students would turn in another student whom they see cheating.

Data on high school students may not be completely predictive for college students. Not all high school students go to college, though almost all college students have been high school students. *U.S. News* (1999) also reports on other surveys, including one by *Who's Who Among American High School Students*, which finds that "80 percent of high-achieving high schoolers admitted to having cheated at least once; half said they did not believe cheating was necessarily wrong—and 95 percent of the cheaters said they had never been caught." These students are particularly likely to go on to college and, if they believe that cheating is not necessarily wrong, they are likely to continue their habits. Further, "Rutgers University reports in its 10-year national study that 70 percent of undergraduate students have cheated at least once on an exam, 87 percent have cheated on written work, 52 percent have copied work from others, and 54 percent have plagiarized" (Happel and Jennings, 2003, V3). These results are highly similar to those for the high school students reported by the Josephson Institute (above). Scanlon and Neumann (2002) surveyed 698 undergraduates at nine colleges and universities and found that "[a] substantial minority of students reported they use the Internet to copy and paste text into their papers without citation" (374). Scanlon and Neumann also found that about 25 percent of the students agreed with various arguments that plagiarism is acceptable (375). They also report on a 1992 study by McCabe of more than 6,000 undergraduates at 31 campuses with 67.4 percent admitting to "cheating at least once on a test or major assignment" (375).

All of the surveys that I have been able to find have focused on high school or undergraduate students, and none specifically on public affairs students or professionals. So we do not know the rate at which graduate students or public affairs students cheat. But some research indicates that medical students, who also should be disproportionately other-regarding, cheat (*U.S. News and World Report*, 1999). Moreover, it seems risky—and perhaps arrogant—to assume that our students are so significantly better than all others that their rate of cheating is low enough to be unimportant, especially when there is indirect evidence that gives us some reason to believe students like ours cheat.

The Josephson Institute (2002) reports that students at religious schools and those in varsity sports cheat more than average students, though these are students some expect would cheat less. Even if these students merely admit their cheating more, this still indicates high rates of cheating among them. We have evidence (above and Adenekan, 2003) that students cheat across cultures, and we have many students from other cultures in our public affairs programs. Additionally, 45 percent of students in one survey believed that cheating is necessary to get ahead (Josephson Institute, 2002); my MPA students often tell me that one reason they seek the degree is to get ahead.

We also have anecdotal evidence on cheating by types of professionals who are likely to have advanced degrees and by those in public affairs professions. For example, a college president plagiarized a speech that he gave to incoming freshmen, and the "winner of [the 2001] Bancroft prize for history is credibly accused of academic fraud" (Cole, 2003, 1). A Princeton dean and director of admissions used students' private information, including Social Security numbers, to access other private student information on a Yale Web site (Forelle, 2002; Arenson, 2002). All of these people probably have advanced degrees; the former and the latter are managers of nonprofit organizations.

Rates of self-plagiarism have become so high among computer science professionals—including faculty—that a literature on this topic is developing (Collberg and Kobourov, 2005, 90). Many members of "big accounting firms, investment banks and law firms…colluded" in the Enron case (Associated Press, 2003, D1), and a Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) survey indicates that 10 percent of mutual-fund workers knew of illegal trades and did not report them (Beck, 2003, D3). Many of these professionals will have graduate degrees. The SEC itself received tips, but did not act (Beck, 2003); in addition to often having advanced degrees, SEC members are public administrators. Officials of the city of San Diego were forced to admit that they "had misstated [San Diego's] financial condition for the last several years" (Broder, 2004, 1); members of city government are particularly likely to be graduates of public affairs programs.

Further indirect evidence that our students are likely to cheat is presented by Robert Putnam in *Bowling Alone* (2000), which provides generalized evidence that trustworthiness is declining in our society. Putnam makes a strong argument that "survey reports about honesty and trust should be interpreted *prima facie* as accurate accounts of the respondents' social experiences" (2000, 138). As one piece of this evidence, he reports on an experiment conducted in several different countries, which indicates that national scores on a standard social trust question highly correlate with national trustworthiness (2000, 467, fn. 21). He then demonstrates that the percentage of people who believe that "most people can be trusted" rather than believing "you can't be too careful in dealing with people" has been declining steadily since the 1960s, from a high of more than 55 percent believing that most people can be trusted in the late '60s to a low of about 32 percent in the late '90s. The rate of decline is even higher for high school students; by the late '90s only about 25 percent of high schoolers believed that most people can be trusted (140). When Putnam breaks the data apart generationally, he finds that each generation's basic level of trust in others does not change much over time, but that each generation successively trusts less, indicating that each generation is less trustworthy (141). This further suggests that the data on rates of high schoolers cheating are directly relevant to college students of the same generation. Also, Putnam's evidence indicates that one reason faculty may have such difficulty in believing that students cheat at such a high rate is that we are often from different generations than our students.

As we consider whether public affairs students would cheat, consider Putnam's (2000) evidence that how trustworthy people think groups are is highly correlated with how trustworthy they are in fact, and note that 72 percent of the general public in one poll believed that government employees cheat, while only 25 percent thought teachers do (*U.S. News and World Report*, 1999). As we struggle with our disbelief that our students would cheat at high rates, perhaps it is also relevant that we are teachers and they are or intend to be government employees.

It saddens me to believe that rates of cheating are high, but I believe the evidence, as overviewed here, is overwhelming.

Cheating Is Easier And More Likely Online

Just thinking about it lets us know that the Internet makes plagiarism much simpler than it used to be. For one thing, people routinely receive spam offering to sell them papers. Further, there are Web sites where you can choose not only the subject of the paper you want to buy but also the quality. Even a poor paper is no guarantee that it is not plagiarized, for one can choose to pay less and buy a "C" paper (Lang, 2002). As the executive director of a United Kingdom colleges' and universities' Joint Information Systems Committee says, "we have recognized that the internet makes it technically easier for students to find resources and copy them. It is so simple to lift text by cutting and pasting. We are also concerned about the emergence of essay banks on the internet" (BBC, 2003, n.p.).

If online technologies make cheating easier, we should see more cheating online. In economic terms, if the marginal cost of any activity is reduced, then the supply curve shifts to the right and the quantity demanded will go up even if social demand does not change. So, even if the honesty of people remains the same over generations, we should see more cheating as it becomes easier. On top of this, much of the evidence reviewed above indicates that honesty is declining over generations. With the cost of cheating declining, if the demand for cheating also increases, we should see dramatic increases in the rates of cheating.

A troubling problem facing online courses in particular is that online education, more than in-person education, relies to a great extent on the honor of the students. The fact is that no technology currently available can prevent students from cheating in an online class. When we teach in person, we can at least make sure that the person who takes an in-class test is the person who receives the grade for the course. There is absolutely no way to do that with an online class. Even biometric solutions—at least those currently available or that we can expect to be available in the near future, such as thumbprints or eye prints—cannot prevent a student from hiring someone else to take the class while she or he sits there to supply the needed biometric input.

It is interesting to note that, in one study (Kennedy et al., 2002), over all faculty surveyed, 63 percent felt that cheating is easier in electronic classes. The majority of all students also expected that it was easier to cheat in an electronic class, with 51 percent of those who had taken an electronic class thinking it is easier to cheat in an electronic class; whether or not students had cheated in high school did not affect this. Grad students were more likely than senior students to think it is easier to cheat in an online class. Faculty expected that one major problem with electronic classes is that enrolled students would have someone else complete assignments and tests. Kennedy et al. (2002) infer that their results "suggest that as the number of distance learning classes increases so will academic dishonesty."

We Must Respond, Particularly In Public Affairs Programs

Suppose that the above evidence convinces you that cheating is rampant in the society, probably rising from one group of incoming students to the next, and that online courses make it simpler to cheat. Should this change faculty behavior? It might be tempting to think that learning is for the benefit of the student and that if the student chooses to cheat and not learn then that is his or her loss and its own punishment. Furthermore, finding and punishing cheaters is not what we became professors to do. Many of us would much rather teach and/or do our research than take the time to crack down on cheating (PBS, 2003). When we do attempt to punish students for cheating, they often try to persuade us to change our minds. Some of the ways students have tried to persuade me—including crying; threatening (including threatening to sue); having their parents, spouses, or higher-level administrators call; and filing grade grievances—are not only time-consuming, but unpleasant. Their efforts to persuade us to change our minds increase our resistance to following through on cheating cases. In short, not trusting our students increases our transaction costs (Putnam, 2000).

Nonetheless, I argue that, at least for many courses, we must take cheating seriously. One reason is that colleges and universities today serve an important credentialing function. Many courses exist in prerequisite chains, and we harm our colleagues and the class experience of other students if we send students into classes that follow prerequisites with large numbers of them unable to do the work from required courses. Even more importantly, courses and degree programs often provide credentials to the outside world. In programs of public administration, we are providing a professional degree that is used as a credential by employers. Thus, if only for instrumental reasons, we must think very carefully about prerequisite courses, core courses, and other credentialing courses in ways that reduce the likelihood of significant cheating.

Another reason that we need to act is that, if faculty won't, we can't find repeat offenders (PBS, 2003). In his piece for *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Lang (2002) talks about his change in attitude toward cheating. In the beginning of his career when he discovered plagiarism, he allowed students to rewrite the paper and would penalize the final grade by a letter. However, a conference that he attended changed his mind:

> A colleague in the sciences persuaded me to change my approach by making a very simple point: If each of us were to forgive our students their plagiarism offenses, and give them a second chance, this meant that it was theoretically possible—for a student taking a normal course load—to plagiarize, get caught, and get a second chance 40 different times: once in each course she took in her college career (n.p.).

This reasoning has very important consequences, not only for the credentialing function, but for the learning function—not just of courses, but also of entire degree programs, especially when we consider that it is unlikely that we always catch cheating students. Though my concern here is specifically with public affairs programs, this concern goes beyond public affairs to other disciplines. Suppose med students cheat and don't learn how to do their work? One researcher who has begun extending his work on cheating to graduate, including medical, students is quoted as saying "'I'm scared to death.… I hope I never get a brain disease'" (*U.S. News and World Report*, 1999, n.p.). Or, consider what happens if engineering students cheat and don't learn: airplanes fail and nuclear power plants and wastewater treatment facilities crumble.

In public affairs programs, widespread cheating is especially troubling because one of our goals is the development of skilled and ethical public servants working for the public good. Many people mention the high demand from students for online education but, if cheating is widespread, the level of demand is much less relevant. If cheating is widespread, then the analysis of online courses as successful based on earned grades—whether self-reported or not—is even more questionable than other authors have pointed out, leaving us to question even our basic belief that course content can be learned online. Aside from anything else, we don't know who is completing the grading instrument! Perhaps we can develop excellent online courses, but if students are cheating, we can't assume that these courses lead to excellent learning. Actually, this is true in any course, whether online or not. Such concerns become more severe in online courses because of the added monitoring difficulties mentioned above, but reflecting on cheating leads to the consideration of this issue even for proximate students—especially as students may increasingly use cell phones, laptop computers, and other technology in traditional courses.

Tacit acceptance of cheating also calls up the important issue of ethics in public affairs programs. Most of us take governance seriously and teach in such programs because we believe in public service. Going far beyond the typical question of whether public affairs ethics should be taught in single courses or threaded throughout the curriculum (see, e.g., Jurkiewicz and Nichols, 2002), we cannot be true to our calling and knowingly graduate students who routinely cheat. McCabe argues that rampant cheating disheartens noncheaters and makes them feel they must cheat just to compete (paraphrased in Bellamy, 2002).[3] Thus, tacitly allowing cheating creates a tragedy of the commons, where the public good of honesty is crowded out. As Putnam concludes,

> In short, people who trust others are all-around good citizens, and those more engaged in community life are both more trusting and more trustworthy. Conversely, the civically disengaged believe themselves to be surrounded by miscreants and feel less constrained to be honest themselves. The causal arrows among civic involvement, reciprocity, honesty, and social trust are as tangled as well-tossed spaghetti...however, we need to recognize that they form a coherent whole (2000, 137).

This is directly relevant to public affairs programs and the socialization of public affairs professionals.

Putnam (2000, 176) also discusses significant psychological research on computer-mediated versus face-to-face interaction and reports that "[t]he poverty of social cues in computer-mediated communication inhibits interpersonal collaboration and trust," and that participants in computer-based groups "develop a sense of 'depersonalization.'" This is of direct relevance to Denhardt's (2001) point, presented above. Further, there is additional social-psychological research that indicates that humans are more willing to cooperate to provide common goods with others whom they have seen. Such research on cooperation supports the expectations (above) that there will be even more cheating in online courses than in normal courses. Indeed, Putnam (2000, 176) reports that "[c]heating and reneging are more common in computer-mediated communication, where misrepresentation and misunderstanding are easier." Being honest is individually (economically) irrational, but provides a common good for the society. Information such as this regarding depersonalization, alienation, and cooperation are particularly important to public affairs programs, which strive to create social capital, interpersonal collaboration, and willingness to cooperate.

With the earlier evidence that people become less trusting as those around them are less trustworthy, this surely suggests that allowing our students to cheat will not only encourage other students to cheat (as they "feel less constrained to be honest themselves," as Putnam put it), but may also decrease their civic involvement—certainly the last outcome that those of us who teach in public affairs programs would wish. In fact, there is specific evidence that students cheat more if others are cheating (Sauer and Garin, 2002; Scanlon and Neumann, 2002).

Conversely, research indicates that people will cheat less if they believe they will get caught and they believe penalties are severe (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002). Research on corruption using the technique of artificial societies suggests that we can cause a whole society to tip back from corruption to honesty by ensuring that a significant number of cheaters are caught and punished and that other potential cheaters know (Rauch, 2002). But for this to happen, we must take responsibility for detection and punishment.

It is important to note, as did the anonymous reviewers of this paper, that there is a difference between ethical behavior and ethical values. However, that having been noted, it is still important to strive to induce ethical behavior, not only for the instrumental reasons given above—that is, we want people to know how to do the things our programs certify we teach—but also because much of the evidence reviewed above suggests that inducing more ethical behavior will create a virtuous cycle of additional ethical behavior that will cause people to believe that others are more trustworthy, which in turn will induce them to become more ethical.

What Should We Do?

We must try to detect cheating when we can, we should punish severely and publicly, and we must eliminate forms of teaching that increase the likelihood of cheating unless there is an overarching pedagogical reason for keeping them. For example, though we must know that students will cheat on research papers, it is so important that they do them that we probably should not abandon them in favor of using in-class exams only. We can decrease the ability to cheat on such papers, though, by designing assignments so that students do them in little pieces and by requiring students to turn in source materials. In addition, I believe that public affairs programs should not use online teaching except under certain carefully controlled circumstances.

First, though we should clearly understand the risks, there is nothing in this discussion that prevents teaching online courses that are simply for student self-enrichment. If a course is not a prerequisite and will not be used as an employment credential, then the course can be taught online. Here, the argument that the cheating students are cheating only themselves is powerful. "Hiltz (1994) concludes that online courses work best when the course is not required" (Ebdon, 1999, 238).

Second, online classes can be changed so they are not taught entirely online. For example, all exams can be taken in person with positive identification required. Of course, to at least some extent, this lessens the value of online classes as asynchronous education because it makes part of the course synchronous. However, this may be a way to retain the virtues of online education.

Lest I be misunderstood, I am not a Luddite, railing against technology. I do not think it would be desirable, let alone possible, to eliminate technology from our classes.[4] Creative uses of combinations of technologies and teaching/learning modalities, such as those presented in Cohen et al. (1998) and in Goodsell and Armstrong (2001), have the potential to open great opportunities to public affairs. Online courses do have virtues. For example, in my first online class it seemed true that the nursing students, many of whom were working variable shifts, simply could not have been taking the course were it offered in a traditional format. Similarly, Scheer (2001) seems to find that students take classes online because they don't have another choice. And, as U.S. and European public affairs programs increasingly work with developing countries to train government employees, offering some online courses can be very efficient. Nonetheless, while we can justify online content delivery based on certain student needs, we must disallow online assessment based on students' and society's needs for ethics and honesty. Kennedy et al. (2000) found that the faculty in their survey believe that "supervised, on-site, or interactive video finals that count a high percent of the course grade" would help counteract cheating in distance learning classes. If we are serving students who truly cannot come to campus, then assessment proctors will have to go to them. Further, it is important to note that we can also use the very technologies that make it easier for our students to cheat to catch and punish them (see, e.g., *San Diego Union-Tribune*, 2001; and Shaffer, 2005). Computer science professors often write their own programs to detect cheating. This semester I successfully used Google Scholar (http://scholar.google.com/advanced_scholar_search) to find plagiarism in three MPA research papers, and other faculty are successfully using TurnItIn.com to detect plagiarism. My university does not yet subscribe, but is considering it.

Lang (2002), too, argues that an important response to the awareness of the problem of student dishonor is to make it harder to cheat. For example, he tells his students that they may use no outside sources for their papers, and he assigns essays on poems that have not yet been published, or have been published so recently that nothing has been written about them. Though we can try to make our assignments harder to cheat on, Lang's types of solutions are much less applicable to a public affairs program. If nothing else, one of our common goals is to teach students to do research and to use outside sources and information. Yes, we want them to be able to write, think, and analyze, but that often is not enough. Still, I fundamentally agree with Lang, which is one reason I believe we must curtail the use of online courses and broadly and seriously consider the issue of what we can do to prevent and detect cheating.

Conclusion

I have found writing this paper depressing and worrisome. I want to trust people in general, and I want to believe in the ethics and altruism of public affairs students in particular. Unfortunately, I find the evidence of cheating overwhelming, and I truly feel that we in public affairs programs have an ethical responsibility to strive to stem the tide of cheating, at least within our own programs for our own students and client groups. To socialize the kind of public professionals who will skillfully and ethically work to improve society, we must limit students' abilities to cheat, punish them when we catch them, make sure others know this happens, and generally strive to create an ethical subculture. One way to limit the ability to cheat is to eliminate classes that are taught completely in an online modality. We can make online education work, but only if we embrace it with our eyes open to its failings. A moderate approach can save its virtues while also helping increase at least the ethical behavior of our students.

Every generation has thought that the generation coming after is worse. The trick is in detecting when succeeding generations really do pose increased difficulties for society. As hard as it may be to face, there is a great amount of evidence to indicate that cheating is not only endemic, but on the rise. Unpleasant as it may be for us as individuals, I believe we must collectively take up arms against corruption before it seriously damages the public organizations that we strive to improve.

Notes

1. Though, in fact, there is some concern about how well students learn even facts and methods. See, e.g., Anstine and Skidmore (2003) and Campbell (2004).
2. This information was gained from an email survey I sent the students after becoming aware that one student had cheated.
3. My middle-school-age daughter once bitterly asked my spouse and me, "Why should I do all this work when others will just cheat?" We gave her both moral and an instrumental reasons. The

instrumental reason: You cannot cheat on the PSAT and SAT, and your working and learning now will increase your performance there, which will bring you personal benefits.

4. I use email and my own Web pages to supplement my in-person courses, and I also teach computer-mediated courses.

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Reviewer 2. Undated. "Comments for the Author" on revised submission to the *Journal of Public Affairs Education.*

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Acknowledgment

Special thanks to Margaret C. Campbell, Clara Tschudi-Campbell, and some truly excellent and engaged reviewers of *JPAE.*

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The MPA Program in Small Markets: An Exploratory Analysis

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Abstract

The public administration/policy academic community has had little systematic data on which to base decisions about program location or expansion, especially in small markets. This study presents the results of a multivariate regression of MPA student numbers on eight independent variables.

Over the past century or so, university, especially graduate, education in public administration has been seen as an antidote to inefficient, unaccountable government. More broadly, Leonard White noted that, "In every direction good administration seeks the elimination of waste, the conservation of material and energy, and the most rapid and complete achievement of public purposes consistent with economy and the welfare of workers" (1926, 3).[1] Responding to change, the beginning of 'systematic effort' at public administration education in the United States dates from 1911, culminating in the establishment of the first schools of public administration during the next decade: at Syracuse University in 1924, and at Princeton and the University of Southern California in 1929/30 (da Cunha, 1981, 6-7).

From this advent of public administration as a formal academic discipline, those involved in or associated with the discipline have observed and commented on its development. Especially common topics have been questions of the proper location of the discipline, both intellectually in terms of the focus of teaching and research (Gaus, 1931, 130-4; Walker, 1945; Denhardt, 2001), and physically in terms of where programs are to be housed (Mackelprang and Fritschler, 1975, 183; Borins, 1990, 353; Wahrlich, 1965, 63-5).

Overlooked in these discussions of quality and institutional housing has been quantity—ensuring that the supply of graduate education in public administration meets demand. More specifically, what has been overlooked is an analysis of where MPA[2] programs should be located and how large should they be. We are aware of no systematic study of the issue. Instead, only tangential, impressionistic references exist. Wise's analysis of the standing of public administration in academia in the United States reports on nationwide totals of degrees awarded over time (1999, 146-7). Borins notes that the establishment of policy analysis units in many Canadian federal and provincial government departments in the 1960s and 1970s created demand for graduate education in public administration. He further notes the effect on downsizing in reducing demand from the 1980s (1990, 352) and suggests that retirements will eventually see an upswing (361-2). Yet no support is offered for these ruminations. Australia has seen a more dramatic shift in demand, as a recent upsurge of interest in graduate professional education in public administration has been met by MBA, rather than MPA programs, and MPA programs have declined in number (Carroll, 1991; Redman and Wettenhall, 1995).

In the United States, Walker opened his 1945 discussion of "the universities and the public service" with a reference to "the current slump in the number of university students taking courses in public administration" (1945, 926; see also Hodgetts, 1949, 734). By the 1970s this slump appears to have reversed, as Mackelprang and Fritschler were able to report that, though the data were hard to get, enrollments were up nationwide (Mackelprang and Fritschler, 1975, 189; Fritschler and Mackelprang, 1977, 488). Carroll suggests that better matching supply to demand will require "the development and maintenance of close contacts with the relevant public service authorities in order to ascertain as precisely as possible the demand that exists, not the arrogant imposition of what the academic thinks ought to be provided" (1991, 202).

This paper presents a model that should take some of the guesswork out of decisions both whether to open a new, or to expand an existing, MPA program. The study is intended to augment Carroll's qualitative "close contacts with the relevant public service authorities" (1991) by attempting to provide a quantitative estimate of sustainable student numbers for regional MPA programs, using basic techniques of market forecasting.[3] The model presented below regresses eight variables on student numbers for 161 metropolitan areas in the United States. The purpose is to provide some indication of sustainable MPA student numbers that a region might expect to yield. The next section develops the model, with the following section presenting the results, as well as alternate formulations of the model.

The Model

It is hypothesized that student numbers are influenced by regional population, the program's reputation, accreditation status, location in a state or the federal capital, tuition, size of the host institution, location on a flagship campus, and public service employment intensity.

Because no comprehensive list of public affairs programs exists, the sample was generated from NASPAA's list of member and accredited programs, Peterson's guides, those reporting MPA and MPP graduates to the Integrated Post Secondary Education Data System (IPEDS) provided by the National Center for Educational Statistics (2004), and the authors' knowledge of the field. This resulted in a list of 267 programs for which data on the one dependent and eight independent variables could be generated.[4] This is a substantial sample, larger than the 249 NASPAA institutional members reported by Clark and Menifield (2003, 2). The data set can be accessed online.[5]

Variable Operationalization

Students. The dependent variable was based on the number of graduates during the 2000–2001 academic year, as recorded in the IPEDS database. IPEDS provides a consistent, nationwide dataset; using the number of graduates normalizes student numbers for differences between largely full-time versus largely part-time programs. IPEDS codes 44.0401 and 44.0501 were used for MPA and MPP programs. The figures provided from IPEDS were further checked for accuracy through a variety of other sources, including responses to an emailed survey, university Offices of Institutional Research or equivalent, state higher education offices, and emails and telephone calls to program directors. The primary unit of analysis is the metropolitan area, rather than the program. This was necessitated by the difficulty in sorting out territory for competing programs in larger metropolitan areas. As a result, for metropolitan areas with more than one program, student numbers of all programs were totaled.

Population. The key independent variable in this model is regional population. Given the large proportion of in-service MPA students, the model assumes that whether to attend an MPA program and which program to enroll in will be heavily determined at the regional level,[6] with larger regions tending to produce more students than smaller regions. Population data were gathered from the 2000 U.S. Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs) were generally used to define regional populations. SMSAs as defined by the federal government tend to vary considerably in size. For instance, the Columbia, Missouri, SMSA includes only Boone County, and so extends perhaps ten miles east and west from Columbia. The St. Louis, Missouri, SMSA, on the other hand, extends west some 60 miles. Smaller SMSAs were therefore modified as necessary to ensure that each included broadly all counties within a forty-mile radius of the campus. We adopted the forty-mile threshold because it roughly correlates to the one-hour maximum commute time reported by Wilson and Larson's study of nonprofit graduate students (2002). Where practical, some larger SMSAs were divided among appropriate programs. This resulted in a total of 181 SMSAs. The variable is coded in terms of 100,000 population.

Reputation. The model hypothesizes that programs with strong reputations for academic excellence will attract, and so graduate, more students. We used the *U.S. News and World Report* ranking as a proxy for reputation because its ranking is both current and program specific, and is the most accessible and likely source to be consulted by potential students. Other options were scholarly productivity rankings and Carnegie classifications; however, scholarly productivity rankings within the public affairs field were most recently published some years ago, (Douglas, 1996; Forrester 1996), and Carnegie classifications are based on criteria for the institution as a whole, and so serve as poor indications of the reputation of individual programs.

On the other hand, the *U.S News and World Report* ranking, irrespective of scholarly criticisms (see, for instance, Ventriss, 1995), is awkwardly constructed. Data are readily available for just over 100 programs, with scores ranging between 2.5 and 4.5 on a scale of 0 to 5. This would result in a bimodal variable: with about half of observations equal to zero, half between 2.5 and 4.5, and no observations between zero and 2.5. Therefore, this variable was constructed with the 100+ ranked programs coded as integers between 1 and 10, depending on their decile ranking among the ranked programs. The majority, ~150 unranked programs received a value of zero (and so, as indicated in Tables 1 and 2, produced a sample with a median score of zero for this variable, even on aggregation of the regions).

Table 1. SMSAs: Descriptive Statistics (n=181)

Variable	*Mean*	*Median*	*High*	*Low*	*Standard deviation*	*Skew*	*SE of skew*
Graduates (2001)	43.27	18.00	795	1	89.85	5.63	0.18
Regional pop. (100,000s)	11.00	5.84	95.19	0.35	13.93	3.19	0.18
Accredited (yes=1)	0.52	0.64	1	0	0.47	-0.10	0.18
Reputation (USNWR decile)	1.66	0	10	0	2.56	1.48	0.18
Capital (yes=1)	1.23	0	1	0	0.42	1.30	0.18
Flagship (yes=1)	0.21	0	1	0	0.39	1.46	0.18
Tuition ($1,000)	5.16	3.37	24.62	1.75	4.89	2.50	0.18
Size (1,000 students)	15.38	13.62	48.28	2.01	9.43	1.12	0.18
Public employees (% population)	8.87	8.03	21.8	4.9	3.09	1.35	0.18

Accreditation. The model hypothesizes that students will be attracted to programs that have gained national accreditation. Accreditation was coded as 1 if a program was NASPAA accredited, 0 if not accredited, as reported online by NASPAA.

Tuition, Size, and Flagship. The model hypothesizes that larger, flagship universities will generate more students than smaller, regional campuses, as students will be attracted by the flagship institution's reputation, and by more diverse course, cultural, and recreational offerings; while the programs can draw students from a broader pool of undergraduates. Tuition is hypothesized to be inversely related to student numbers, reflecting the market maxim that as price goes up, demand goes down. Tuition and size data were taken from the *World Almanac 2003* (McGeveran, 2003). Undergraduate tuitions are reported, as readily available, com-

Table 2. Programs—Descriptive Statistics (n=267)

Variable	Mean	Median	High	Low	Standard deviation	Skew	SE of skew
Graduates (2001)	28.47	18.00	462	1	38.62	6.18	0.15
Regional pop. (100,000s)	20.35	10.11	95.19	0.35	23.94	1.80	0.15
Number of regional programs	2.56	1	10	1	2.35	1.66	0.15
Population/regional programs	7.34	6.57	32.55	0.35	5.41	1.73	0.15
Accredited (yes = 1)	0.52	1	1	0	0.50	-0.10	0.15
Reputation (USNWR decile)	1.88	0	10	0	2.90	1.36	0.15
Capital (yes = 1)	0.27	0	1	0	0.45	1.02	0.15
Flagship (yes = 1)	0.16	0	1	0	0.37	1.82	0.15
Tuition ($1,000)	6.75	3.65	26.17	0.84	6.88	1.69	0.15
Size (1,000 students)	15.32	13.23	48.86	1.27	9.84	0.99	0.15
Public employees (% population)	8.81	7.78	21.8	14.9	2.94	1.39	0.15

parable data. Size refers to the total number of students on campus. Flagship was coded as 1 if a program was located in a flagship institution, 0 if not.

Capital and Public Employment Intensity. The model hypothesizes that programs located in centers of government (capital cities) and regions with a higher percentage of government employees will graduate more MPA students. These two indicators sought to capture variation in public employment across the sample. Capital was coded as 1 if a program was located in a state capital or the Washington, D.C., metro area, 0 if not. The variable for public employment sought to capture differences in the relative size of public service workforces. Federal civilian, state, and local public employment data were recorded and divided by the region's population. The data were drawn from the 2000 U.S. Census as reported in the *County City Databook* (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

For SMSAs with more than one program, as indicated, graduate numbers are added to provide regional graduate totals. For other variables, a weighted average based on graduates was used to assign a score for the SMSA. Though producing at first glance (as one reviewer characterized it) "weird" values, the weighted averages make sense. In a region that has accredited programs with strong reputations, for example, more students would be expected to enter MPA programs.

As indicated, the SMSA unit of analysis results in a sample size of 181 from the 284 programs in the dataset. Descriptive statistics for these two samples are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Results

Given the intent of this analysis to focus especially on the viability of MPA programs in smaller markets, the sample was restricted to take out unrepresentatively large regions and programs. Results of a multivariate regression on the entire sample produces counter-intuitive results.[7] In addition to an unworkably large y-intercept;[8] regional population, reputation, and tuition were all positively correlated with student numbers, while the other variables, including especially NASPAA accreditation, were not. On analysis of the data, three factors appear to be driving these unexpected results. First, large programs located in small regions (SPEA at Indiana University–Bloomington, for instance) but that draw students nationally and internationally muddy the impact of regional population on student numbers. Second, programs located in private (high tuition), prestigious institutions (Harvard and Princeton, for instance) and that have seen accreditation as unnecessary produce a positive relationship between tuition and student numbers, as well as a statistically insignificant coefficient for NASPAA accreditation. Third, as shown in Tables 1 and 2, the data are heavily skewed to the right, with a small number both of unrepresentatively large SMSAs and large programs. This steepens the regression line, pivoting it through the middle of the data, and so produces the large, negative y-intercept.

Restricting the model to regions with fewer than 90 graduates per year removes these outliers and allows the fit of a simpler, more intuitive linear model to the more normal 80 percent of SMSAs in the sample.[9] Results for this restricted model (n=161) are presented in Table 3. Similar coefficients are produced by restricting the analysis to smaller SMSAs. Restricting the analysis to SMSAs with fewer than 90 graduates per year acts to lessen the skew produced both by the unrepresentatively large, extra-regional programs; as well as the unrepresentatively large metro areas. This is also consistent with the intent of the analysis, which is to provide a predictive model for the carrying capacity of regions that either appear marginally likely to support an MPA program or in which the market may already be fully served. It should also be noted that, despite this restriction, the data should give programs in the larger SMSAs and extra-regional and international programs a good guide for the student numbers that they are likely to yield from their local region.

As can be seen, four variables are statistically significant. The coefficient for regional population suggests that, for every additional population of 100,000 in a metropolitan area, a region would be expected to generate about 0.8 MPA graduates per year. Or put another way: an unaccredited, unranked program in

Table 3. Regression on Student Numbers–Region as Unit of Analysis, Restricted Sample

	Regression coefficient (standard error)	*t statistic*	*Significance*
Constant	7.63 (5.42)	1.41	.161
Regional population (100,000s)	0.79 (0.16)	4.84	.000
Reputation (U.S. News decile rating)	2.26 (0.71)	3.17	.002
Accreditation (Yes = 1)	4.44 (2.71)	1.64	.104
Federal/state capital (Yes = 1)	4.49 (3.47)	1.29	.198
Public employment (% of population)	-0.16 (0.45)	0.35	.727
Tuition ($1,000)	0.23 (0.33)	0.67	.501
Size of institution (1,000 students)	-0.04 (0.16)	0.23	.819
Flagship (Yes = 1)	-2.28 (3.42)	0.67	.506

Adjusted $r^2 = 0.309$ F (160 df) = 9.96

an SMSA that is not a state capital with a population of 500,000 would, all else being equal, expect to graduate about 12 MPA/MPP students per year.[10]

The reputation coefficient indicates that the unranked program breaking into the bottom of the *U.S. News* top 100 would be expected to graduate over an additional two students per year. Similarly, each broadly ten-place rise up the list of ranked programs correlates with an additional 2.26 graduates per year. NASPAA accreditation results in a bump of four students per year (at $p=0.104$), while location within a state or the federal capital region leads to an average 4.5 additional graduates annually (at $p=0.198$). While interpretation of these two variables at the program level for the multi-program SMSAs is a bit less intuitive, the data demonstrate that more accredited, ranked programs in an SMSA will result in more MPA graduates. From this it is reasonable to infer that both NASPAA accreditation and reputation will result in more students for those ranked, highly respected programs. These variables are discussed further below.

The public employment intensity variable was not statistically significant. This may be due to the relative lack of variation, as nearly 75 percent of regions had values between 5 and 10 percent.

Tuition, also counter-intuitively, proved to be statistically insignificant. This appears to result from two factors. First: again a lack of variation, as some 70 percent of cases report tuition rates of between roughly \$2,000 and \$5,000 annually. Perhaps more important, the typical, especially in-service, student has little choice in programs, with the nearest program often the only feasible option. As a result, tuition may not be significant enough for its effect to be determined in a sample of less than 200.

Finally, neither the size of the host institution nor the location of a program on a flagship campus were statistically significant. The explanation for this may be similar to that for tuition: students face little choice in MPA programs, and the location of a number of flagship institutions outside of major population centers may also contribute to the insignificance of this variable.

The utility of the findings are readily apparent. First, the coefficients for reputation and NASPAA accreditation suggest that these two variables are correlated with larger student numbers. This reinforces program directors' making a case for university support for seeking accreditation and program faculty and leadership seeking to improve the program's reputation for academic excellence. More importantly, the results provide an estimate of sustainable student numbers at the regional level. On the one hand, the model provides an indication of regions that are currently underserved. On the other, the programs planning to add new faculty and to expand student numbers in an existing MPA program, in a region currently producing more MPAs than the model suggests is sustainable, are betting against the spread.

The program level. As indicated above, the analysis was aggregated to the regional level because of the difficulty involved in identifying the regional population in an academic discipline in which a large number of programs share 'turf.' This makes using the program unit of analysis difficult for the program coordinator seeking to estimate demand for her/his program. Still, the program unit of analysis provides useful insights into determinants of student numbers at this level. In the analysis below, the model in Table 4 is repeated at the program level, with the introduction of a variable for the number of programs in a region, in an attempt to control for this. The data are presented in Table 4.

As can be seen, population and reputation remain strongly significant, while NASPAA accreditation and location in a state or the federal capital region remain weakly statistically significant.[11]

The unrestricted model. Finally, as indicated above, this analysis found statistically and substantively significant results from the previous model in which large outliers were removed. The unrestricted model is presented in Table 5.

As indicated earlier, note the awkwardly large, negative y-intercept, as a straight line is imposed on a curvilinear relationship. Population and reputation remain strongly significant, while tuition is statistically significant, but contrary to the hypothesized direction. This variable, as constructed, appears to be reflecting the existence of a preponderance of national/international programs (Harvard, Princeton, Carnegie Mellon, USC, Syracuse, etc.) among the small number (less

Table 4. Regression on Student Numbers–Program as Unit of Analysis, Restricted Sample

	Regression coefficient (standard error)	*t statistic*	*Significance*
Constant	11.33 (4.35)	2.61	.010
Regional population (100,000s)	0.24 (0.11)	2.20	.028
Number of programs in region	-0.87 (1.11)	0.78	.437
Reputation (US News decile rating)	3.04 (0.47)	6.42	.000
Accreditation (Yes = 1)	3.10 (2.17)	1.43	.154
Federal/state capital (Yes=1)	3.66 (2.54)	1.44	.151
Public employment (% of population)	0.06 (0.38)	0.16	.874
Tuition ($1,000)	0.10 (0.19)	0.52	.603
Size of institution (1,000 students)	0.04 (0.13)	0.31	.758
Flagship (Yes = 1)	-4.14 (2.98)	1.40	.162

Adjusted $r^2 = 0.286$ F (253 df) = 12.28

than a quarter) of MPA programs located in high-tuition, private colleges. Finally, note also the statistically significant variable for public employment intensity.

The state level. The data also permitted aggregation at the state level, for those interested in estimating statewide demand for MPA degrees. A multivariate regression on degrees awarded was run with state population, the other three statistically significant independent variables from Table 3, and a variable for statewide public service employment intensity. Given the extremely small sample size (n=51, with Puerto Rico included), and the difficulty involved in aggregating the data for the independent variables across the states, only state population and *U.S. News* ranking remain statistically significant. The data are presented in Table 6.

Population remains a statistically significant determinant of MPA student numbers. The only other aggregated independent variable that remains statistically significant is reputation. The data indicate that, on aggregate, states with a greater preponderance of programs with strong national reputations will generate more MPA graduates. Having programs located in capital cities, accreditation, and public employment intensity are not statistically significant at the state level.[12]

Table 5. Regression on Student Numbers–Region as Unit of Analysis, Unrestricted Sample

	Regression coefficient (standard error)	*t statistic*	*Significance*
Constant	-52.21 (19.08)	2.74	.007
Regional population (100,000s)	3.95 (0.37)	10.58	.000
Reputation (US News decile rating)	6.55 (2.34)	2.80	.006
Accreditation (Yes = 1)	-0.64 (10.05)	0.06	.949
Federal/state capital (Yes = 1)	0.15 (11.86)	0.01	.990
Public employment—state (% of population)	3.64 (1.59)	2.29	.023
Tuition ($1,000)	3.65 (1.01)	3.32	.001
Size of institution (1,000 students)	-0.51 (0.59)	0.88	.382
Flagship (Yes = 1)	-8.68 (12.60)	0.69	.491

Adjusted $r^2 = 0.574$ F (180 df) = 31.29

Caveats and a conclusion

It is also worth noting the adjusted r^2 of .31 in the model presented in Table 3. Considerable variation in student numbers is not explained by this model; indeed, many variables that intuitively would be expected to influence student numbers would be difficult to capture in quantitative analysis. Perhaps most important, different regional cultural expectations, especially formal qualifications, for public managers would be expected to have a major impact on student numbers. Variation would also be explained by factors such as aggressive advertising and outreach programs, strong alumni networks, and local program reputations for teaching rather than national reputations for research. Program admission policies would also impact student numbers, because programs restricting the supply of placements would tend to reduce student numbers, especially in smaller regions with fewer alternatives. The researcher with access to a dataset unknown or unavailable to the authors might also construct a more effective variable for tuition, accounting for stipends, program length, and other factors that can reduce the cost to students of an MPA. More broadly, modeling MPA student numbers would benefit greatly from further (probably survey) research that would allow data to replace intuition in identifying relevant variables.

The regression analyses performed here were based on graduates from a single year. As is well appreciated, graduation rates from public affairs programs have fluctuated over time (see Wise, 1999). For this reason, further study, either by expanding the depth of the database into the past (and adding a variable to pick up the effect of economic fluctuations over time within regions), or by continuing to report graduates as they occur in the future, would be beneficial. Although the data provide strong evidence of the value of NASPAA accreditation in terms

Table 6. Regression on Student Numbers—State as Unit of Analysis

	Regression coefficient (standard error)	*t statistic*	*Significance*
Constant	-66.7 (118.00)	0.57	.574
State population (100,000s)	2.60 (0.31)	8.48	.000
Reputation (U.S. News decile rating)	21.38 (7.78)	2.75	.009
Accreditation (Yes = 1)	-35.03 (44.87)	0.78	.439
Federal/state capital (Yes = 1)	-17.95 (51.43)	0.35	.729
Public employment—state (% of population)	5.96 (13.92)	0.44	.662

Adjusted r^2 = 0.679 F (50 df) = 22.18

of student numbers, a goal of the study that the authors were not able to achieve was to try to tease out the impact of NASPAA accreditation on student numbers before and after accreditation.

More than forty years ago, a text on market research noted, "Regression analysis has long been an important tool for economists in their attempts to measure aggregate consumer demand. It is only recently that the procedure has come out of the economist's kit of tools and into that of the practicing marketing analyst" (Frank, Kuehn, and Massy, 1962, 265). To the best of our knowledge, this paper provides the first attempt to add market research to the MPA program manager's toolkit. The model presented provides a quantitative analysis of determinants of student numbers in MPA programs, for that large majority of programs that exist to service well-defined regions. This may help us to plan as rationally as we teach and exhort our students to do.

Notes

1. See also Gibbon, 1926, 434; Hodgetts, 1949, 716; and Wahrlich, 1965, 60-1.
2. Though the analysis combines Master of Public Administration and Master of Public Policy programs, we will use the simplifying designation MPA.
3. See Frank and Green, 1967, 60-70; Frank, Kuehn and Massy, 1962, 265-302; Green, Tull, and Albaum, 1988, 425-64 ; Kress and Snyder, 1994, 133-54.
4. Two hundred eighty-four programs were identified, but 17 were omitted from the analysis because of missing data.
5. Available online at http://mypage.iusb.edu/~gcandler/GCan/data.htm.
6. A survey conducted as part of the research for this study found that only three of 90 programs reported 100 percent full-time students, while more than two-thirds of programs had a majority of part-time, in-service students. The median was 37 percent, which is consistent with Fritschler and Mackelprang's 38 percent full-time students in the 138 programs in their 1975 survey (1977, 491).
7. Presented below, in Table 4.
8. The y-intercept was –52. With the coefficient for population of 4, and a statistically significant coefficient for regional public employment intensity of 3.64, this suggests that an unranked program located in an area with a population of 400,000 and the sample mean public employment intensity of 8.9 percent could expect to graduate negative four students per year.
9. Younger, 1979, 265-6, and Dillon and Goldstein, 1984, 252-4, make the case for analyzing the straight-line portion of an otherwise curvilinear relationship.
10. $Y=7.63 + (0.79)(5)$
11. A number of other models were also run. First, the variables for population and for the number of programs were replaced with a single variable: population divided by the number of programs. For the restricted model (fewer than 90 graduates), this new variable is statistically significant ($p=.035$; $\beta=0.44$), along with reputation ($p=.000$; $\beta=3.17$) and NASPAA accreditation ($p=.121$; $\beta=3.42$). The adjusted r^2 of the model was 0.267 ($p=.000$). This model was also run unrestricted, with all programs included. In this model only the reputation variable remains statistically significant in the hypothesized direction ($p=.000$; $\beta=7.05$). The adjusted r^2 of the model was 0.349 ($p=.000$). Finally, the model presented in Table 2 was also run unrestricted, with all programs included, and variables included for both regional population and for the number of programs in the region. Only reputation was statistically significant ($p=.000$; $\beta=6.90$). The adjusted r^2 of the model was 0.360 ($p = .000$). In each of these three models, the variables for tuition and for flagship institution were at least weakly significant ($p<0.20$), but the coefficients were opposite the hypothesized direction: positive for tuition, negative for location on a flagship campus.

12. As another indication of statewide demand for MPA/MPP degrees, a bivariate regression of degrees on state population yields a coefficient of 2.77 (p=.000), with a y-intercept of –4.88. The adjusted r^2 of this model is 0.654.

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Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr. Patricia Case, of the Department of Anthropology and Sociology at the University of Toledo; as well as numerous survey respondents.

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Reenacting, Retracing, and Rediscovering History: Making a Connection in the Public Administration Curriculum

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Abstract

The study of public administration is an amalgamation of discoveries from many disciplines, including organizational management, political science, psychology, and sociology (Dahl, 1947; Denhardt, 1989). Curiously, one discipline that is inadequately represented in a complex and multidisciplinary approach to examining public administration is history. This article discusses how history manages to receive minimal attention in the curriculum and why it should gain greater prominence in the classroom, and it suggests teaching mechanisms to assist in recovering and enhancing the significance of our history in advancing our understanding of public administration.

Public administration scholars continually examine an array of disciplines to inform and enhance our understanding of public administration. The field is an evolving inquiry into the contents of other disciplines such as organizational management, political science, psychology, and sociology (Dahl, 1947; Denhardt, 1989). Unfortunately, one discipline that is inadequately represented in a complex and multidisciplinary approach to examining public administration is history.

This article advocates incorporating history, which provides lessons—some confined to specific elements of a unique past and some timeless and relevant beyond any certain era—into public administration teaching. This paper begins by exploring the atemporal nature of public administration curricula, arguing that public administration theorists have not ventured far from the familiar discourse of scientific inquiry and rationality at the loss of subjective analysis attending to worldviews and contextual values available in historical lessons. Next, the paper discusses how historical investigation broadens our understanding of public administration issues, granting a context through which students may find a useful approach to confronting present-day public administration practices. Finally, several suggestions for incorporating history into course curricula are offered.

Some assert that public administration is stateless in its roots, because the duties of administration are not part of the Constitution, instead evolving *in vivo* (Stillman, 1991). In contrast, American history is typically taught from a perspective that examines the founding of the nation, explores the intent of the founding fathers, and analyzes the drafting and ratification of the U.S. Constitution. Outside of the traditional Jeffersonian/Hamiltonian debate about the nature of federalism, public administration is largely taught devoid of a frame of historical reference and as if it were wholly American in its construction. For instance, Weber's work is rarely analyzed against the backdrop of the development of German bureaucratic culture and instead is seen as a blueprint for establishing generalizable, operational rules and policies.

The decline of history as an explanatory tool in public administration teaching began during the Progressive era and continued through the post-World War II era as Behaviorism swept through the American social sciences community. In addition to the lack of historical reference, public administration lacks a formal grounding in history. Instead of using historical landmarks, public administration relies on a variety of organizing perspectives, including, among others, the classical, neoclassical, rational, human relations, and systems approaches to theory. Although this diversity of theoretical approaches contributes to the intellectual vitality of our field, it diminishes the significance of major events such as wars, depressions, recessions, and social movements in the American experience and on the development of public administration theory. Students are encouraged to rely on these theories when observing contemporary public service organizations without first examining the difference between our world today and the events, culture, and values of the theorist at the time of his/her writing.

Nevertheless, some public administration scholars use a historical approach to assess the utility of the discipline (Burke, 1989; Mosher, 1968; Sherwood, 1996; Spicer, 1995; Stillman, 1991; Uveges and Keller, 1989). One such approach discusses a particular historical event, such as the development of the Constitution (Spicer, 1995) or the state (Stillman, 1991), in critical terms, essentially concluding that public administration developed in reaction to the perceived original intent of the founders. A similar approach attempts to define each decade since 1880 by the democratic process that dominated (Uveges and Keller, 1989). This analysis is thorough, but it is overly reliant on a political science perspective of governance and does not include an analysis of significant historical events and their effect on changes in the administrative process and practice.

Burke (1989) criticizes the study of public administration for its over-reliance on generalizations and instead advocates using a stratified approach to address the lack of a formal historical perspective. Her strategy is to organize historical themes on a specific point or topic of study; in her case, this is employment status. This style of study, while initially appearing useful, only levels the playing field for comparative studies and does not provide insight into the effects of specific historical events.

Historians who entered the field of public administration or public administration writers focusing on history as a course of study came closest to what Burke is proposing. Among the former is Barry Karl (1976), who traces the evolution of professionalism in public administration. Karl's treatment of public administration theory is sympathetic, yet even he claims that looking back to see if public administration has fulfilled its own promises is not sufficient "unless we are simply looking on our backs in the current mood of self-punishment" (502). By noting values, context, and key historical events, Karl introduces a different lens to the formation of public administration theory and its implications to practice.

The latter category includes Caldwell (1976), Waldo (1984), and Van Riper (1997). We find, however, that only Van Riper consistently takes his historical inquiry to this desired level. Caldwell and Waldo's foci are important; however, they are fastened onto discrete facets of public administration theory, specifically administrative law and political theory. Van Riper's critique of public administration's history offers a more expansive approach. He attends to historical facts, such as questioning how Max Weber could be seen as a "founder" of public administration when his work on bureaucracy was not even published until the 1940s (219). By essentially demonstrating how public administration has largely ignored history in its own assessment, he concludes that we must develop our understanding of the real consequences of history on public administration theory.

The ahistorical perspective: Why don't we teach history?

Although some researchers draw attention to the relevance of public administration's history, and most introductory texts gesture to historical context, a general resistance to a greater focus on history in public administration curricula prevails. It is important to recognize that there is legitimate apprehension around adopting another discipline's investigative lens. Historians themselves cringe at the responsibility their discipline has thrust on them for being the past's reflective lens (Karl, 1976).

Public administration theorists have commented on the privileged focus granted technical rationality and professionalism following World War II and its dominant lens on public administration identity and instruction (Adams, 1994).

An emphasis on quantitatively judged science and a consensus of concentrated efforts for greater organizational efficiency diverted any serious attention from historical analysis, which looks to qualitatively investigate cultural values, beliefs, and other artifacts of the time to inform and explain theory and practice. The concern with professionalism and scientific methodology leads to "a naked public square" (Adams, 1994, 32). An orthodox view of public administration holds that a well-organized academic discipline must have its own scientific knowledge base. Public administration remains stubbornly atemporal and continues, with calls for increased scientific rigor and professionalism, to develop knowledge through models of causality. Human and administrative progress are persistently seen through lenses that ignore time, setting, and culture.

A second reason for avoiding the historical perspective, ironically, can be found in examining the founding documents of the Republic. A fear of unchecked monarchial power convinced the founding fathers to construct a lock-step approach to running their fledgling republic. European studies (Hobbes, Machiavelli, and Rousseau) focus on the rise of State's central authority and the inability—or unwillingness?—of ordinary citizens to govern themselves. The American perspective is in sharp contrast to this view. This resistance to look at our past to inform our future is embedded in our history. First, Americans do not have European studies' extended historical basis upon which to reflect. While we are the world's longest living democracy, we are a relatively young people, with a comparatively brief history upon which to draw. Secondly, the American viewpoint is notoriously anti-statist. Administration is viewed, primarily, from a bottom-up perspective and is presented in terms of how the state fits into the everyday lives of citizens. Moreover, comparatively few changes have been made to our founding documents. Such changes are not made rapidly, typically have an incremental impact on the rights and lives of individuals, and rarely address the concept of the corporate State. This is certainly not a criticism of the method by which we orchestrate administrative processes; however, it does little to advance the significance of historical events as influential to today's administrative challenges.

All of the reasons for deemphasizing the historical perspective are best summarized in the observation that the worldview of the public administrator adopts a rationalist approach, while the founders were distinctly antirationalist in their beliefs about government (Spicer, 1995). A rationalist perspective has it roots in scientism, believing that humans, and their governments, are endowed with limitless powers of human reason. In contrast, the antirationalist views human reason as inevitably flawed. Checks on the power and scope of government are a natural outgrowth of this belief. Spicer (1995) further contends that contemporary public administration writers tend to look at American governance from a "distinctively optimistic and utopian view" (xi), essentially concluding that present-day worldviews were not views held by the Founders. This fundamental conflict of worldviews offers us an important insight into the ahistorical roots of public administration thinking and teaching.

Why study administrative history?

Discussing the utility of studying administrative history with students and practitioners is a challenging undertaking. Public administration's emphasis on rationality and efficiency relegates the history of public administration to the dusty backbench of the discipline's intellectual structure. Students and practitioners seldom want to learn about the discipline's historical and intellectual roots.

Nevertheless, studying administrative history enhances students and practitioners' intellectual development. The study of history enables us to understand how the past impinges upon the present. The present has no meaning without a past, and we cannot develop a sense of ourselves as individuals and as members of a discipline or profession without attention to our history (Kruman, 1995). "To enable man to understand the society of the past and to increase his mastery over the society of the present," writes Carr (1962), "is the dual function of history." By broadening our knowledge of the discipline, we foster more intellectually developed practitioners and scholars, which makes them more capable practitioners/scholars.

Second, a primary focus on the practical application of theory in the day-to-day instrumental efforts of our mid-level management students pushes aside the administrative history that could reframe issues and inform management practices in today's agency settings. So-called new approaches to administration give no grounding in historical context. For example, the reinventing government movement was initially introduced to public administration as a remedy for administrative inadequacies, with no historical basis to explain how and why existing governmental structures identified as troublesome were in place. Presented with a solution, with no discussion of the historical roots of the alleged problem, students are encouraged to adopt techniques such as steering, not rowing, without any consideration for why rowing was once the preferred practice.

History offers public administrators greater decision-making capability. The recognition of trends and patterns in administrative thought and practice and the ability to anticipate their potential consequence on human interaction sharpens one's critical thinking and heightens analytical prowess.

A view of history can allow one to redefine an issue in terms that go beyond mere instrumentality, allowing appreciation for contextual artifacts that remain or have changed and the effects on their predecessors, and can permit the adaptation or adoption of strategies to curtail the repetition of past mistakes and the refinement and advancement of successes in contemporary situations. Several questions emerge from the story for the administrative historian: What change that took place at a specific point in time culminated in the conditions or events being studied? What circumstances, if any, periodically altered the state of things? Were changes catastrophic or evolutionary? What factors or events account for the change? How did the events affect the general character of life in a particular society or group? In answering these questions, it is important to recall Schlesinger's (1986) position that an understanding of past events must involve an understanding of values and their accompanying moral context.

Public administrators continue to confront an oversupply of what Rittel and Webber (1973) characterize as "wicked" problems. These problems typically defy definitive formulations and often lack real solutions; they are only imperfectly and temporarily resolved. Public administrators grappling with these issues rarely need new techniques to tackle these problems; instead, they need perspective. We believe that developing this perspective includes understanding how these issues previously manifested themselves and how earlier generations of public administrators grappled with them. The events of the past can prove timeless. For instance, the debate on the size and role of government arose with the creation of the Republic and will forever be a contentious issue for the citizenry. What can be contemporary, however, are new insights derived from studying administrative history.

How should we study administrative history?

In order to remove the stereotypical dust from history in the classroom, it must become active. Reenactment or roleplaying of figures from history confronting present-day issues, retracing present-day administrative issues to past events, and rediscovering the significance of history in administrative studies are methods by which history can come to life and contribute to student appreciation of its applicability to their daily work life.

Regardless of the type of approach that an instructor prefers, in each case we suggest using an inclusive style of study that appreciates the contextual surroundings of historical events. That is, recognizing the value of the cultural influences of social structures, economic institutions, political systems, communications networks, and ideological patterns existing during a particular period under investigation is critical. Similar to Spicer's (1995) approach, students are encouraged to explore the worldview of the historian/theorist. Then, attention is given to historical events' similarities to and differences from present-day environments. By identifying key historical events that were a part in shifting administrative thinking, students extract the relevant applicability to today's administrative challenges. Juxtaposing the limitations of the time, the opportunities that now exist, and the changes in the two worlds, students can create a synthesis of relevant elements of the past that inform the present and future construction of administrative theory. We also encourage using an active learning agenda throughout all of the approaches. This means students actively engage in their own education. Passive learning about past events perpetuates the prejudicial complaint that history is stale and irrelevant. Student participation invigorates history, demonstrating it as a viable and exciting contributor to public administration education. Not surprisingly, many of our suggestions include roleplaying, fiction reading, presentations, and debates.

Reenactment or roleplaying people in history. One suggestion for incorporating history into the curriculum is an in-class exercise in which students roleplay historical figures or public servants during a particular time period. Students, acting as practitioners, try to understand how their roles might be limited by the historical time period. Using this approach, students gain an understanding of what historical events preceded other events and, conversely, what events in the past contributed to the development of current policy. For example, students may research and then lecture as a person from history: Mary Parker Follett discussing her unique position as a wealthy woman in 1920s Boston writing about the House of Representatives at the time; Woodrow Wilson discussing his administrative career; or, Louis Brownlow discussing his interactions with President Roosevelt and recounting how the economic pressures of the 1930s shaped his recommendations.

Historical figures from similar or different epochs could debate administrative issues or even take on formulating policy, drawing on their knowledge of the figures and of that era. For instance, students may perform as Hamilton and Jefferson debating the Federalist/Anti-Federalist dispute surrounding the framing of the Constitution; Simon and Deming could argue the impact of artificial intelligence on administrative procedures. We still recall performing—complete with period costumes and accents—significant figures from history in our public administration classes that allowed for an appreciation not only of their contribution to theory but of the historical context that propelled (and, more often, discouraged) their work.[1] Another example allows for performing as a typical public servant, not a celebrity, of time past in order to explore the political, social, and cultural dynamics of the time that led, for instance, to the establishment of the city manager model of government. A sample syllabus outline for these roleplaying opportunities is provided in Appendix A.

Retracing issues in history. A similar approach for including history in the curriculum might be used to further understand the impact of historical issues and events on administrative practice. Instead of people, this exercise focuses upon policy and the thematic struggles over time that have consistently arisen in the field of public administration. Because history deals with the evolution of ideas, concepts, and events over time, comprehension of the basic features of a historical period becomes a prerequisite for grasping more complex concepts (Trifan, 1997). This is especially so in the field of public administration, where it is critical to good scholarship, as well as to professional practice, to understand the genesis and subsequent evolution of the ideas, events, and issues that frame contemporary policies and practices. As Kennedy (2003) and Donald and Tribbey (2002) suggest, students enter public administration educational programs with varying degrees of exposure to American history. Therefore, structuring classroom exercises that deepen the student's understanding of the discrete themes and issues in public administration that emerged from American history can fortify an appreciation for its applicability to present-day challenges in public service.

Trifan (1997) suggests "post-holing" or conducting an indepth examination of a narrowly focused topic to enhance learning. Retracing exercises concentrate on how public administration's currents and themes evolve over time and how historical contexts affect their development. For instance, class discussion and debate on the use of administrative discretion of public administrators can be traced back to the Friedrich and Finer debate. This debate has provided the dimension and framework for a discussion about the legitimate role of administration in a democracy.[2] Studying this historical debate enables public administrators to better understand how this issue continues to emerge in practice settings. Appendix B contains a sample syllabus outlining two prominent themes of public administration, organizational decision making and the politics-administration dichotomy.

Couching discussion of an historical artifact in the time period in which it emerged also provides a useful context to understand its development and present-day application. For instance, it is interesting to explore the impact of the Great Depression on the development of the Brownlow Report. What were the social and economic conditions necessitating expanding the number of staff in Roosevelt's executive branch? Would the impact of the report have been the same in different circumstances? We have found that organizational policy manuals from the 1930s and 1940s ignite interested and engaged student discussion of the management policies of yesterday and today. A historical perspective reminds us that administrative practice is always contextual. It occurs within the broader comparative context of how public administration has been conducted in other settings and at other times.

To thoroughly integrate the historical lesson, we suggest that the instructor have students read original documents or critiques and essays of the time period. In our view, this would include, but not be limited to, readings from Leonard White's *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*, Frederick Mosher's *Democracy and the Public Service*, Richard Stillman's *Preface to Public Administration*, and Michael Spicer's *The Founders, the Constitution and Public Administration*. These writers' historical contributions are critical, because, while they write about administrative history with specific foci—constitutional, legal, managerial—we also need to examine their worldview. The lens they use to describe the evolution of public administration is invariably colored by the times in which they lived and the historical events they witnessed. When we examine White's contributions to early public administration theory in his text *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (1926), it is crucial to understand White's groundbreaking focus on the managerial aspects of public administration and to understand what American government and society looked like at that time.

Norton Long's thinking on organizational rationality similarly highlights the importance of understanding the historical and situational context (Sherwood, 1996). Long's predictions about the impending death of the classical politics-administration dichotomy proved to be prescient and offered a fresh perspective on the emerging importance of organizational decisionmaking at a time when the wellspring of public administration theory seemed to be growing stagnant. American government and culture in the early 1950s was emerging from the shadow of World War II. The dawning of the behavioral movement in America social sciences reified a model in which government was organized and run much like the war machine that had only recently defeated the Axis powers. Understanding Long's thinking on public administration and American society depends, in part, on acquiring an understanding of the culture of American government at the time of his contributions.

Rediscovering the history of public administration. In this last approach, we examine the founders of public administration and look at the meta-themes of public administration that they addressed. Whereas the retracing exercises focus on how the field addresses core intellectual questions of administration over time, rediscovery exercises attend to specific eras in American history and the salient public administration issues that emerged from them. Using this approach, students would first read a selection of public administration literature and synthesize the historical context under which it was conceived. Students would then contrast the varying themes within the period that they are studying. As a group exercise, students would then contrast the themes between each period. Students are encouraged to examine presidents, congressional leaders, businessmen, and even celebrities to fully grasp the period. This approach emphasizes a deeper understanding of the past that goes beyond public administration's chronological history and can help students develop a sharper understanding of contemporary practices. The suggested readings of Appendix C and the rediscovering exercise instructions provide a context in which students can identify overarching themes of historical thought on the development of public administration.

Studying administrative history and its theoretical pioneers is a way for students to better understand themselves and their profession. The use of historical pieces enables public administrators to strike a realistic balance between humanistic and scientific practices. History enables us to break the logjam between theory and practice because it combines the humanistic with the scientific. "History deals with people," Nugent (1967) argues, "both humanistically because of its attention to the individual and the unique event, and scientifically because it deals with people in groups and as the focus of long-term trends." For these reasons, an understanding of the past and the way in which we study it is crucial for public administrators.

History can be incorporated into the public administration curriculum in many creative ways. Kennedy (2003) encourages an intrigue for historical relevance by bringing original, rare, first editions of the works they assign into the classroom. Donald and Tribbey (2002) require first-person interviews of students to collect oral histories and gain a true appreciation of the personal impact public policies have on individual workers. Our suggested readings and presentations add to the ever-expanding menu of possible techniques to best bring history into the present.

As students sharpen their ability to historically examine a time period through a historical lens, they can look at the contributions of historical figures in relation to contemporary practice and scholarship. By examining the distinctive characteristics of each historical figure and time period, students can begin to identify qualities of the next persons and moments in public administration.

Conclusion

Certainly, history has not been forthrightly ignored in public administration's literature. However, its utility has been underappreciated. Public administration's identity questions have both political—what should public administrators do?—and pedagogical—how should public administration be taught?—dimensions (Adams, 1994). Historical investigation would help our field better explain and answer these questions. "Critical historically based studies," writes Adams (1994), "are solely needed to address in meaningful ways the political and epistemological dimensions of modernity as they bear on Public Administration" (41).

It is time for new approaches that draw on historical figures and time periods in looking at public administration's evolution. Our suggested approaches assist in making the study of public administration more relevant, interesting, and instructive to students and practitioners. Historical inquiry offers public administration students and practitioners ways to become better connected to their own discipline. Public administrators can draw parallels to contemporary practices and determine the relative utility of the field's historical writings by linking factors such as economic institutions, social conditions, political ideologies, and technological developments to the field's seminal documents and theorists.

As public administrators continue to contend with a generally critical public perception of their contributions, public administration students must seek refuge in the strength of the profession. A look at our history illuminates the richness of our field, highlights the importance of its early intellectual contributions, and amplifies the contributions of the theorists who forged the discipline. And while public administration students should come to see that public administration is an intellectual amalgam of the study of human behavior, political theory, and organizational behavior, it also holds an appreciation of its own history and its implications for the future.

Notes

1. We would like to thank Dr. Regis Chapman for introducing the concept of reenactment to our doctoral studies.
2. Beginning in the 1940s, Carl Friedrich (1940) and Herman Finer (1941) engaged in an ongoing debate about administrative accountability in the pages of the leading public administration journals. In brief, Friedrich argued that professionalism and a shared sense of purpose was the best way to ensure administrative accountability. Public administrators, therefore, were expected to exercise appropriate levels of professional discretion in performing their jobs. In contrast, Finer maintained that administrative accountability must be based on external controls and that too much professional discretion would lead to public servants formulating their own policies that did not comport with the wishes of the elected political leadership. Finer believed that elected officials who were directly accountable to the citizens had the best finger on the pulse of what the citizenry wanted. The best and only means, therefore, of ensuring accountability was to construct a system that clearly placed elected officials in positions of command and control and that limited the exercise of professional discretion. Friedrich countered by arguing that this would hamstring the daily operations of government and stifle individual initiative and creativity.

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APPENDIX A

Syllabus: Components to include for Roleplaying Exercises

Course Requirement (Presentation)

Your presentation will be approximately 30 minutes. You will play the role of a prominent theoretician. You will advocate the thinker's view in terms of the period in which the person lived and wrote. You should cover more than the content of the required readings. At the close of your presentation, the class and I will question, criticize, and add support and debate with you the principle themes of your work. After your presentation, provide me and your fellow classmates with an outline of your presentation and a bibliography of the sources you consulted in preparing for this exercise.

Some Theoreticians to Roleplay

- "Theoretical Footprints": Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, Alexis de Tocqueville, and Woodrow Wilson.
- "Classical Theory": Max Weber, Frederick W. Taylor, Chester Barnard, Luther Gulick, and Louis Brownlow.
- "Post-Classical Theory": Herbert A. Simon, Mary Parker Follett, Elton Mayo, Paul Appleby, Douglas McGregor, Charles Lindblom.
- "Contemporary Theory": Dwight Waldo, George Frederickson, David H. Rosenbloom, Ronald C. Moe.

Possible Required Texts

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APPENDIX B
Syllabus: Components to Include for Retracing Exercises

Course Requirement (Classroom Activities)
In this exercise, students track the intellectual evolution of the field's seminal issues over time and assess the effect of historical contexts/events on present-day challenges in public service. Students will present the original conceptual framework surrounding an issue of historical significance and then make application to present-day treatment of the issue. If an oral presentation is required, students should be prepared to debate the relevance and application of the issue to contemporary public administration concerns provided by classmates. Classmates should submit current administrative scenarios that may capture the topic. Students should provide the instructor and fellow classmates with a paper and a bibliography of the sources consulted in preparing for this exercise.

Conceptual Area of Inquiry
Organizational Decision Making

Thematic Issues
- How do the classical scholars (Wilson, Willoughby, White, and Gulick) frame the discussion of organizational decision making?
- How did the focus of this issue change during the post-World War II period?
- What contextual factors contributed to this change?
- How is this topic currently discussed?

Classroom Discussion
- How is the issue discussed in current literature?
- What similarities and differences are found among writers addressing this topic?
- What are the implications for contemporary scholarship and practice?

Suggested Sources
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Conceptual Area of Inquiry
Politics-Administration Dichotomy

Thematic Issues
- Why is this issue considered significant to public administration study and practice?
- How has it been discussed historically?
- What is the current state of the discourse surrounding this issue?

Classroom Discussion
- How is the issue discussed in current literature?
- What similarities and differences are found among writers addressing this topic?
- What are the implications for contemporary scholarship and practice?

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Adams, Guy B. 992. "Enthralled with Modernity: The Historical Context of Knowledge and Theory Development in Public Administration." *Public Administration Review,* 52(4): 363-373.
Feldman, Martha S., and Anne M. Khademian. 2002. "To Manage is to Govern." *Public Administration Review,* 62(5):541-554.
Klingner, Donald E., John Nalbandian, and Barbara S Romzek. 2002. "Politics, Administration, and Markets: Conflicting Expectations and Accountability." *American Review of Public Administration,* 32(2):117-144.
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APPENDIX C

Syllabus: Components to Include for Exploring Rediscovering Exercises

Course Requirement (Classroom Activities)
Rediscovering exercises focus on questions and issues in public administration emerging from identifiable eras in American history. This course will examine two periods in history: The Early Republic and The Progressive Era. Classroom assignments focus on selected reading requiring students to critically review and analyze the assignment to effectively address the following questions:

- How are these issues defined and addressed in the literature?
- What contextual factors contributed to the formulation of these issues at the time?
- What are the implications for contemporary scholarship and practice?

Era of Study
The Early Republic (1789-1802)
Issue to be Examined
One issue that quickly emerged from this period was the debate about the appropriate size, role, and scope of authority of government:

- What are the appropriate size, role, and level of authority for an American government? Specifically, how did the founders address:
  —their beliefs about the nature of people?
  —their beliefs about the nature of power in a Republic?
  —their beliefs about the nature of conflict between, and among, individuals and groups of citizens?
- What models of understanding this issue emerged from this period?

Possible Required Readings
Burke, Catherine G. 1989. "Themes from the History of American Public Administration: Rethinking Our Past." In Jack Rabin, W. B. Hildreth, and G. Miller, eds. *Handbook of Public Administration.* New York: Marcel Dekker.
Caldwell, Lynton K. 1944. *The Administrative Theories of Hamilton and Jefferson: Their Contributions to Thought on Public Administration.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
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Stillman, Richard J. 1990. "The Peculiar 'Stateless' Origins of American Public Administration and Consequences for Government Today." *Public Administration Review,* 50(2): 156-157.
Uveges, Joseph A., and L. F. Keller. 1989. "The First One Hundred Years of American Public Administration: The Study and Practice of Public Management in American Life." In Jack Rabin, W. B. Hildreth, and G. Miller, eds., *Handbook of Public Administration.* New York: Marcel Dekker.

Era of Study
The Progressive Era (1880-1930)

Issue to Be Examined
The building, expanding, and reforming of American government. How did the face of American government change during this era?
- What are the watershed events of this era?
- What factors prompted the drive for progressive reform?
- What major intellectual and legislative efforts contributed to this expansion and reformation of government?
- What distinguishable growth trends emerged in federal and state government?

Possible Required Readings
Fiske, John. 1903. *Civil Government in the United States Considered with Some Reference to its Origins*. Boston/New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
Fox, Kenneth. 1977. *Better City Government: Innovations in American Politics, 1850-1937.* Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
Griffith, Ernest S. 1974. *A History of American City Governments: The Progressive Years and Their Aftermath.* New York: Praeger.
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Testing the Reluctant Professor's Hypothesis: Evaluating a Blended-Learning Approach to Distance Education

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Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Lilly Lu, Iowa State University

Kurt Thurmaier, Iowa State University

Abstract

As MPA programs search for teaching options that meet students' needs and maintain program quality, many are exploring various distance learning formats. This paper evaluates whether students with synchronous learning and asynchronous learning experiences received a different quality of instruction in an course that blended distance and face-to-face learning. The authors review the literature on blended learning distance education as an alternative to online-only distance education, discuss the model of blended learning distance education used in the course described in this analysis, and then review their hypotheses, research methodology, and statistical analysis. The authors conclude with a brief discussion of the implications of this experiment for other MPA programs that might explore a blended learning distance education component in their curriculum.

Distance education (DE) in public administration can be approached in many ways. Some programs may offer DE as a way to expand their student base and increase student credit hours; other programs may offer DE as part of their mission or as a mandate by virtue of their setting in a land-grant institution. Programs also approach DE in different ways. The traditional form of DE is the satellite classroom delivery in an off-campus location. In the Internet era, some programs offer online-only degree programs, opening their curriculum to students around the globe. Although students may be required to physically attend an orientation session, courses are run exclusively online. Other programs are searching for a DE option that lies somewhere between the online-only delivery and delivery at a satellite campus.

The Master of Public Administration (MPA) program at Iowa State University has a land-grant mission to use DE to provide MPA opportunities to public managers across Iowa. The program faculty struggle to balance the cost of delivery with a desire to ensure that the quality of the DE experience meets the same high standards as for students in the classroom setting. This paper analyzes the effort of the program faculty to use a blended learning approach to DE for MPA students. The MPA students in the experiment were divided into three groups: the students in the classroom who had face-to-face interaction with the instructor, students attending the class through a TV monitor in real time, and those participating in the class asynchronously in various communities. The instructors in the study simultaneously used multiple delivery methodologies to connect students to the curriculum and to each other.

The primary question of this study—the critical question for the MPA faculty—is to evaluate whether students with synchronous learning and asynchronous learning experiences receive a different quality of instruction in a blended learning environment. This analysis gives voice to a hypothetical reluctant professor who is willing to experiment with distance education but is worried that the quality of the asynchronous learning students' experience will be inferior to that of the synchronous learning students. We use the voice of the reluctant professor to establish the principal testable hypothesis of this study: that DVD students would express lower satisfaction with their learning experience and would have lower grade point averages (GPAs) than the other students in the same course who had real-time interaction with the instructors in a classroom or through a TV monitor.

We first explore the literature on blended learning distance education (BLDE) as an alternative to online-only DE, and we situate this experiment in the set of BLDE options. We then discuss the theoretical model of BLDE used in the experiment and the hypotheses on expected outcomes. This section is followed by a discussion of the research methodology and statistical analysis. We conclude with a brief discussion of the implications of this experiment for other MPA programs that might explore a BLDE component in their curriculum.

Blended Learning Trend

Blended learning generally refers to a course that combines face-to-face and distance learning components (Osguthorpe and Graham, 2003). Many experts predict that the blended format will become pervasive in distance education (Cottrell and Robison, 2003; Young, 2002). In the Sloan Consortium's survey of 50 institutions with online programs, the percentage of students enrolling in blended courses was expected to increase from the current 7.6 percent in 2002 to 21 percent within the next three years (Sloan Consortium, 2003).

Several explanations can be offered for the increasing growth of the blended format. First, the blended format is an effective way to integrate the strengths of synchronous and asynchronous learning activities (Garrison and Kanuka, 2004; Osguthorpe and Graham, 2003; Reay, 2003). It gives instructors more course design flexibility to meet the specific needs of the discipline, student preferences, and learning styles (Garnham and Kaleta, 2002; Voos, 2003), and students have more time flexibility with learning activities (Garnham and Kaleta, 2002; Osguthorpe and Graham, 2003).

Second, including an online component in face-to-face courses increases interaction and contact among students and between students and instructors (Garnham and Kaleta, 2002). Students, as a result, are more motivated and engaged in learning activities. Also, empirical studies have shown its pedagogical and learning effectiveness (Aycock, Garnham, and Kaleta, 2002; Burgon and Williams, 2003; Christensen, 2003; Cottrell and Robison, 2003; Garnham and Kaleta, 2002; Rogers et al., 2003; Waddoups, Hatch, and Samantha, 2003). It holds great potential for facilitating a community of inquiry (Garrison and Kanuka, 2004). Finally, the blended model of distance education not only provides greater access and a higher-quality learning experience, it also has the potential to reduce institutional costs (Story and DiElsi, 2003). With these advantages, it is not surprising that the blended model is receiving significant attention in distance education.

Types of Blended Learning

One attractive feature of the blended format is that it lets instructional designers and instructors design a course with effective combinations of wide-ranging sets of instructional methods, media, technologies, and settings to meet specific student needs that differ by kind, number, preference, and style. The particular objectives of the discipline and course content can also be addressed (Voos, 2003). Thus, the blended model is not limited to only the blending of face-to-face and online activities.

Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) identify at least three common types of blending in the literature. The first type is a course that blends in-class and online learning activities for a single group of students. In this setting, some proportion of the content (30-79 percent) is delivered online and it “typically uses online discussions” and “typically has some-face-to-face meetings” (Sloan Consortium, 2003). It is assumed that blended learning is used to maximize the strengths of both methods and to diminish their weaknesses (Osguthorpe and Graham, 2003; Reay, 2003).

The second type is the face-to-face course taught by in-class and online instructors. This type of blending helps bring to the class the diverse backgrounds and experiences of instructors. Instructors from different cities and countries or practitioners unable to make regular on-campus class sessions because of work schedules are able to participate via online technology and blending of instructors.

The last type is a blend of online students and face-to-face students who interact with each other and participate in the same class. This is usually done through online discussions, or occasionally through face-to-face meetings, at a specific location and time, among online and face-to-face students. The advantage of this type is that it blends different groups of students so that they can learn from each other and share unique experiences. This type is particularly attractive to professional programs such as public administration because practitioners often offer valuable insights and ideas gained from careers that on-campus, full-time students often do not have.

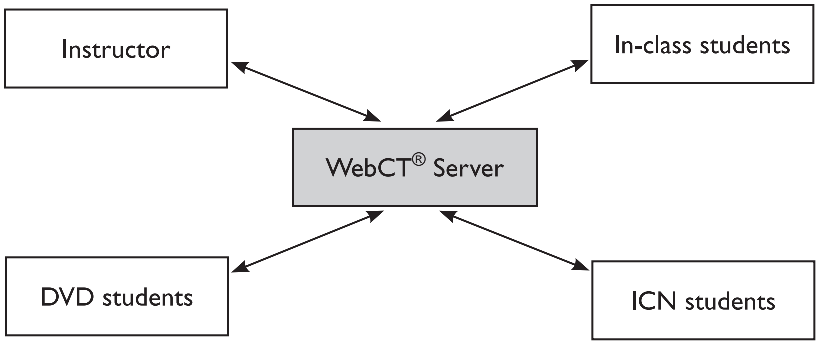
The MPA program at Iowa State has adopted a variation of this last type of BLDE. The Iowa State variation involves blending learning activities (synchronous and asynchronous interactions) with different types of students (classroom and distance education). As presented in Figure 1, three layers of the course are blended together. The typical MPA instructor at Iowa State is teaching simultaneously to three sections of MPA students: one section of students in the classroom, another of students "attending" in the live class session using videoconferencing over the Iowa Communications Network (ICN), and a third section of

Figure 1. Blended Learning Distant Education (BLDE) Model for a Typical Course in the MPA Program at Iowa State University—Two Components

1. "Classroom" component

<table>
<tr><td>Classroom Students</td><td colspan="2">Distance Education Students (DE)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Synchronous learning students (SL)</td><td>Asynchronous learning students (AL)</td></tr>
<tr><td>In-class students</td><td>Iowa Communications Network (ICN) students</td><td>DVD students</td></tr>
</table>

2. Web-based discussion component



students who will receive a DVD recording of the class session within a few days. The in-class students, the ICN students, and the DVD students are all enrolled in the same course (typically offered from 6 to 9 on a weeknight). The in-class and ICN students are synchronous learning students; they take the course during the 6 to 9 p.m. classroom session. The DVD students are asynchronous learning students; they receive a DVD in the mail a few days later and attend the class by watching the classroom session, including the interaction between the professor and the synchronous learning students (in-class and ICN). Both the ICN and DVD students fit the traditional definition of distance education (DE) students, because they do not attend the course by sitting in the same classroom as the professor during the class sessions.

All three sections of students are blended together through lectures by the same instructor. Some of them receive the lectures synchronously, some asynchronously. In addition, they all participate in class discussions between class meetings using the asynchronous discussion board and are responsible for the same class assignments. In the following week, the instructor often excerpts the Web-based discussion results into the class discussion, bringing all sections of students together to ensure a common understanding of the class materials and blending the classroom component with the Web-based component of the course. It should be noted that the DVD students are the only students who enroll in the class as purely asynchronous learning students; the other sections of students use both asynchronous and synchronous learning modalities.

Quality of Blended Learning

Scholars have identified various factors for success in the teaching literature. A very popular and practical framework for evaluating teaching is the "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education" (Chickering and Gamson, 1987), which were later confirmed appropriate for evaluating online course effectiveness (Graham et al., 2001). Three of the seven principles are related to communication/interaction between students and instructors, and among students: encouraging student-faculty contact, understanding high expectations, and promoting collaborative in-depth discussion. These principles can be used to evaluate the blended format of learning; the extent of communicating subjective meaning between instructor and students, and among students, has been considered a significant indicator for quality online distance education (Leavitt and Richman, 1997; Murphy and Drabier, 1998; Poole, 2000; Vogelsang-Coombs, 1999).

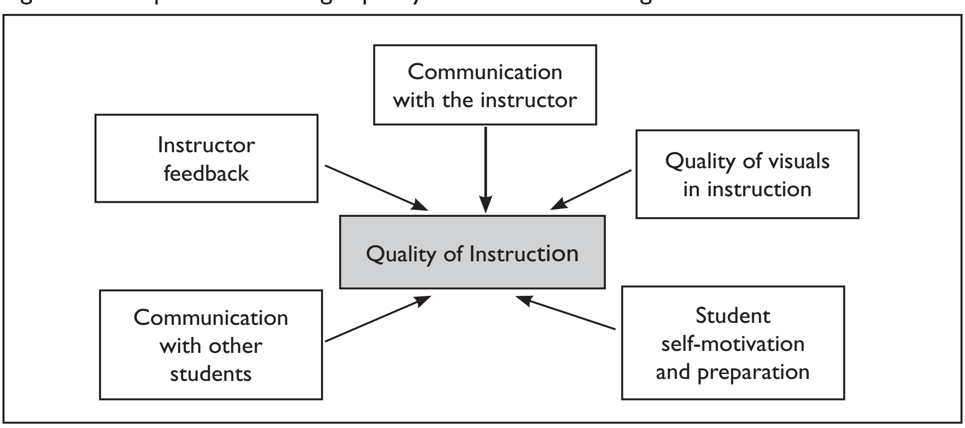
Providing prompt feedback is another effective teaching principle. Studies show that students desire relatively quick feedback in response to their questions and postings (Ebdon, 1999). Instant feedback is also conducive to student learning because it may motivate students to keep up with the readings or discussions (Navarro, 1998). Finally, students' motivation is important. That is why students should be encouraged to take ownership of their learning and be respected for individual ways of learning (Chickering and Gamson, 1987). At the same time, deadlines should be used to motivate and challenge students, even in online courses in which students may have greater flexibility in working at their own pace (Wilson, 1996). Without motivation and self-discipline, students may easily fall behind and eventually lose interest in participating in the class. This is especially important in a blended learning environment, in which different learning modalities and types of students are integrated in the same class.

In addition to the principles above, many researchers have confirmed that the appropriate use of illustrations, graphics, and charts may help readers build useful mental models as well as promote visual thinking (Mayer, 1989), thus helping students learn effectively (Knupfer, 1993; Lockee, Moore, and Moore, 1999; Rakes, 1996). Visual aids, such as computer slides, can often help instructors structure the content flow of a class and help students focus on the critical points of a lecture. However, if these aids are used ineffectively, or should the technologies fail regularly during class session, they can be highly distracting. Hence, the quality and effectiveness of visuals are fundamental factors influencing the quality of instruction.

Evaluation Design and Hypotheses

Based on the literature reviewed above, one can expect that the quality of a blended learning distance education experience is dependent on five main factors: visuals, student communication with the instructor, instructor feedback, communication among students in online discussions, and student self-motivation such as preparation before class. The reluctant professor voicing skepticism about the ability of BLDE to provide comparable quality instruction to both synchronous and asynchronous learning students is presented with the theoretical model shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Components of a High-quality MPA When Blending Students



The reluctant professor may argue that each of the components in the model are important ingredients to all types of students. The professor's skepticism about the quality of BLDE is expressed in the following principal hypothesis:

> H1: that asynchronous learning DVD students will perceive lower satisfaction with the quality of instruction when compared with synchronous learning students who are either in a classroom or participate through the interactive TV.

The professor further hypothesizes:

> H2: that this expected result derives from lower satisfaction with one or more of the five factors in our learning model because asynchronous learning DVD students cannot participate in real-time interaction with the instructor and other students.

To test these hypotheses, we first analyze whether the factors in the model contribute to the overall quality of instruction in the MPA courses involved in the experiment. We then test for differences between DVD students and the other students on each factor. We now discuss each variable in the model in terms of a corollary hypothesis for H2.

The reluctant professor argues that learning is more than just sitting through lectures and copying notes. DVD students are not at a disadvantage if that is only what learning is about. Rather, past studies have shown that students learn more effectively if they interact more closely with the instructor and with their fellow students and engage in discussions about topics that interest them, in order to create an atmosphere of "active learning" (Goodsell and Armstrong, 2001; Palloff and Pratt, 1999). Hence, our model expects that effective communication with the instructor and with their fellow students and getting instructor feedback are positively related to the quality of instruction. This is stated in three specific corollary hypotheses.

We first expect that the quality of instruction is dependent on the quality of student communication with the instructor (Murphy and Drabier, 1998; Vrasidas and McIsaac, 2000). The reluctant professor hypothesis is

> H2a: DVD students will find a lower quality of student communication with the instructor than the other students.

We also expect that the quality of instruction is dependent on the ability of students to get instructor feedback. The reluctant professor hypothesis is:

> H2b: DVD students will find a lower quality of instructor feedback than the other students.

The third aspect of communication in the courses pertains to communication between students. We expect that the quality of instruction is dependent on the degree to which students are allowed in-depth discussions with other students (Murphy and Drabier, 1998; Poole, 2000). The reluctant professor hypothesis is:

> H2c: DVD students will experience a lower quality of in-depth communication with the other students.

The model also expects that students can contribute to the quality of instruction in another important way. If they are highly motivated and put significant effort into preparation before class, students can help the instructor by allowing the professor to focus on more difficult concepts and engage students with more in-depth discussion rather than superficial explanations of concepts during a class session. We thus anticipate that the quality of instruction is dependent on the students' self-motivation, including preparation before a class (Cornell and Martin, 1997). The reluctant professor hypothesis is:

> H2d: DVD students will be less prepared for class than the other students.

As discussed before, we anticipate that visual aids in a class, such as computer slides, can contribute positively to the quality of instruction if they are used effectively (Knupfer, 1993; Lockee, Moore, and Moore, 1999; Rakes, 1996). However, DVD students may receive lower quality of visual aids if they have less reliable computers and Internet connections. The reluctant professor hypothesis is:

> H2e: DVD students will experience a lower quality of visual aids in courses than the other students.

Methodology

To test the reluctant professor's hypotheses about the quality of BLDE, we have two dependent variables. First, students were given a survey about their satisfaction with blended learning at the end of the fall 2003 and spring 2004 terms in the MPA program at Iowa State University. In addition, we measure the difference in the average grade points between the other students and DVD students in the same classes.

Over the course of both semesters, seven courses were offered on campus in Ames and two were offered in a Des Moines classroom. These courses included organizational theory, personnel management, public budgeting, program evaluation and policy analysis, and elective courses in public management, e-government policies, and government-business relationships and regulatory policies. Instructors in these courses used the same technology platform, WebCT®, to deliver online materials, such as lecture outlines, readings, and assignments, and to engage students in online discussion before and after each lecture.

The survey (see Appendix A) was distributed to students at the end of the term to evaluate their learning experiences. All students in the fall term were sent the survey electronically (because of winter weather conditions during evaluation week) and were asked to return the survey to a graduate assistant, who entered the data anonymously for analysis. Of 48 distributed surveys, 25 were returned, for a response rate of 52 percent. In the spring term, surveys were distributed in the classrooms and by email only to asynchronous learning students. The spring response rate was 66 percent, with 30 surveys returned from the 45 students enrolled in the spring courses. The combined sample size for the two terms is 55 MPA students, for an overall response rate of 59 percent.

Findings

Students were asked to rate "the general quality of instruction in the classes" (Appendix A, question 12) from excellent to very poor. Table 1 summarizes the perception of the quality of instruction by two groups of students—those who took the courses asynchronously (DVD students) and those took courses in the synchronous mode (the face-to-face students and students who connected into the classroom using the synchronous video-conferencing program). In general, the majority of both groups of students had a very positive perception of the quality of instruction, and the results of a Wilcoxon test show that the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant.[1]

We also checked whether there were any differences in grades between DVD students and the other students and found none. The mean grade in classroom

Table 1. Perception of General Quality of Instruction, by Type of Student

"The general quality of instruction in the classes is..."						
	Excellent	*Good*	*Just Acceptable*	*Poor*	*Very Poor*	*Total*
DVD students	9 (56.3%)	6 (37.5%)	1 (6.3%)	0	0	16 (100%)
Other students	15 (45.5%)	15 (45.5%)	3 (9.1%)	0	0	33 (100%)
Total	24 (49.0%)	21 (42.9%)	4 (8.2%)			49 (100%)

Wilcoxon 2-Sided Test of Differences not significant. Responses of "don't know" were not included in the analysis.

sections across the nine courses was 3.6 for the other students and 3.6 for the DVD students. The two-sample t-test difference was not significant ($p \leq 0.399$). These dual measures indicate that we can reject the reluctant professor's hypothesis of inferior instructional quality experienced between the other students and DVD students and conclude there is no difference.

Still, there are important differences in course modality, and the reluctant professor hypotheses concerning significant factors that contribute to the quality of education are important challenges to the BLDE model. In particular, we seek to understand whether we can attribute the lack of support for the reluctant professor's hypothesis to the learning and communicative atmosphere and the "blending instrument" of the WebCT® discussion board used in our MPA classes.

A two-step analysis helps us understand why we did not find a significant difference in instructional quality between the other students and DVD students. First, we tested the significance of our theoretical model in Figure 2 for all of the enrolled students. Then we examined whether students in the synchronous setting and in the asynchronous setting perceived these factors differently. All variables are based on responses to question 12 in the survey (Appendix A).

A series of ordered logistic regressions was used for the first step in the analysis (Table 2). In all these models, age and student preparation before class were included as control variables. The results generally conform to our expectations. Three factors—the quality of instructors' communication with students, the quality of instructor feedback and the ability to get questions answered, and the ability to have in-depth discussions—significantly increased the likelihood that students would have a positive perception of the quality of class instruction. The quality of visuals, however, was insignificant, indicating that even though instructional technologies were necessary and helpful tools, students did not think they were critical factors contributing to the quality of instruction.

To our surprise, the variable "communication with other students" was also insignificantly related to the quality of instruction. This perhaps reflects that students did not use the quality of student communication to evaluate the quality of instruction. Alternatively, the in-depth discussion variable may be a better measure of inter-student communication. It is useful to note that there was a positive relationship between getting questions answered and students' communication with each other; Spearman's correlation is 0.62, significant at $p<0.001$. Overall, these results confirm theories in education and distance learning that interaction among students and with the instructor is a critical element of "active learning" and "knowledge generation."

Students' preparation before class was positively related to the quality of instruction, as hypothesized in our earlier discussion, but only marginally significant (in model 6); when we controlled for other variables, it was no longer a significant factor (models 1-5). Age, on the other hand, had a positive effect on the perceived quality of instruction and was consistently significant in all but model 2. That is, older students rated the quality of instruction higher than did younger students in most models. As in most MPA programs, older ISU students tend to be mid-career students.

The next step of the analysis is based on the results in Table 2; we analyze whether DVD students perceived the significant factors differently when compared with the other students. A series of Wilcoxon tests of differences between these students reveal that the two groups did not differ significantly in most of the perceptions. For example, Tables 3 and 4 present the Wilcoxon test of differences between DVD students and the other students on "my communication with the instructor" and "ability to have in-depth conversations on course topics." Differences in both cases are not significant, even at $p<0.10$.

Table 2. Factors Correlated with the Quality of Instruction[1]

	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 4*	*Model 5*	*Model 6*
Communication with the instructor[2]	0.75 (.36)**					
Instructor's feedback/ getting questions answered[3]		0.95 (.42)**				
Ability to have in-depth discussion[2]			1.05 (.40)***			
Communication with other students[2]				0.23 (.33)		
The visual quality in classes[4]					0.86 (.56)	
Student's preparation before each class session[2]	0.25 (0.41)	0.04 (0.45)	0.50 (0.40)	0.58 (0.42)	0.64 (.62)	0.67 (.35)*
Age group	0.62 (.31)**	0.51 (.33)	0.88 (.45)*	0.84 (.37)**	0.90 (.37)**	0.71 (.31)**
Generalized R^2	0.32	0.32	0.48	0.26	0.29	0.23

1. Standard errors are in parentheses. *significant at the 10% level **significant at the 5% level *** significant at the 1% level. Because the dependent variable is an ordinal variable ranging from 1 (excellent) to 3 (just acceptable), there are two intercepts in each regression. However, to save space, the intercept parameters are not reported here.
2. See Appendix A, Question 12 responses, rated as 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = just acceptable, 4= poor, 5 = very poor.
3. Instructor feedback is the average of two ratings in the survey (Appendix A, Question 12): "the responsiveness of the instructor to my questions by email" and "getting my questions answered," rated as 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = just acceptable, 4= poor, 5 = very poor.
4. The visual quality variable is the average of two ratings in the survey: "the usefulness of PowerPoint presentations," and "ability to see presentations (PowerPoint, writing board, etc.) used in class." Both questions were rated as 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = just acceptable, 4= poor, 5 = very poor.

We found similar results for all but one variable in the model (Figure 2 and Table 2). This explains why we failed to support our hypothesis that DVD students had a lower perception of the quality of instruction in classes when compared with the other students.

The exceptional divergence was in the difference in student preparation before class sessions. As seen in Table 5, the DVD students were better prepared before class than their synchronous learning classmates. It should be noted that these were self-reported results in both groups. The Wilcoxon Test of difference is significant at $p<0.001$. As most of the DVD students were mid-career students and the synchronous learners included more traditional full-time students, this may reflect more fundamental differences in the approach that these students took to their MPA degree. We decline to speculate further, but it is heartening to see how seriously the DVD students took their coursework.

Table 3. Perceived Communication with Instructor by Type of Student

"My communication with the instructor"						
	Excellent	*Good*	*Just Acceptable*	*Poor*	*Very Poor*	*Total*
DVD students	10 (62.5%)	3 (18.7%)	2 (12.5%)	0	1 (6.3%)	16 (100%)
Other students	13 (41.9%)	11 (35.5%)	5 (16.1%)	1 (3.2%)	1 (3.2%)	31 (100%)
Total	23 (48.9%)	14 (29.8%)	7 (14.9%)	1 (2.1%)	2 (4.3%)	47 (100%)

Wilcoxon Test of the differences is not significant at the 10% level. Responses of "don't know" were not included in the analysis.

Table 4. Perceived Ability to Discuss Course Topics by Type of Student

"Ability to have in-depth conversations on course topics"						
	Excellent	*Good*	*Just Acceptable*	*Poor*	*Very Poor*	*Total*
DVD students	4 (28.6%)	6 (42.9%)	0	3 (21.4%)	1 (7.1%)	14 (100%)
Other students	9 (31.0%)	11 (37.9%)	8 (27.6%)	0	1 (3.4%)	29 (100%)
Total	13 (30.2%)	17 (39.5%)	8 (18.6%)	3 (7.0%)	2 (4.6%)	43 (100%)

Wilcoxon Test not significant at 10% level. Responses of "don't know" were not included in the analysis.

Finally, we were interested in knowing whether the blended learning technology, such as the WebCT® discussion board, contributed to the communicative and learning atmosphere and thus enhanced the quality of instruction. The results of a correlation analysis between the students' perception of the discussion board and their perceptions of the communication qualities of classes were positive and statistically significant, affirming that Web-based discussion tools, if the instructor uses them effectively, can enhance the quality of teaching (Table 6).

Implications and Conclusions

The evidence from this analysis refutes the hypothesis that asynchronous learning students would experience an inferior quality of instruction compared to synchronous learning students in the same courses, such as those in the traditional classroom setting. Such evidence is good news for MPA students in Iowa

Table 4. Perceived Ability to Discuss Course Topics by Type of Student

"Ability to have in-depth conversations on course topics"						
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DVD students	4 (28.6%)	6 (42.9%)	0	3 (21.4%)	1 (7.1%)	14 (100%)
Other students	9 (31.0%)	11 (37.9%)	8 (27.6%)	0	1 (3.4%)	29 (100%)
Total	13 (30.2%)	17 (39.5%)	8 (18.6%)	3 (7.0%)	2 (4.6%)	43 (100%)

Wilcoxon Test not significant at 10% level. Responses of "don't know" were not included in the analysis.

Table 5. Student Preparedness

"My study preparation before each class session"						
	Excellent	*Good*	*Just Acceptable*	*Poor*	*Very Poor*	*Total*
DVD students	7 (43.6%)	7 (43.8%)	2 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (100%)
Other students	3 (10.3%)	19 (65.5%)	5 (17.2%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (6.9%)	29 (100%)
Total	10 (22.2%)	26 (57.8%)	7 (15.6%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.2%)	45 (100%)

Wilcoxon Test significant at 1% level. Responses of "don't know" were not included in the analysis.

and a relief to the public administration faculty. It should reassure the reluctant professor.

Past studies on distance learning suggest that if instructors just try to replicate the classroom course in a blended course, students might not benefit greatly from the blended format because the advantages of distant education and online learning are missing. Hence, designers and instructors at Iowa State (and other MPA programs that may adopt this approach) must seriously consider the key factors that lead to successful distance learning when designing a blended course. They need to carefully choose from a set of instructional methods and learning scenarios to meet the needs of students and the program. More student interactivity, social presence, and learner control must be included in the program. Full course redesign is sometimes necessary for blended learning because "the emphasis is on pedagogy, not technology" (Aycock, Garnham, and Kaleta, 2002).

The strength of the BLDE model explored here is the premium value placed on communications, including the ability to have in-depth discussions with other students and the instructor. While the DVD option means asynchronous receipt of lectures and in-class discussions, the extensive use of WebCT® discussion boards for distance learning and traditional face-to-face students means that all of the MPA students have a parallel "virtual" class discussion, just as in online-only programs. The advantage of the BLDE model explored here is that the asynchronous learning students "eavesdrop" on the actual classroom discussion experience in addition to the virtual class discussion. These students are the equivalent of the "wallflowers"—those silent students in most classrooms. But these wallflowers have a second forum in which to voice their views and engage the course materials. We believe that this blending takes advantage of both classroom and online learning strengths.

The principal result of the off-campus and distance offerings to the MPA degree program at Iowa State University is increased enrollment because of more convenient availability. To date, this has not resulted in overcrowding of classrooms, because the number of asynchronous learning students—not including

Table 6. Spearman's Correlation Between the Usage of WebCT® and the Communicative Atmosphere in Courses

	My communication with the instructor	My communication with other students	Ability to have in-depth discussion about course topics	Getting my questions answered
Ability to have in-depth discussions on WebCT®	0.45***	0.49***	0.55***	0.43***

*** Significant at the 1% level.

Des Moines classrooms—has remained relatively low. If the demand for asynchronous DVD sections were to significantly increase beyond current teaching capacity, the faculty would need to assess whether to request increased faculty or to devise a rationing system to control the number of distance students.

We believe that periodic surveys of students will test whether there are significant differences in competencies and course satisfaction levels based on whether a student learns through an asynchronous modality such as DVDs or through classrooms in Ames. We are committed to improving the distance education component of our MPA program and equally committed to testing whether the new and improved modalities deliver the quality that our students expect and that we express in our mission statement. For public administration programs outside Iowa, these results suggest that a careful and thoughtful approach to blended learning courses offers many more in-service professionals the opportunity to obtain an MPA and improve their practice of governance.

Note

1. We also tested whether the quality of individual instructors might have influenced students' perceptions of instruction quality. A dummy variable for each course was added into the ordered-logistic regressions shown in Table 2 and tested individually; none except for one course, which was taught by an adjunct faculty member, was statistically significant. For this exception, the addition of the dummy variable did not substantially change the coefficients nor the statistical significance of the results. Therefore, we could conclude that the instruction quality was mostly dependent on the significant factors in Table 2 and was generally not influenced by the quality of individual instructors in the MPA program.

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Acknowledgment

The authors wish to thank research assistant Laura Barclay for all her help on this project. We also appreciate the helpful comments of John Bartle and the anonymous reviewers. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the 2004 NASPAA Annual Conference, Indianapolis, Indiana, October 21-23, 2004.

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APPENDIX A

Student Survey on Blended Learning Distance Education

This survey is to evaluate the effectiveness of the class offering formats in the public administration program. All respondents will remain anonymous. Your response is very important to the future planning of the program. Thank you for your cooperation. If you can't return the survey to the student representative, please turn this in to the main office (Ross Hall 503).

1. In the spring 2004 term, how are you enrolled in classes in the public administration program? Please check all that may apply.

	POLS 572	POLS 574	POLS 534x	POLS 575
In the class in Ames				
In the class in Des Moines				
Enrolled via ICN				
Enrolled via DVD				

2. How do you access WebCT materials in the classes specified above? (Please check all that apply.)
__ Not used for my class(es) __ on-campus __ home
__ office __ public library __ Other: ________________

3. Have you taken any DVD-based classes prior to this fall (2003)?
__ never __ once __ twice __ more than two times

4. What is the usual speed of your Internet connection when you access the WebCT materials for your classes?
__N/A __ <= 56K (modem) __ 57K - 125K (e.g. DSL)
__ 126K - 256K(e.g., ISDN) __T1 (e.g., campus) __ other: __________

5. Have you read the online materials about how to use WebCT? __Yes __ No

6. How often have you followed the class schedule and read the assigned reading materials before a class session?

	POLS 572	POLS 574	POLS 534x	POLS 575
80%-100% of the weeks				
60% - 80% of the weeks				
40% - 60% of the weeks				
< 40%				

7. How often have you waited to read the assigned reading materials until after a class session?

	POLS 572	POLS 574	POLS 534x	POLS 575
80%-100% of the weeks				
60% - 80% of the weeks				
40% - 60% of the weeks				
< 40%				

8. Where are you located? __ Ames __ Des Moines metro area
__Within 1 hour drive to Ames/Des Moines
__Within 1.5 hours of drive to Ames/Des Moines
__Within 2 hours of drive to Ames/Des Moines
__More than 2 hours of drive to Ames/Des Moines

9. What is your age group?
__ < 20 __ 20-29 __ 30-39 __ 40-49 __ 50-59 __ >= 60

10. The following questions concern WebCT discussion messages you have posted each week for a class session. Please write a number for the appropriate class you are taking.

	POLS 572	POLS 574	POLS 534x	POLS 575
How many posts were required each week?				
How many times did you post each week?				

continued on page 96

11. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Note: A "normal class" refers to a face-to-face classroom setting, which includes ICN sessions.)
Key: SA = Strongly agree, A = agree, N = neutral, D = disagree, SD = strongly disagree, DK = don't know

	SA	A	N	D	SD	DK
This DVD-based class requires me to spend a lot of time solving computer problems.						
I need more orientation and training on the usage of DVDs.						
I need more orientation and training on the usage of WebCT.						
I feel more isolated in a DVD learning environment than in a normal class.						
An effective message board discussion requires facilitation by the instructor.						
The DVD format requires more self-discipline than a normal class does.						
A study group is important to enhance the learning effectiveness in a DVD class.						
The DVD-format class requires more preparation before class than a normal class does.						
Flexibility is a major benefit of the DVD format.						
Being able to go over the lectures again and again is a major benefit of the DVD format.						
I am concerned about having a fair assessment of student efforts in a DVD section.						
I am concerned about the university's commitment to quality education if more classes are offered through a DVD format.						
I get less out of this DVD format than what I usually have from a normal class.						
The cost of the DVD format (e.g. buying new equipment, software, or Internet services) outweighs the benefits of the DVD format for me.						
I am willing to take another DVD-format class.						
I want a DVD-only program available in public administration.						

12. Please rate the following, as appropriate. If you don't know, please mark "DK."
If some of the questions do not apply to you because you are not a DVD student, please indicate NA. Key: A = Excellent, B = Good, C = Just acceptable, D = Poor, E = Very Poor, DK = Don't know, NA = Not applicable

	A	B	C	D	E	DK	NA
The general quality of instruction in the class(es).							
The overall effectiveness of my online learning in the class(es).							
Usefulness of PowerPoint presentations.							
The user-friendliness of WebCT.							
The effectiveness of the WebCT discussion board to help my learning.							
The effectiveness of real-time online chat to help my learning.							
The usefulness of the online orientation materials on WebCT.							
My communication with the instructor.							
My communication with other students.							
Ability to hear student conversations in class sessions.							
Ability to see presentations (PowerPoint, writing board, etc.) used in class.							
Ability to have in-depth discussion about course topics.							
Ability to have in-depth discussion on WebCT.							
Getting my questions answered.							
The responsiveness of the instructor to my questions by email.							
Effectiveness of teaching technical concepts (e.g., math, formulas).							
Effectiveness of teaching conceptual understanding (e.g., theories, ideas).							
My study preparation before each class session.							
My study preparation after each class session.							
The effectiveness of the DVD format to help my learning.							
The video quality of lectures in DVDs.							
The audio quality of lectures in DVDs.							
Delivery service of DVDs to your designated place (home or office)							
The amount of technical support from the university.							
Administrative support by ISU (e.g., textbook ordering, registration, etc.)							

13. Please rank the following course modalities, with 1 being the most preferred, 7 being the least preferred.

___ Online streaming video
___ PowerPoint without streaming video
___ CD-ROM
___ ICN
__ VHS
__ DVD
__ Regular class (not ICN)

14. If a class is offered with a DVD format section, how often should students have on-site, face-to-face interaction in a classroom setting?
___ never ___once every two months ___once a month
___ every two weeks ___other: ___________

15. If this were NOT a course with a DVD section, would you have taken this course?

1	2	3	4	5
Definitely NO		Neutral		Definitely YES

16. How much are you willing to pay to enroll in a DVD-format class section compared to the normal tuition?
Pay $ ______ more than the normal tuition ______Pay the same
Pay $ ______ less than the normal tuition

17. What is your occupation?
___full-time student ___self-employed ___state employee
___city employee ___county employee ___school employee
___nonprofit organization employee ___private organization employee
___other

18. I am: _____an MPA student
_____ an undergraduate student
_____ a graduate student in another degree program.

19. Please provide any additional comments or concerns regarding classes offered in DVD format on the back.

Thank you for taking time to complete this survey.
It will help us improve the MPA degree program.

GAZETTE

People in Public Affairs

American University

Robert Tobias has been named director of the Public Sector Executive Education at American University's School of Public Affairs (SPA). Tobias will be responsible for public sector programs, which includes the Key Executive MPA for senior government employees and other executive education programs.

"Bob Tobias brings a unique knowledge of government leadership from his work both as a skilled practitioner and as a scholar," said William M. LeoGrande, dean of AU's School of Public Affairs. "His expertise and ability to teach and inspire excellence is a great match for Key, the leading program of its kind, and the School's other public sector endeavors."

A distinguished practitioner in residence at AU, Tobias was nominated by President Clinton and confirmed by the Senate as a member of the IRS Oversight Board.

Professor and Chair **Richard Bennett** was recently awarded a five-year grant to provide anti-terrorism training to high-level foreign delegations through the U.S. State Department.

The work of two SPA professors was sited in three cases argued before the U.S. Supreme Court this year. *A Comparative Analysis of Capital Punishment: Statues, Policies, Frequencies, and Public Attitudes the World Over* (2002), a book by SPA and Washington College of Law professor **Rita Simon** was cited in *Roper v. Simmons* 543U.S. (2005). **Religion and Politics in the Early Republic**, a book by JLS professor Daniel Dreisbach, was cited in two recent cases concerning public displays of the Ten Commandments: *Van Orden v. Perry* and *McCreary County v. ACLU*. **Dean William M. LeoGrande** testified before the House Armed Services Committee on threats to U.S. security in Latin America. **Karen O'Connor**, director of the Women and Politics Institute, testified before the U.S. Senate Judiciary Committee's Subcommittee on the Constitution, Civil Rights, and Property Rights in a hearing on the consequences of *Roe v. Wade* and *Doe v. Bolton*. **Beryl Radin**, scholar in residence at SPA, testified before the Senate Homeland Security and Government Affairs committee on federal budget accountability.

Professor **Robert Durant** was a participant at the Hofstra University conference "William Jefferson Clinton The 'New Democrat' From Hope." Durant's panel, "Redefining Liberalism," included former presidential adviser David Gergen; Clinton also participated in the November conference. To read more, visit www.hofstra.edu/CampusL/Culture/Culture_Clinton.cfm.

Baruch College School of Public Affairs

David S. Birdsell has been appointed interim dean of the School of Public Affairs at Baruch College. Birdsell (Ph.D., University of Maryland), whose field of expertise is political argumentation, replaces Stan Altman, who served as dean for the past five years.

Gregg VanRyzin was the lead author of "Drivers and Consequences of Citizen Satisfaction: An Application of the American Customer Satisfaction Index Model to New York City," (*Public Administration Review*, 64:3), which received the 2004 Louis Brownlow Award for best PAR article involving a practitioner.

Lizabeth Gewirtzman, distinguished lecturer in conjunction with New Visions for Public Schools, recently received a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to implement an apprenticeship model of school leadership training in which cohorts from selected schools are partially released from their responsibilities in order to learn and practice the skills required for effective leadership. The program's goals are to strengthen current leadership capacity within participating schools and to develop a viable succession pipeline for staff. The first cohort began the program in January 2006.

University of Connecticut

Andrea Hetling has joined the MPA faculty at the University of Connecticut. Hetling was awarded her Ph.D. in policy studies from the University of Maryland's School of Public Policy. She won the 2003 NASPAA Annual Dissertation Award for her dissertation titled "Has the Family Violence Option Benefited Abused Women?" Hetling's research interests include social policy and policy implementation and she has published several articles in these areas.

George Mason University

Paul Posner has become the new director of the MPA program at George Mason University. Posner was formerly managing director of the U.S. Government Accountability Office and an adjunct with many public administration programs in the Washington area.

University of Georgia

For the second year in a row, one of the Ph.D. graduates of the Department of Public Administration and Policy (School of Public and International Affairs) at the University of Georgia has garnered three awards for a dissertation completed there. **Sergio Fernandez**'s winning dissertation, "Explaining Contracting Effectiveness: An Empirical Analysis of Contracting for Services among Local Governments," was awarded the 2005 NASPAA Dissertation Award, the American Political Science Association's Leonard D. White Award for best dissertation in public administration, and the 2005 best dissertation award from the Public and Nonprofit Section of the Academy of Management.

Fernandez is now on the faculty of the School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University. As was also the case last year, with 2004's award-winning dissertation research by University of Georgia alumnus Young Han Chun, this year's study was completed under the supervision of Professor Hal G. Rainey.

Keely Jones has joined the faculty of the University of Georgia's Department of Public Administration and Policy. Jones completed her Ph.D. in sociology at the University of Notre Dame with a specialization in nonprofit studies. She is contributing to the department's curriculum in the administration of nonprofit organizations and has enhanced the department's interdisciplinary character. The Department of Public Administration and Policy is now home to scholars with advanced degrees in economics, law, political science, public administration, public policy, and sociology.

Sung Min Park was awarded the Sage Publications Best Doctoral Conference Paper Award from the Public and Nonprofit Division at the annual conference of the Academy of Management in Honolulu, Hawaii, in August. His paper is titled "The Leadership and Motivations Effects in Public Agencies: The Empirical Research of Federal Employees' Perceptions, Values, and Attitudes." Park is a second-year doctoral student and is originally from Seoul, South Korea. His research focuses on public organizational behavior and public personnel management.

Hal G. Rainey has been selected as the 2005 recipient of the University of Georgia's School of Public and International Affairs (SPIA) Award for Excellence in Teaching. Rainey, a scholar of public management, teaches graduate courses in leadership as well as organizational theory and behavior. He also serves as major professor for several Ph.D. candidates.

Professor **Laurence J. O'Toole, Jr.**, was selected to receive the 2005 Dwight Waldo Award from the American Society for Public Administration. The Dwight Waldo Award recognizes outstanding contributions to the professional literature of public administration over an extended career. O'Toole's contributions include work on administrative theory, intergovernmental and interorganizational policy implementation, public management and performance, and environmental policy and management. Waldo, incidentally, was O'Toole's major professor.

University of Massachusetts Amherst
Center for Public Policy and Administration

In September 2005, **Jane E. Fountain** joined the U-Mass Amherst faculty in the Center of Public Policy and Administration and the department of political science. Fountain is leading the Science, Technology, and Society Initiative and is continuing her work as director of the NSF-funded National Center for Digital Government. Professor Fountain's research is focused on the intersection of institutions, global information, and communication technologies and governance. She is the author of *Building the Virtual State: Information Technology and Institutional Change*.

Northern Kentucky University

Gary Mattson has resigned as director of the MPA program at Northern Kentucky University to return to full-time teaching and is completing a book. He will be replaced by **Shamimia Ahmed**, associate professor of public administration for the spring and summer as an interim director.

New York University

The Wagner School at NYU has made four new faculty appointments. **Jason Furman**, a nonresident Senior Fellow at the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities specializing in social security issues, is teaching public economics and finance at NYU Wagner. Furman served as director of economic policy for the Kerry-Edwards campaign, special assistant to the President for economic policy in the Clinton administration, staff economist at the Council of Economic Advisers, and senior economic adviser to the chief economist of the World Bank. Furman received his Ph.D. in economics from Harvard University and has been a visiting lecturer at Columbia and Yale Universities.

Rema Hanna, assistant professor of public policy and economics (Ph.D., MIT), is teaching statistical methods for public, nonprofit, and health management at NYU Wagner. Her recent work includes a study quantifying the foreign direct investment effects of U.S. environmental regulation and experiments in India on the effects of such wide-ranging subjects as education policy, corruption, and indoor air pollution.

In fall 2006, **Natasha Iskander** will join the Wagner School to teach the core public policy course and to develop courses on the production and transfer of knowledge in international development, labor and migration, and infrastructure policy. Iskander (Ph.D., MIT) is currently completing a post-doctoral position at NYU's International Center for Advanced studies and is exploring the collaborative processes of learning through which Morocco and Mexico designed policy tools to link emigration with economic development in the emigrants' regions of origin.

Robert M. Shrum is teaching policy formation and policy analysis at NYU Wagner. Shrum was senior advisor to the Kerry-Edwards campaign in 2004 and also served as an advisor to the Gore 2000 presidential campaign, the campaign of Prime Minister Ehud Barak of Israel, and the British Labour Party in the 2001 Parliamentary campaign. He is a graduate of Harvard Law School and has taught at Yale University and Boston College.

Jan Blustein, associate professor of health policy at NYU Wagner and associate professor of medicine at NYU Medical School, was recently appointed coeditor of the *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management.*

Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

James L. Perry, the Chancellor's Professor in the School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, recently gave the Monroe-Paine Distinguished Lecture at the University of Missouri-Columbia. Perry's speech was titled "Democracy and the New Public Service."

Southern Illinois University

In August 2005, **John A. Hamman** (Ph.D., University of Illinois) became the director of the MPA Program in the Department of Political Science at Southern Illinois University. Hamman teaches courses in organization theory, analysis, and program evaluation in the MPA program as well as various courses on the American states, political parties, and the presidency. Hamman has also been selected to receive a 2006 Outstanding Graduate Alumni Award from Eastern Illinois University as part of its commemoration of 50 years of graduate education at Eastern.

Debra H. Moore has joined the faculty of the master of public administration program. Moore formerly served as executive director of the Institute for Urban Research at Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville, IL. Her research focuses on urban politics and state and local governments, and she teaches public administration, human resource management, and courses in American politics.

University of Texas at Arlington

An initiative spearheaded by **Trish Nickel** of University of Texas at Arlington and **Larry D. Terry II** of the University of Texas at Dallas has encouraged discussion on field of public service education. Both institutions generously funded a conference held in Texas in December 2005. The conceptual basis of the conference was to bring together Ph.D. students interested in public administration, broadly defined. The conference's main goals were to establish a community of developing scholars with varying perspectives and to create a safe space in which students could discuss the state of the field with relative ease and regularity; the meeting also emphasized the need to foster a productive relationship between past, present, and future public administration scholars. Nickel and Terry intend to facilitate an ongoing discussion among recent and upcoming Ph.D. students. For more information, go to http://www3.uta.edu/iampa/index.asp.

UCLA

Barbara J. Nelson, dean of the UCLA School of Public Affairs, was recently elected as a member of the Board of Trustees of the United Way of Greater Los Angeles, the largest United Way Chapter in the United States. Nelson will also be a member of the Steering Committee of the Women Leaders Forum of the United Way. Her term as a member of the Board of Trustees runs through 2010.

"I like the idea and practice of reaching out to people I don't know, whose needs are great, and who are my neighbors," Nelson said. "Creating a mutually caring Los Angeles and improving the life chances for everyone are responsibilities for all of us."

For the eighth time in the past eight years, a UCLA Urban Planning student has won an award for the best transportation policy and planning master's project, thesis, or dissertation from the Council of University Transportation Centers (CUTC). This year, **Paul A. Sorensen**, now an associate operations researcher with the RAND Corporation in Santa Monica, won the Parker Award for Outstanding Non-thesis Master's Degree Paper in Policy and Planning. Sorensen's paper was a study of the recent rise in electronic road use metering around the world. The study was conducted for the Transportation Research Board of the National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine.

Virginia Tech

Philip Kronenberg will retire from the Center for Public Administration and Policy in June. **Anne Khademian** became a full-time member of the faculty after a year as a visiting professor. **Angela Eikenberry** and **Max Stephenson** joined the faculty in fall 2005, and **Bill Murray** joined in winter 2006. **Patrick Roberts** is slated to arrive in fall of 2006 after a year at Stanford on a special research project. Emeriti **Charles Goodsell, John Dickey, Gary Wamsley**, and **Orion White** stay active in the graduate program as mentors and researchers. **John Rohr** was a co-winner of the 2005 APSA Herbert A. Simon Best Book Award for *Civil Servants and Their Constitutions.*

Western Carolina University

Gibbs Knotts has left the MPA director position to become associate dean of the graduate school. **Chris Cooper** is the new MPA director.

News, Programs, and Opportunities

Arizona State University School of Public Affairs

The School of Public Affairs at Arizona State University, in cooperation with the Arizona City/County Management Association, is pleased to announce the opening of the Marvin Andrews Graduate Program in Urban Management in fall 2006. The program, which will lead to the master of public administration degree, will admit up to six students each year, based on a search process designed to identify the country's most talented students aspiring to executive levels in local government. The Andrews Fellows will serve in half-time internships in various city governments in the Phoenix metropolitan area while taking courses at ASU. Each of the students will also be assigned a top local government official from the state as a personal mentor during the program and beyond. As part of their coursework, and in addition to their internships, the Andrews Fellows will also engage in course-related, real-world projects in urban management and urban policy in cooperation with other local governments in Arizona and the Southwest.

Andrews Fellows will receive compensation for their internships at a level comparable to other research or teaching assistantships at Arizona State University. In addition, each fellow will receive a small scholarship each year to support fees and books. Andrews Fellows will also be eligible to apply for tuition waivers offered by ASU's Division of Graduate Studies.

In addition to courses offered by faculty in the ASU School of Public Affairs, many of the urban management courses in the Andrews program will be offered by faculty associates with considerable experience in local government. Among those practitioners who have recently served in this capacity are **Richard Bowers**, former city manager of Scottsdale; **Frank Fairbanks**, city manager of Phoenix; **Lloyd Harrell**, former city manager of Chandler; and **Martin Vanacour**, former city manager of Glendale. **James H. Svara** and **Marty Vanacour** of the ASU faculty will direct the program.

The Marvin Andrews Graduate Program in Public Administration was named in honor of **Marvin A. Andrews**, who served for 13 years as city manager of Phoenix.

New Executive Format Graduate Certificate in Research Administration Established at Levin College

Through the efforts of Professor **Vera Vogelsang-Coombs** and College Budget Manager **Rene Hearns**, the Maxine Goodman Levin College of Urban Affairs at Cleveland State University has created a new graduate certificate in research administration. This is a collaboration with the Society of Research Administrators International (SRA), a nonprofit association dedicated to the education and professional development of research administrators and the enhancement of public understanding of the importance of research and its administration. This effort will combine the expertise of faculty from the Levin College with that of research administration professionals affiliated with the SRA and distinguished experts from leading research institutions.

The graduate certificate program in research administration is designed to help practitioners address the challenges and opportunities facing research administrators, such as changing mandates, ethical dilemmas, international issues, and budgeting priorities. This multidisciplinary program will also assist experienced administrators from higher education, healthcare, government, business, and the nonprofit sector.

The Levin College will administer the program, which will be run in an executive format; each student will perform coursework via WebCT along with an intensive nine-day session at Cleveland State University.

The SRA has over 3,000 members around the world and is a leading international organization for research administrators in all settings, on all levels, and in all fields.

Faculty for the Graduate Certificate in Research Administration include **Vera Vogelsang-Coombs, Mark Rosentraub** (dean), **Sylvester Murray, Jennifer Alexander, Larry Keller, Nancy Meyer-Emerick**, Levin College Budget Manager **Rene Hearns**, as well as **Samuel Richmond** from the department of philosophy, **Mark A. Tumeo**, dean of the College of Graduate Studies, **Chenchu Bathala** of the department of finance, and **Kathryn Watkins-Wendell** from the Office of Sponsored Programs and Research. For more information, see http://urban.csuohio.edu/academics/certificates/ra-cert/.

University of Massachusetts–Amherst

The Center for Public Policy and Administration and the Department of Food Science at the University of Massachusetts–Amherst have initiated a program to produce top-quality graduate students in Food Science Policy. This academic concentration in the master's program in public policy and administration is a result of a new emphasis in Food Science Policy at the University of Massachusetts–Amherst, motivated by the need to train scientists who can also be effective in the policymaking world. The Food Science Policy program will educate and train highly skilled scientists for careers in food science policy by giving them a strong foundation in public policy and administration. The program's focus involves domestic and international food science policy and regulation.

Faculty involved in this new graduate concentration in Food Science Policy include **Fergus Clydesdale**, distinguished professor and head of the Department of Food Science; **Kalidas Shetty**, professor, Food Science and NAS Jefferson Fellow; **John Hird**, political science professor and director of the Center for Public Policy and Administration (CPPA); **Julie Caswell**, professor in the Department of Resource Economics; **John Lupien**, former director of nutrition and quality with the FAO/WHO; and **Christine Taylor** of the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (currently on loan to the World Health Organization in Geneva) as an adjunct faculty member. In addition, the program will rely on contributions from representatives from government, consumer groups, foundations, and industry.

The Department of Food Science is dedicated to the education of undergraduate, graduate, and nontraditional students in the field of food science and the study and application of science and technology to further basic knowledge, add value, foster economic development, and provide a safe, healthful, and high-quality food supply. The CPPA is a nonpartisan interdisciplinary research center at the University of Massachusetts–Amherst committed to improving public policy, management, and governance by conducting and applying research and educating leaders for public service. CPPA engages in scholarly and applied research affecting regional, national, and global challenges and facilitates ongoing exchange among policymakers, scholars, and citizens while offering innovative teaching and applied learning opportunities to students. CPPA also houses the Science, Technology, and Society initiative of the College of Social and Behavioral Sciences, which will collaborate in this and other related efforts bridging the worlds of science and policymaking.

NASPAA Members Elected as NAPA Fellows

Several faculty affiliated with NASPAA member schools were recently elected to the prestigious post of Fellow at the National Academy of Public Administration:

- Jo Ivey Boufford, Professor of Public Service, Health Policy and Management, Robert F. Wagner Graduate School of Public Service, New York University
- John M. Bryson, Professor and Associate Dean for Research and Centers Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, University of Minnesota
- Philip G. Joyce, Professor of Public Policy and Public Administration George Washington University
- Patricia E. Healy, Acting Chief Financial Officer and Deputy Chief Financial Officer, United States Department of Agriculture
- Edward T. Jennings, Director and Professor, Martin School of Public Policy and Administration, University of Kentucky
- H. Brinton Milward, McClelland Professor of Public Management, Eller College of Management, University of Arizona
- B. J. Reed, Dean and Professor of Public Administration, College of Public Affairs and Community Service, University of Nebraska at Omaha
- Norma M. Riccucci, Professor of Public Administration, Graduate Department of Public Administration, Rutgers University at Newark
- Marilyn M. Rubin, Professor of Public Admin and Economics, Director of MPA Programs, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, City University of New York
- Blue Wooldridge, Associate Professor, Virginia Commonwealth University

NYU Lands 10 Million Dollar Grant for Social Entrepreneurship

NYU has begun recruitment for its Catherine B. Reynolds Foundation Program in Social Entrepreneurship. NYU defines social entrepreneurship as "pattern-breaking change to address intractable social problems in ways that are sustainable and scalable." The $10 million program, funded by the Catherine B. Reynolds Foundation, will attract, train, and encourage the next generation of social entrepreneurs and make NYU an internationally recognized leader in social entrepreneurial research and scholarship. The program will be housed at NYU Wagner and will provide scholarships to 10 rising juniors and fellowships to 20 full-time graduate students, from across all of the university's 14 schools, each year.

University of Tennessee Builds New Public Policy Center

Ground was broken in fall 2005 on the new Howard H. Baker, Jr., Center for Public Policy at the University of Tennessee. Howard Baker, R-Tenn. served as Senate majority leader from 1981 to 1985 before leaving the post to become the White House chief of staff for President Reagan. In 2001, President Bush appointed Baker U.S. ambassador to Japan.

Baker is well known for his work on the Panama Canal Treaty and as vice chairman of the Watergate hearings. Attendees at the event included Vice President Dick Cheney, Tennessee Gov. Phil Bredesen, U.S. Senator Lamar Alexander (R-Tenn.), and U.S. Congressmen John Duncan (R-Tenn.), Zach Wamp (R-Tenn.), and Daniel Lipinski (D-Ill).

At the groundbreaking ceremony, Senator Baker expressed gratitude for the guests attending and to "the people of Tennessee for allowing me to serve."

The new $15 million, 53,000-square foot Baker Center will be constructed on the corner of Cumberland Avenue and Melrose Place. The Baker Center has been active on campus since 2003 and has hosted many prominent speakers in more than 40 events, including former Vice President Al Gore last spring.

State Department Foreign Service Exam Date Set

Foreign Service Officers working for the U.S. Department of State in one of 265 U.S. embassies and consulates around the world experience new cultures while helping to transform societies into stronger democracies and full partners in the international community.

The Foreign Service written exam is free and will be offered worldwide on April 8, 2006. For more information or to register to take the exam, go to www.careers.state.gov. The deadline to register for domestic test sites is March 8; for test sites outside the United States, March 1.

The Congressional Black Caucus Seeks Fellows for Unique Public Service Program

The Congressional Fellows program is designed around three components: public policy training, educational enrichment, and leadership development. The centerpiece of the public policy training component is a nine-month congressional office placement. During the office placement, Fellows gain invaluable experience as they assist in the development of legislative and public policy initiatives while working as congressional staff members. Fellows work 40 hours per week on a range of staff assignments, including analyzing legislation, responding to constituent mail, drafting legislation, and coordinating logistics and public testimony for congressional hearings. Additionally, Fellows are required to write a public policy research paper, a legislative briefing paper, and an op-ed article on a matter of interest to themselves and the Member for whom they work.

Participants in the Congressional Fellows Program must reside in or relocate to the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area. Fellows receive health and dental insurance and a stipend totaling $25,000 for the nine-month fellowship period; the stipend is comparable to the salary of most first-year congressional staff.

The application deadline is April 3, 2006. All applications must be mailed to The Congressional Fellows Program, Congressional Black Caucus Foundation, 1720 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20036, and must be postmarked on or before April 3. All applications postmarked after April 3, 2006, will not be considered.

Applications for this program cannot be submitted online. Please download the Congressional Fellows Program Application at www.cbcfinc.org.

Books and Publications

Vital Signs: Perspectives on the Health of American Campaigning
Candice Nelson and David Dulio; foreword by James A. Thurber
Brookings Institution Press, 2005
American University professor and department chair Nelson and Dulio, assistant professor of political science at Oakland University, examine the 2004 Bush and Kerry campaigns as a means of exploring the strengths and weaknesses of the U.S. campaign system. The book addresses four key issues: Who's in charge of modern campaigns? How effective are the key players? What role does money play? Are campaigns being conducted in an ethical manner?

Illicit Drug Policies, Trafficking, and Use the World Over
by Rita Simon (with Caterina Gouvis Roman and Heather Ahn-Redding)
Lexington Books, 2005
Washington College of Law professor Simon and colleagues provide a history and analysis of laws and policies on illicit drugs.

"Hannah Arendt's Critical Realism: Power, Justice, and Responsibility"
by Douglas Klusmeyer, in *Hannah Arendt and International Relations: Readings Across the Lines,* John Williams and Anthony F. Lang, eds.
Palgrave MacMillan, 2005
This new book examines the life and work of the political theorist and philosopher as it relates to contemporary international relations.

Call for Nominations for the 2006 UN Public Service Awards

The Division for Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM) of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs invites nominations for the 2006 United Nations Public Service Awards.

Awards will be given in the following three categories: improving transparency, accountability, and responsiveness in the public service; improving the delivery of services; and application of information and communication technology (ICT) in government: e-government. For more information, see http://www.unpan.org/dpepa_PSaward2006.as.

World Ethics Forum

The World Ethics Forum, sponsored by Sun Life Financial and presented by the Saint Paul University Ethics Centre in Ottawa, is being organized by an international group of scholars and practitioners of public ethics. For more information, contact the Ottawa 2006 World Ethics Forum (Forum mondial en éthique), Saint Paul University Ethics Centre, 223 Main Street, Ottawa, Ontario, K1S 1C4, phone: 613-236-1393, ext. 2361; fax: 613-782-3001, email: fmeottawa2006wef@ustpaul.ca; www.ustpaul.ca/fmeottawa2006wef.

World Bank Conference on Inequality

The World Bank has issued a call for papers on the following topic: "The distributions of income, wealth, and political power are jointly determined, with economic status both affecting and being affected by political influence. In addition, the impact of inequality on the nature of institutions and on policy choice is one of the key channels through which income and wealth distributions affect economic performance."

The III World Bank Conference on Inequality will focus on the interaction between economic and political inequalities and on their consequences for institutional and economic development. Theoretical and empirical papers on any aspect of this subject are invited for consideration by the program committee. The conference will take place on June 5-6, 2006, in Washington, D.C. It will be a plenary-only gathering, with space for up to 18 papers and 30 minutes allocated to each paper. Accommodation and travel costs (economy) will be covered by the organizers. The organizing committee includes Louise Cord, Francisco Ferreira, and Branko Milanovic. Full papers must be submitted by March 15, 2006. Please send an electronic version to bmilanovic@worldbank.org. Decisions will be sent out by April 15.

In Memoriam: Robert Paul Boynton

Robert Paul Boynton, professor of public administration at American University, passed away on November 4, 2005. Bob, as he was known to everyone, came to American in 1969. He will long be remembered at AU as a teacher, as a curriculum builder, and as a mentor, especially to foreign students, in whom he took a special interest. His office door was open, open to all comers, faculty, and students alike. However, it was students from other countries, often lost in the American system of higher education, who received his special attention.

Bob Boynton came to American with a Ph.D. in political science from the University of Michigan, to direct the public administration program in what was then the School of Government and Public Administration. A thinker and a philosopher of education, he quickly proved as well to be a program organizer, an innovator, and a supporter of strong practitioner-academic relationships. He took the lead—along with the dean of the school, Earl deLong—in organizing a movement to incorporate the latest scholarship and the latest practice in the graduate public administration curriculum.

Bob was so successful in his work in public administration that he came to the attention of the university president and the provost a short time after his appointment to the faculty. He was named the university's graduate dean, an office he quickly determined did not need to continue to exist. In a strong move toward the decentralization of academic decision-making, he secured the abolition of the graduate deanship and the devolution of its duties and responsibilities to the university's schools and colleges. During this period, Bob also served as a *de facto* assistant vice-president for academic affairs, consulting with the vice president and the provost on faculty personnel matters, academic budget, and academic planning and development.

Bob's research was published in the *Journal of Politics,* the *Public Administration Review, Public Management,* and the *Bureaucrat.* In addition, over the years, he served as a consultant through the United Nations, the World Bank, and the United States Agency for International Development, to the governments of Indonesia, Yemen, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Oman, Ukraine, Russia, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. He also served as a consultant to a number of federal and local government agencies in the United States.

Active in NASPAA, Bob was past national president of Pi Alpha Alpha, the national honor society for public affairs and administration. He also was an advisor for many years to the American University chapter of Pi Alpha Alpha, during which he provided inspiration to many School of Public Affairs' top students.

Bob Boynton retired in 1994, but he continued to participate fully in the life of the department of public administration at American University. He taught courses in international and comparative administration, his area of specialization, as a professor emeritus. He also developed a new specialization and taught new courses in nonprofit management. His contributions to AU were capped in the fall of 2005 when his sense of duty and responsibility led him to agree to chair the public administration department once again.

Students and colleagues alike will miss Bob's professionalism, his interest in and concern for others, and his ever-present smile. He will be honored by the establishment of the Robert P. Boynton Award for the American University School of Public Affairs graduate students working in his fields of research. Contributions to the award fund are welcome. —*David H. Rosenbloom*

Interviews and Essays

Interviews and Essays, a newly created section of the *JPAE* Gazette, will highlight shorter length pieces, essays, profiles, and Q&As. The focus on these new papers, essays, and opinions all relate in some way to public service, people serving in the field, or to NASPAA' schools or professional education. If you have a possible contribution or idea for this section, please email your idea or text to Scott Talan, director of communications, at talan@naspaa.org.

Q&A: NASPAA President Dan Mazmanian
an interview by Scott Talan

What is biggest challenge facing public affairs education today?
Uncertainty! Uncertainty about the nature and role of the public sector in the 21st century as we rapidly move toward more networked forms of public-private-notforprofit organizations performing public services. Uncertainty about the skill sets needed by government and in the public sector leaders, from overseeing outsourcing and contract management, administration and management through information technology and digital communications, to cultivating authentic citizen and constituency engagement.

How would you categorize the NASPAA ship of state?
Throughout the past century, we developed exemplary models of professional education and produced generations of dedicated public leaders, and helped set the kinds of high standards emulated today by many, many other societies. However, the uncertainties of the future, noted above, will require us to rethink and reposition ourselves.

Where do you want to lead NASPAA while you are president?
This is an important moment in the life of NASPAA. We are on the brink of initiating our 10-year review of MPA and MPP degree standards for accreditation, which the association will undertake next year. So now, before we get caught

up in the detailed process of prescribing specific skills and curricula, we need to stand back and take a more reflective view of ourselves and where we should be heading, to think more boldly and strategically, about our future. In fact, we are doing this at the level of the executive council, and strategic planning will be at the heart of our annual NASPAA meeting this coming fall. If I can help guide us through this process, this will be my single most important contribution to the association, our profession, and society.

Why should a younger professional or student enter the field in your view?

To serve others, particularly those in need, is the noblest of callings. Doing so through working for the common good and providing just, equitable, and needed public services is at the heart of all successful civilizations. There is no question that societies of the 21st century will require more not less provision of these services, though in ways we can barely imagine today. This is a time for creativity and innovation in governance and public sector service, and this should inspire and attract the very best of our youth.

> "To serve others, particularly those in need, is the noblest of callings. Doing so through working for the common good and providing just, equitable, and needed public services is at the heart of all successful civilizations."
>
> —*Dan Mazmanian*

How important is the international arena and foreign students to NASPAA and public affairs education in general?

It has become a truism today that the world is flat. The globalization of economic production, the rapidity of communications and information flows, the fluidity of travel, have rendered the geographic nation-state boundaries erected throughout the past two to three centuries weak at best. This makes it challenging to address many growing problems such as population growth and migration, global commerce, pollution and resource depletion, and the potentially destructive power of terrorism. Only through the combination of global governing accords, international cooperation, and learning to understand, appreciate, and tolerate differences around the world can peace and harmony prevail in the 21st century and beyond. Developing the skills and leadership talents among our domestic and international students to manage these processes is central to the success of our mission as educators and citizens of the world. ■

Did Graduate School Prepare Me for a Career in the Foreign Service?

by Mark Rincón, FSO

When I was a graduate student, I would periodically ask myself whether I was in the right program and whether the curriculum would actually help prepare me for working "in the real world." After all, my first "core" course at the LBJ School of Public Affairs was in quantitative analysis, and it seemed based very heavily on calculus and statistics. I was on my way to becoming a diplomat in the U.S. Foreign Service, and, at the time, I thought it highly unlikely that I would ever use statistical forecasting or econometrics to formulate policy.

Yet, several years and foreign postings later, I now chuckle at how naïve I was, and realize that I have been able to apply the experiences and skills learned in graduate school to my assignments. Foreign Service Officers are supposed to be "skilled generalists." Namely, that means that in this job having a broad knowledge of various skills is a tremendous advantage.

> "...people who have an MPA/MPP degree pass the Foreign Service Written Exam at about a 50 percent higher rate than other test takers, including those with only an undergraduate degree."
>
> —*Mark Rincón*

Despite the different names for seemingly similar graduate programs: public affairs, public policy, public administration, public management, and more, all are based in a standard set of "core" classes designed to expose students to cross-cutting policy issues and develop relevant skills. In my case, I had a limited background in public service, so I benefited from a program that reinforced formal coursework in theory with opportunities for practical application. A required internship provided direct contact with the operating realities of working in a government agency and the relationship with nonprofits and advocacy organizations. I served mine at the U.S. Department of State in Washington, D.C., which also opened a door for a future assignment at the U.S. Consulate in Strasbourg, France.

True, graduate studies in a public policy program certainly allow a student to specialize in a certain aspect of policy making. In my case, I focused on the formulation of U.S. foreign policy and its role in international affairs. But what about being a skilled generalist? I quickly learned that while it is very important to be able to draw on historical lessons to understand trends in globalization or explore rationales for international conflict and cooperation, it is equally important to work within changing constraints to manage a budget, understand revenue and tax administration, or accurately forecast patterns of economic development.

One of the strong aspects of the LBJ School is the opportunity for students to participate in a "policy research project," which is a unique course devoted to organized group research on a policy issue of concern to a public sector client. As a client and product-oriented project, the exercise serves as an instrument for both learning and public service. I learned the importance of working on a team—students work closely with professors on all aspects of the project, from designing a research methodology to drafting the final product. The project in which we worked combined two of my interests: intergovernmental relations and U.S. foreign policy in Latin America. We also had to deal with the realities of working under pressure, dealing with slow bureaucracies, and communicating effectively, both orally and in writing, with nonacademic practitioners: all indispensable tools for working in the public sector.

Though I am now a "Political Officer" in the Foreign Service, specializing mainly in analyzing and reporting on the political developments in my host country, the Foreign Service has allowed me to serve as an economic analyst, as an "expert" in applying immigration laws, as a media spokesperson, and as a program manager. In each case, I have been able to apply quantitative and qualitative tools I learned in graduate school. For example, as a "Consular Officer" I have had to do a cost benefit analysis on our internal visa operations to advise how best to allocate our resources when the workload is high. Likewise, as a "Public Diplomacy Officer" I have had to analyze data on the number and source of visitors to the U.S. Consulate Web sites in order to find out who constitutes our "Web audience" to find out whether we are providing the right information. Often as an "Economic Officer" I have had to write decision memoranda advising senior officials on the effectiveness of U.S. trade policy in the region. Indeed, working as a skilled generalist doesn't mean just having the skills, it's using them that counts.

I recently learned that people who have an MPA/MPP degree pass the Foreign Service Written Exam at about a 50 percent higher rate than other test takers, including those with only an undergraduate degree. Graduate studies in public policy or a related field—though not required—certainly do provide the critical skills needed for this challenging career.

Work in the Foreign Service is some of the most interesting available anywhere, and is an excellent way to translate passions for foreign cultures, travel, and public service into a rewarding way of life.

Mark Rincón is a Foreign Service Officer serving in the U.S. Consulate in Jerusalem. He is a graduate of The University of Notre Dame, the French Institut d'Études Politiques, and the University of Texas at Austin—LBJ School of Public Affairs.

The first step toward pursuing such a career is to take and pass the Foreign Service Written Exam, which is free and will be offered worldwide on April 8, 2006. You can register for the exam at www.careers.state.gov with a deadline for domestic test sites of March 8 and for foreign test sites of March 1. ■

Entrepreneurial Public Management as a Replacement for Bureaucratic Public Administration: Getting Government to Move at the Speed and Effectiveness of the Information Age

by Newt Gingrich

It is simply impossible for the American government to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century with the bureaucracy, regulations and systems of the 1880s.

Implementing policy effectively is ultimately as important as making the right policy. In national security we have an absolute crisis of ineffective and inefficient implementation which undermines even the most correct policies and risks the security of the country. In health, education and other areas we have cumbersome, inefficient, and ineffective bureaucracies which make our tax dollars less effective and the decision of representative government less capable. People expect results and not just excuses.

To get those results in the twenty-first century will require a profound transformation from a model of Bureaucratic Public Administration to a model of Entrepreneurial Public Management.

As Professor Philip Bobbitt of the University of Texas has noted: "Tomorrow's {nation} state will have as much in common with the twenty-first century multinational company as with the twentieth century {nation} state. It will outsource many functions to the private sector, rely less of regulation and more on market incentives and respond to ever-changing consumer demand."

It is an objective fact that government today is incapable of moving at the speed of the Information age.

It is an objective fact that government today is incapable of running a lean, agile operation like the logistics supply chain system that has made WalMart so successful or the recent IBM logistics supply chain innovations which IBM estimates now saves it over $3 billion a years while improving productivity and profits.

There is a practical reason government cannot function at the speed of the information age.

Modern government as we know it is an intellectual product of the civil service reform movement of the 1880s.

Think of the implications of that reality.

A movement that matured over 120 years ago was a movement developed in a period when male clerks used quill pens and dipped them into ink bottles.

The processes, checklists, and speed appropriate to a pre-telephone, pre-typewriter era of government bureaucracy are clearly hopelessly obsolete.

Simply imagine walking into a government office today and seeing a gas light, a quill pen, a bottle of ink for dipping the pen, a tall clerk's desk, and a stool. The very image of the office would communicate how obsolete the office was. If you saw someone actually trying to run a government program in that office you would know instantly it was a hopeless task.

Yet the unseen mental assumptions of modern bureaucracy are fully as out of date and obsolete, fully as hopeless at keeping up with the modern world as that office would be.

Today we have a combination of information age and industrial age equipment in a government office being slowed to the pace of an agricultural age mentality of processes, checklists, limitations, and assumptions.

This obsolete, process-oriented system of bureaucracy is made even slower and more risk averse by the attitudes of the Inspectors General, the Congress, and the news media. These three groups are actually mutually reinforcing in limiting energy, entrepreneurship, and creativity.

The Inspectors General are products of a scandal and misdeed oriented mindset which would bankrupt any corporation. The Inspectors General communicate what government employees cannot do and what they cannot avoid. The emphasis is overwhelmingly on a petty dotting the i's and crossing the t's mentality which leads to good bookkeeping and slow, unimaginative, and expensive implementation.

There are no Inspectors General seeking to reward imagination, daring risks, aggressive leadership, over achievement.

Similarly, the members of Congress and their staffs are quick to hold hearings and issue press releases about mistakes in public administration but there are remarkably few efforts to identify what works and what should be streamlined and modernized.

> "...members of Congress and their staffs are quick to hold hearings and issue press releases about mistakes in public administration but there are remarkably few efforts to identify what works and what should be streamlined and modernized."
>
> —*Newt Gingrich*

Every hearing about a scandal reminds the civil service to keep its head down.

Similarly, the news media will uncover, exaggerate and put the spotlight on any potential scandal but it will do remarkably little to highlight, to praise, and to recognize outstanding breakthroughs in getting more done more quickly with fewer resources.

Finally, the very nature of the personnel system further leads to timidity and mediocrity. No amount of extra effort can be rewarded and no amount of incompetent but honest inaction seems punishable. The failure of the system to reinforce success and punish failure leads to a steady drift toward mediocrity and risk avoidance.

Newt Gingrich is a senior fellow at AEI. This document is an expansion on a theme introduced in Winning the Future*, by Gingrich, published by Regnery Publishing in January 2005.*

This paper is published with permission from AEI and Gingrich Communications. The complete paper can be found at AEI.org or Newt.org.

Before Gingrich entered the United States Congress, he was a professor at NASPAA member school Kennesaw State University. ■

About NASPAA

NASPAA is an association of more than 253 schools of public affairs and administration in the United States and assorted associate members in the United States and abroad. We are committed to promoting quality in public affairs education and to promoting the ideal of public service. NASPAA serves as the specialized accrediting body for academic programs in public administration, public policy, and public affairs. This accreditation practice now includes a roster of 155 accredited programs.

Featured activities on NASPAA's agenda include an active campaign for public service and public service education, which includes initiatives addressing media relations and the tracking of public policy issues relevant to NASPAA's mission. We are sponsoring research and action on the status of minorities in public affairs education. NASPAA works closely with the International City/County Management Association (ICMA) on education and training for local government management. In recognition of the broadening dimensions of our field, we have developed a set of guidelines for nonprofit education in collaboration with the Nonprofit Academic Centers Council. We are also working on outreach in other areas central to NASPAA programs, such as health management education. In addition, we are engaged internationally, particularly in the development of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee) and the new Inter-American Network for Public Administration Education (INPAE).

The NASPAA Annual Conference on public affairs and public affairs education is a meeting focused on research and dialogue on academic program administration, on curriculum and teaching, and on the synthesis of research on topics of current importance and the relationship of this research to teaching and practice. The conference is an active mix of program administrators, faculty, students, and practitioners in our field.

NASPAA on the Internet

Web site: www.naspaa.org *Listserv:* To subscribe to the NASPAA listserv, email your request to majordomo@s-cwis.unomaha.edu. The subject line should remain blank. In the body of the message, type only the following line: subscribe naspaa your complete name. To submit items to the listserv, address them to naspaa@fac pacs.unomaha.edu.

NASPAA also has specialized listservs for career directors and doctoral program directors. Please see www.naspaa.org/principals/news/listserv.asp for details on how to join these lists.

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Please send news about your program, faculty, events, or honors for upcoming issues of the *JPAE* Gazette to us at jpae@naspaa.org.

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The *Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE)* is the flagship journal of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Founded in 1970, NASPAA serves as a national and international resource for the promotion of excellence in education for the public service. Its institutional membership includes more than 250 university programs in the United States in public administration, policy, and management. It accomplishes its purposes through direct services to its member institutions and by

- Developing and administering appropriate standards for educational programs in public affairs through its Executive Council and its Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation;
- Representing to governments and other institutions the objectives and needs of education for public affairs and administration;
- Encouraging curriculum development and innovation and providing a forum for publication and discussion of education scholarship, practices, and issues;
- Undertaking surveys that provide members and the public with information on key educational issues;
- Meeting with employers to promote internship and employment for students and graduates;
- Undertaking joint educational projects with practitioner professional organizations; and
- Collaborating with institutes and schools of public administration in other countries through conferences, consortia, and joint projects.

NASPAA provides opportunities for international engagement for NASPAA members, placing a global emphasis on educational quality and quality assurance through a series of networked international initiatives, in particular the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee), the Inter-American Network of Public Administration Education (INPAE), and the Georgian Institute of Public Affairs (GIPA). It is also involved locally; for instance, directing the Small Communities Outreach Project for Environmental Issues, which networks public affairs schools and local governments around environmental regulation policy issues, with support from the Environmental Protection Agency.

NASPAA's twofold mission is to ensure excellence in education and training for public service and to promote the ideal of public service. Consistent with NASPAA's mission, *JPAE* is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs, defined to include the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, and public policy. Published quarterly by NASPAA, the journal features commentaries, announcements, symposia, book reviews, and peer-reviewed scholarly articles on pedagogical, curricular, and accreditation issues pertaining to public affairs education.

JPAE was founded in 1995 by a consortium from the University of Kansas and the University of Akron and was originally published as the *Journal of Public Administration Education*. H. George Frederickson was the journal's founding editor. In addition to serving as NASPAA's journal of record, *JPAE* is affiliated with the Section of Public Administration Education of the American Society for Public Administration.